Integrating English as a Foreign Language in Austrian primary schools: contextual and participant perspectives

Thesis

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Integrating English as a Foreign Language in Austrian primary schools: contextual and participant perspectives

Submitted for the degree of
Doctorate of Education (EdD)

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18th August 2015

The Open University, Milton Keynes, UK
Abstract

Government guidelines in Austria specify that first and second year primary school pupils (age 6-8 years old) should receive their first teaching of a foreign language integrated into the syllabus subjects.

The present study, embedded in the theoretical framework of social constructivist learning and socio-cultural language learning theories, investigated the actual classroom practices of Austrian primary school teachers during the integration of English into the lessons. The main research question ‘How is English as a foreign language taught in the first two years of Austrian primary schools?’ required consideration of both the context and the participants and aligned three perspectives: context, teachers and pupils. From the contextual perspective, government legislation and guidance, teacher training institutions, and school management are significant. They influence some aspects of the individual teachers’ competences and attitudes, which in turn affect her or his teaching goals, lesson planning, time allocated to English and other subjects, and choice of classroom activities. The other key participants are the children themselves and their perspective on English learning in the classroom.

Setting out to observe foreign language teaching/learning in Austrian primary schools, the study actually identified a number of disparities in processes and perceptions, and raised questions about how English integration is translated into effective classroom practice. Set in the framework of qualitative mixed methods study design, with data drawn from a combination of case study ethnographic classroom observations, a small scale survey, interviews with academics and teachers, pupil picture questionnaires, documentary evidence and innovative qualitative data elicitation methods adapted to young children, the findings of this study reveal that there is a mismatch between government expectations, teacher training, school policies, and actual teaching practice.
Acknowledgements

I would like to thank Dr Ursula Stickler and Professor Jim Coleman, my supervisors, for their wonderful support and guidance during this research project.

Many thanks are also due to Dr Mario Richtsfeld for his advice on technical issues and special thanks to my son Philip, bi-lingual university student, for his comments and assistance with the translations.

I would also like to express my gratitude to June Ayres at the Open University for her advice and organisation of all administrative matters.

Finally, I would like to thank my family and in particular my husband Hans for their invaluable and continuous moral support, patience and understanding during the years of my study.
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1 Chapter One

1.1 Introduction

I am a British expatriate who has lived and worked in Austria for more than three decades. Over recent years, I have observed the importance of the English language across society in general growing inexorably. Since 2003/04, my work as a primary school teacher has also had to reflect the importance of the English language, since English has become a compulsory subject in the primary school curriculum. However, my own experience led me to wonder how effective the introduction of compulsory English has been, and to what extent the education authorities, teacher trainers, and teachers and pupils share a common vision of how English can best be taught and learned. An initial survey suggested that little academic research had been conducted into how English is being taught in Austrian primary schools and which factors influence the teaching/learning taking place.

The following section provides a backcloth to Austrian language learning policy by looking at language education policy in Europe and the factors which influence foreign language (FL) teaching in primary schools.

1.2 Council of Europe language learning and teaching policy

Language learning and teaching is a major priority of the Council of Europe (CoE, 2001), of which Austria is one of eight founding members. CoE recommendations have been hugely influential in shaping language education policy in all member states. Based upon the preservation and promotion of human rights, democracy and the rule of law (Warsaw Declaration, 2005), social understanding and democracy between CoE member states are vital. Therefore, the study of languages, together with history and civilisation is necessary if successful communication and understanding are to be achieved.

Plurilingualism is the key concept upon which the language education policy of the CoE is founded and is not to be mistaken with multilingualism which involves the use of different
languages between sociocultural groups all within one geographical area. The concept of plurilingualism is defined in the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) as:

the ability to use languages for the purposes of communication and to take part in intercultural interaction, where a person, viewed as a social agent, has proficiency of varying degrees, in several languages, and experience of several cultures.

(CoE, 2001, p. 168)

Consequently, language education within the CoE (2001) includes developing the complete linguistic knowledge of an individual and this may comprise more than just their first language. A speaker may also have knowledge of, for example: a regional language (language of neighbouring countries); a minority language (language of small ethnic groups); a FL (where the individual’s language is not the national language of communication or their own native language and access to it is not as easily obtained in the immediate geographical environment); or a second language (in contrast to a FL, where the language of communication is in the immediate geographical environment or workplace and is usually the national authoritative language but not the first language of the speaker). At approximately the same time as the CoE was beginning to develop a policy of plurilingualism, education authorities were becoming concerned with the unsatisfactory outcome of FL learning and about new knowledge arising from Second Language Acquisition (SLA) research (Ellis, 1997) and language teaching (fuller coverage will be provided in the literature review). Taken together, these indicated that a new integrative teaching approach was developing in Europe. Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) has become the most widely used label for integrating language learning and subject content, and probably the most widely adopted integrated language teaching
approach across Europe. CLIL can be perceived as a major development in bilingual education.

Section 1.3 describes the general school context for Austrian language education and the research rationale.

### 1.3 General context and research rationale

Austrian children start primary school at the age of six. Compulsory school attendance is for a total of nine years, of which primary schooling is generally four years. Exceptions to the rule occur when individual children repeat a year class or classes for various reasons. The first two years of school (1. *Schulstufe*) will be referred to as Stage one (S1). Year one of S1 consists of pupils aged six to seven and year two of S1 consists of pupils aged seven to eight. The third and fourth years (2. *Schulstufe*) will be referred to as Stage two (S2). Year one of S2 (third primary year) consists of pupils aged eight to nine and year two of S2 (fourth primary year) consists of pupils aged nine to ten. The government does not allocate extra teaching hours for FL learning at S1 (Table 1.1) in the primary school curriculum but an extra hour has been allocated at S2 (Table 1.2).

**Table 1.1** The number of hours allocated to each subject for Austrian second year primary school pupils

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Hours</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Religion</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General knowledge</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>German, reading, writing</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maths</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Music</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Art</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical and textile handicraft</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical education</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>22</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: *Bundesministerium für Bildung und Frauen, (2012) Lehrplan der Volksschule Stundentafel der 1. – 4. Schulstufe, s.32. (Ministry for Education and Women, Primary school curriculum, 1-4 years, p.32 (MoE, 2012))
Table 1.2 The number of hours allocated to each subject for Austrian fourth year primary school pupils

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Hours</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Religion</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General knowledge</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>German, reading, writing</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maths</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Music</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Art</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical and textile handicraft</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical education</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreign language</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>23</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: (MoE, 2012)

Teaching time at S1 is between 20 and 23 hours per week and at S2 between 22 and 25 hours per week (MoE, 2012, p.32). Table 1.3 is an example of a weekly timetable taken from an Austrian second year primary school class.

Table 1.3 An example of a weekly timetable taken from an Austrian second year primary school class

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Monday</th>
<th>Tuesday</th>
<th>Wednesday</th>
<th>Thursday</th>
<th>Friday</th>
<th>Total number of hours</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7.45–8.35</td>
<td>GU</td>
<td>GU</td>
<td>GU</td>
<td>BSP</td>
<td>GU</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.40–9.30</td>
<td>GU</td>
<td>GU</td>
<td>GU</td>
<td>GU</td>
<td>GU</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.45–10.35</td>
<td>GU</td>
<td>GU</td>
<td>REL</td>
<td>GU</td>
<td>REL</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.40–11.30</td>
<td>GU</td>
<td>BSP</td>
<td>GU</td>
<td>GU</td>
<td>TW/TX</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.40–12.30</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hours</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key:
GU = General instruction (Gesamtunterricht)
BSP = Physical education (Bewegung und Sport)
REL = Religion (Religion)
TW/TX = Technical and handicrafts (Technisches Werken und Textiles Werken)
(Source: Local primary school)
As shown in Table 1.3 the total number of hours in the timetable does not cover the total number of suggested hours for the separate school subjects shown in Table 1.1. This is because of the autonomy that schools have with regard to the curriculum, whereby extra teaching time for compulsory subjects (except Religion and FL instruction) can be increased or decreased to a maximum of two hours per week; however, compulsory subjects may not be entirely deleted (MoE, 2012, p.32). Therefore, as observed in Table 1.3 in contrast to Table 1.1, the total number of hours spent teaching in this local primary school for second year pupils has been reduced by one hour. Yet the school also needs to take into account the compulsory one-hour FL instruction per week.

The CoE recommendation for integrating FL learning can be observed in the legislation document Federal Law Gazette II Nr 368/2005:

Dem Wesen des Unterrichts in der Grundschule entsprechend, erfolgt das Lernen der Fremdsprache auf der Grundstufe I als integrierter Bestandteil des Grundschulunterrichts in kürzeren Einheiten, … erfolgt im Rahmen der Pflichtgegenstände wie Sachunterricht, Musikerziehung, Bewegung und Sport, Bildnerische Erziehung und Mathematik, ohne dass es zu einer Kürzung des Bildungsangebots kommt.

(MoE, 2005, p. 246)

(In the primary school teaching style, foreign language learning at Stage one should be integrated into the primary school curriculum in short phases … take place during compulsory subjects, for example General Knowledge, Music, Physical Education, Art and Maths, without reducing the educational content.)
In the more detailed guidelines the document stipulates that FL learning at S1 can easily be integrated into any general subject except German, reading and writing:

Mit Ausnahme von „Deutsch, Lesen, Schreiben“ bzw. „Deutsch, Lesen“ eignen sich im Wesentlichen alle Unterrichtsgegenstände zur phasenweisen Verwendung der Fremdsprache als Unterrichtssprache, um einfache Sachverhalte auszudrücken.

(MoE, 2005, p. 246)

(With the exception of ‘German, reading, writing’ or ‘German, reading’ the FL can be used for all subject areas as temporary language of teaching/learning to express simple subject contents.)

The MoE guidelines (2005, pp 243-248) supply a list of subject related themes and suggest an integrative teaching/learning approach. Time allocation for FL integration during the week is decided at the local level of the individual school and teacher, as is the choice of subject/s. A national FL curriculum for primary schools does not exist. The MoE paper (2005) is a political document which teachers are expected to put into operation. With the integration of English into the Austrian primary school classroom, teachers of S1 pupils have needed to rethink their classroom management and practice in terms of teaching methods, strategies and classroom time for the lessons. Teaching materials and the resources available need to be carefully considered, planned and prepared. At this age, where young learners often have problems constructing and communicating meaning in their first language (mainly German) and where literacy skills are still low, the teacher will need to provide learning contexts in a FL teaching/learning framework that supports their
cognitive levels. In addition, regardless of the type of methods in use, pupil shyness and anxiety surrounding verbal expression in English may also occur and need to be overcome. Pupils’ perceptions of their lessons remain speculative. However, when investigation of their perceptions with appropriate methods is made they provide an additional perspective on classroom practice and learning and depth to an investigation of Austrian primary school teachers’ teaching practices for early foreign language learners.

Section 1.4 describes the influence of the CoE recommendations on the development of language teaching and learning in Austria.

1.4 Austrian language education policy

The importance of Early Language Learning (ELL) has been positively influenced and accepted by language education policymakers at all levels through the introduction of comparative international student assessment and publication of educational papers, for example, the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD, 2006) and the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA, 2003). Following these education initiatives, the Language Policy Division (LPD) of the CoE was established to provide assistance and feedback and to initiate reflection for future language educational developments for member states. In accordance with the LPD, each member state can develop a Language Education Policy Profile (LEPP) for their country.

In Austria, awareness of the importance of language learning has also been influenced by the Bologna Process (1999) and the Lisbon Process (2000). The Bologna Process to harmonise European higher education frequently involves university students moving to another country to undertake studying that will entail using a language other than their own. The Lisbon Process is concerned with the development of a knowledge-based society.
Subsequently language centres at four main universities in Austria were established to provide students with the opportunity to study foreign languages as well as their main disciplines. The diverse Austrian teacher training colleges (Pädagogische Akademien, Pädagogische Institute and Berufspädagogischen Akademien) were also upgraded to higher education (HE) status and are now Pädagogische Hochschulen (PHs). A HE academic degree is now gained upon graduation. Curriculum design and content in the PHs is decided upon by the academic staff.

Although Austrian language education is claimed to be based on the CoE’s policy of plurilingualism, English, recognised as a global language (Graddol, 2006), remains the main foreign language on offer for students at the new PHs to date (Austrian LEPP, 2008 (ALEPP)). English is also the main foreign language taught in Austrian primary schools (Eurydice, 2008; Buchholz, 2007; Dalton-Puffer, Faistauer and Vetter, 2011). The apparent scarcity of foreign languages available at the PHs for future teachers indicates that plurilingualism is not yet a significant feature of teacher training.

Further commitment to the development of language education and teaching can be observed in the establishment and growth of a variety of language institutions in Austria, for example the European Centre for Modern Languages (ECML) set up in 1994. The ECML is a division of the CoE (2001). It assists in the development of language teaching and learning in Europe, and complements the work of the LPD. The ECML (2010) promotes the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR), a guideline for proficiency levels in language competence (CoE, 2001). The ECML (2010) also promotes the European Language Portfolio (ELP) to provide materials and tools designed to assist language learners and teachers.

The establishment of the Austrian language competence centre (Österreichisches Sprachenkompetenz-Zentrum, (ÖSZ)) by the Austrian Ministry of Education (MoE)
created a national institution which assists in the dissemination of developing innovations in language learning and teaching with a specific focus on international language policy.

FL tuition in Austrian primary schools was first attempted during the 1960s, albeit not consistently. From 1983/84 higher-level primary school pupils received one hour per week of FL tuition, and in 2003/04 this was extended to all primary school pupils at all levels. Following the recommendations of the CoE Committee of Ministers (2006, 1998), FL learning is now compulsory in all primary schools in Austria. The educational aims stipulated in the MoE document (2005, p 243) are as follows:

- to influence learning motivation and interest in foreign languages
- to develop communication skills in a FL
- to influence and develop intercultural awareness – respect and unprejudiced interaction with others of different cultures
- to acknowledge and recognise self as part of a larger community and specifically the European community.

The specific teaching aim for first and second year primary school pupils is:

- the development of oral–aural skills for understanding and communication.

Reading and writing are to be introduced in the third and fourth years – when pupils have securely internalised the sound pattern of the FL – and are seen as tools to support the future development of FL learning.

Buchholz (2007) also describes how the four language skills have been condensed into a primary skill area and a secondary skill area:

1. listening and speaking (the primary skill area and learning aim for both primary school stages)
2. reading and writing (the secondary skill area).

The final section of this chapter provides a general outline of the research domain.
1.5 Areas to explore

Austrian primary school teachers are generalist teachers who are required to teach all subjects. However, FL teaching practice/training is not obligatory in all teacher training universities (ALEPP, 2008). Yet if successful FL instruction in primary schools is to be achieved, then knowledge of the subject, the FL, and the teaching methods and strategies are arguably required. If recommendations set out by the CoE Conclusions (2008) to improve and promote plurilingualism, involving the learning of non-linguistic subjects through a FL, are to be adhered to and implemented by teachers, knowledge of language and language learning theories appears essential.

The integration of English as a foreign language into the classrooms of young learners is challenging and complex for all classroom participants. Hence, to support primary school teachers, sufficient training and materials are required. Teaching skills, teaching style, FL knowledge, language learning theories and self-confidence are all factors that influence the type of pedagogical approach applied during lessons. The subjects selected for integration and the priority given to English in the classroom, involving time factors, teaching support, classroom tools and materials used, may all be related to school policy.

Research studies in all areas of education have also shown how diverse and influential the role of the teacher is for the attainment of learning. Language learning theories and general learning theories have developed over the decades. Teachers’ roles have changed from being the transmitters of knowledge to the facilitators of learning. Learners have become more actively involved in the process of learning through peer and group interaction. There are many possible methods available to the teacher for integrating the FL into the curriculum subjects, for example CLIL, Content Based Instruction (CBI), Theme Based Instruction (TBI) and Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). These are all described in Chapter Two. (Please see Appendix X for a complete list of all abbreviations and recurrent acronyms used in this thesis).
The methods of instruction will influence the classroom landscape. Teachers’ perceptions of the methods in use during lessons and reflections of these in their actual classroom practice also need to be taken into account.

There needs to be further investigation into how teachers’ knowledge and their own FL skills are linked to pupils’ perceptions of the lessons, as these factors can influence learning, interest and enjoyment. The MoE recommendations to improve and support the development of FL learning in the primary school curriculum document, involves subject choices, teaching methods and themes for the lessons. A critical analysis of the MoE document (2005, pp. 243-248) with regard to the teaching guidelines involving the teaching methods, strategies, classroom tools, educational aims and teaching approaches to be used during FL instruction is presented in Section 2.7.

Current knowledge of the issues raised in Chapter One is addressed in Chapter Two: Literature review.
2 Chapter Two: Literature review

2.1 Introduction

The review begins with a discussion of theories and research pertaining to Early Language Learning (ELL), Early Foreign Language Learning (EFLL) and second language (L2) learning. We then move on to literature concerned with teacher perceptions and training, with specific focus on Austria and EFLL. Together the theories and research will help underpin an evaluation of international and Austrian EFLL policy which also incorporates a critical analysis of the Austrian ministerial guidelines for primary schools (MoE, 2005). The final section will address the research questions to which the whole chapter has been leading.

2.2 Early language learners and early foreign language learning

Influenced by findings from language studies, the political landscape and government language and teaching policies, many countries have adopted early FL learning (Comfort and Tinsley, 2012). Austria is no exception and early FL learning has in most primary schools become an integral part of the curriculum. How young children learn a FL has been a widely debated and intensive area of investigation over the decades.

One of the significant contributions to FL learning can be found in the ELL studies of Chomsky (1972). He identified children’s formation and creation of new words in their attempts to master language. Chomsky (1972) argued that humans are born with innate mental structures which promote language acquisition and that the mind is equipped with a separate innate linguistic system for language acquisition which he termed the Language Acquisition Device (LAD). He proposed that young children cannot learn a language system from others alone but that language is innate and universal and found evidence of this in children’s creative use of language which could not have been heard in their interactions with others: for example, ‘I wented to the shops.’ Chomsky (1972) argued that a Universal Grammar (UG) device enables children to recognise grammatical rules of a
language or languages to which the child is exposed and has interactions with. The formation of new sentences can then be made by children on their own. Pinter (2006) also discusses and gives examples of how children play with language (p. 21). The implications this has for teachers in their FL/L2 classrooms regarding teaching methodology are considerable. Pupil motivation, interest and learning are all interrelated, as research in young children has shown (Nikolov, 1999). By the time children reach school age, which is usually five or six, they have acquired a level of control over their first language (L1) that enables them to communicate and be understood at home. However, further development is required for its use in other situations (Pinter, 2006).

Teacher awareness of young children’s capabilities of language use in their L1 together with knowledge of early language learning (ELL) theories can assist the teacher in the choice of methods, tools and strategies for learning in the FL/L2 classroom. For example, the Swiss developmental psychologist Piaget (1929) proposed that children move through four distinct stages of development and each stage shows more complex thinking. Pinter (2006) suggests that knowing these stages of development can assist teachers in identifying the type of methods and tools that different age groups require for learning in the classroom. Therefore, Piaget’s third stage – the concrete operational stage (approximately seven years and primary school age) – has significance for this study in terms of the teaching methods, strategies and tools used in order for logical reasoning in the FL lessons to be achieved. For language teaching, for example, this would entail simple repetitive phrases for greetings in formal situations (e.g. health visits) and informal situations (e.g. family, friends).

The social constructivist theory of Vygotsky (1978) has also had a great impact on sociocultural linguistic theories. He proposed that social interactions and transactions between the more experienced teacher and less experienced learner in a shared sociocultural context assist the development of learner understanding and knowledge.
Vygotsky (1978) termed this the ‘zone of proximal development’ (ZPD). Therefore, relevant age-appropriate language is vital if communication (for learning) between the more experienced teacher and less experienced learner is to take place. Based on research studies of young L1 learners, Snow (1972) has shown how humans modify their speech to babies through the use of, for example, intonation, simplistic language, repetition, etc. FL teachers can adopt similar strategies to assist learning where associations between language and actions for meaning can be made. Long’s interaction hypothesis (1996), which involves the importance of the linguistic environment and the interactions taking place, becomes relevant here. Therefore, teacher awareness of their own language use, teaching methods and strategies which are age appropriate are required, as these factors all influence the understanding that pupils need to achieve their learning goals. The linguist Michael Halliday writing on the functions of language claimed:

Learning one’s mother tongue is learning the use of language, and the meanings, or rather the meaning potential, associated with them. The structures, the words and the sounds are the realisation of this meaning potential. Learning language is learning how to mean.

(1973, p. 24)

Young children are not aware of linguistic features but are aware of language use. Therefore, the necessity for pupils to use FL for example to complete tasks, ask questions, give responses, or engage in interactions, means that such activities are all potential teaching methods and strategies that the teacher can incorporate into the FL classroom for learning. Current language learning theories involve a predominantly competence-based approach influenced by communicative competence and SLA (Ellis, 1997). The roots of communicative competence can be found in Hymes’s development (1972) of Chomsky’s
generative theories involving the difference between competence and production (1965). L2 researchers in the 1960s combined sociolinguistic competence with Chomsky’s linguistic competence (1965), which in the late 1970s and early 1980s they began to refer to as ‘communicative competence’. Communicative competence is a language-driven approach to learning and teaching. The emphasis of communicative language teaching (CLT) is on interaction and negotiating for meaning involving role play and group and peer interaction with the use of authentic materials (Richards and Rodgers, 2001). The aims of a CLT approach involve the development of learners’ abilities to communicate with native speakers in real-life situations and contexts. The learning focus of a CLT approach is not on language alone but also on the learning process (Richards and Rodgers, 2001).

A list of five features specific to the communicative competence approach was developed by Nunan (1991):

1. An emphasis on learning to communicate through interaction in the target language.
2. The introduction of authentic texts into the learning situation.
3. The provision of opportunities for learners to focus, not only on language but also on the learning process itself.
4. An enhancement of the learner’s own personal experiences as important contributing elements to classroom learning.
5. An attempt to link classroom language learning with language activities outside the classroom.

CLT has implications for classroom practice. Teachers need to provide appropriate learning activities which influence peer interaction regarding communication and at the same time develop learner skills and knowledge of the L2 or FL. This contrasts with the more traditional teacher-led behaviourist/psycholinguistic language classrooms which
consisted of repetition, mimicry and the learning of grammar. In a CLT setting the teacher takes a secondary role during the learning process. Teacher skills and appropriate language knowledge, materials and tasks to assist learner language development are of utmost importance in a CLT classroom (Breen and Candlin, 1979). These all have implications for teacher training with regard to their knowledge of and the skills required for implementing FL and L2 learning and teaching theories. Variations of the CLT approach began to appear by the 1980s when Canadian immersion programmes and Content Based Instruction (CBI) methodology influenced the interest of L2 researchers. CBI is not new and its origins can be traced back as far as AD 389 (Brinton, Snow and Wesche, 2003), when meaningful content for language learning was considered necessary. The main focus of CBI is not on form but on the accumulation of content knowledge through the L2. Nevertheless, content knowledge does influence proficiency in the L2/FL. However, critics of CBI have argued that diverse linguistic features of subjects require more explicit language teaching (Schleppegrell, Achugar and Oteiza, 2004; Short, 1994).

When the language across the curriculum (LaC) movement in the UK was implemented during the 1970s, recommendations for the teaching of language (English) for native speakers in other academic subjects in British schools were made (Brinton et al., 2003). The notion behind this movement involved the relationship between language and content learning which influences learner understanding and knowledge (Brinton et al., 2003). Consequently, subject content teachers and language teachers were required to work together. Language teachers were required to provide appropriate language instruction while subject teachers provided subject content activities that enabled learners to practise their English. The teaching practices of English native speakers in North American schools have also been influenced by LaC, as have L2 teaching practices, in particular CBI. With the increasing numbers of English language learners in America during the 1980s, CBI combined with language learning became a popular approach to teaching academic
subjects. Comprehensive teacher input and practice of the academic language of subject content for meaningful communication between learners are strategies of CBI which facilitate learning (Snow, Met and Genesee, 1989). As the term implies, CBI is content-driven. L2 learning is not the only target of CBI, but it is used as the vehicle language to learn specific subject content. There are four main prototypes of CBI:

i. Immersion education.

ii. Sheltered content instruction.

iii. Adjunct language instruction.

iv. Theme-based instruction.

The four prototypes are briefly described in the following subsection.

2.2.1 Prototypes of CBI

Immersion education began in 1965 in Canada and the USA. Carried out initially as an experiment in Montreal, Canada, it is the most widely documented and researched language teaching CBI model for primary school children. It involved a French native speaker using French as the medium of instruction to teach English-speaking nursery school children (Brinton et al., 2003). Immersion teaching involves school instruction being undertaken to a great extent, if not entirely, in the L2. Children do receive some instruction on grammar and form but the language is mainly learnt through its use. Snow (2001) reported that the English development of early language learners in immersion classrooms is equivalent and even higher than their monolingual peers, and furthermore, that by the end of elementary school they have become proficient bilingual speakers. However, Brinton et al. (2003, p. 8) argue that the Canadian programme was a success because for many of the children the language they used at home was the majority community language. They argue that because of the continual exposure to their L1 outside of school, children will inevitably be more successful learners than those children in minority language communities who do not use that language at home. Brinton et al.
(2003) suggest that this lack of achievement by minority language pupils is caused by their not receiving enough input and instruction in their L1.

Further criticisms concerning the results of the immersion programme involve the emphasis placed on L2 learning:

This attention to language competence tends to suggest (even if it is not the case) that the content subject is being used as a mere vehicle for language enhancement.

(Coyle, Hood and Marsh, 2010, p. 134)

However, Coyle et al., (2010) do acknowledge that some researchers have studied the effects on subject content with positive results. Findings with regard to majority language children who have received many years of immersion education have shown that they become skilled advanced L2 speakers. Variations and terminology of immersion programmes can be found all over the world, for example delayed immersion, i.e. instruction in a L2 and a FL begins at a later stage of schooling. A minimum use of 50% of the L2 is usually found in all types of immersion classrooms.

The sheltered content instruction model consists of L2 learners being separated from native language speakers of the target language. The separated L2 learners receive instruction through the L2 from a subject content teacher and the instruction is modified to facilitate learners’ understanding of that content (Brinton et al., 2003). The primary aim of sheltered instruction is content learning, although the framework of sheltered instruction is set in a CBI approach where the focus is on L2 development. Sheltered CBI instruction is normally found in secondary schools and involves L2 rather than FL instruction (Edwards, Wesclie, Krashen, Cleinent and Krudenier 1984). The adjunct language instruction model of CBI is similar to the sheltered content instruction model where native and non-native speakers receive instruction in two separate classes. One class consists of sheltered learners who
receive L2 instruction which shares the same content as the subject content class, the second is the subject content class and comprises both native and L2 speakers/learners. Once the sheltered learners have become more proficient with the L2, they rejoin the subject content class. In this way learners whose L2 skills are not highly proficient receive additional language learning support. This type of CBI model is usually found in university settings (Wegrzecka-Kowaleski, 1997).

Theme-based instruction (TBI), the fourth model of CBI, is more likely to be found in EFLL classrooms where a variety of topics and a wide range of appropriate topic-related tools are available, for example music, computers and toys. In a TBI classroom FL/L2 learning is the main focus (Brinton et al., 2003) and pupils are given explicit language learning goals. TBI is particularly popular among teachers and can be found at all levels of education in both FL and L2 classrooms (Brinton et al., 2003).

Pinter (2006) also reports the importance of pupil interest and knowledge of topics in her description of studies by Chi (1978) and Schneider and Bjorklund (1992) concerned with L2 learning and memory development. Therefore, awareness of pupils’ interests and their topic knowledge can assist the teacher in choosing themes for learning a L2 vocabulary which can be exploited for the learning of other linguistic components.

The models of CBI described above have influenced the teaching taking place in FL/L2 classrooms. CBI and specifically the Canadian immersion model influenced the development of the rapidly expanding content and language integrated learning (CLIL) approach being adopted in the FL/L2 classrooms of European schools. Therefore, before moving on to Section 2.3 it is relevant and important that a short history of a CLIL approach is made in the final subsection of this section.

2.2.2 Short history of CLIL development in Europe

In 1994 the term CLIL was adopted in Europe for the teaching of subjects in a language other than the national official language of those being taught.
The emphasis of CLIL is discourse through and with language for communication, development and understanding. Coyle (2000) has identified three types of language use in CLIL:

i. language of learning
ii. language for learning
iii. language through learning.

The ‘language triptych’ (Coyle et al., 2010) implies a concept of FL or L2 learning through implicit acquisition rather than explicit teaching. The learning emphasis in a CLIL classroom is equally divided between subject content and FL learning and not loaded on to one to the detriment of the other. Subsequently, content and language learning are synergised during instruction.

However, the bulk of CLIL research is specifically concerned with the outcomes of FL learning rather than subject content and the process of FL learning. Difficulties in CLIL classrooms are often perceived by teachers when learners’ L2 language skills are insufficient for the successful learning of the subject content (Dalton-Puffer, 2007, p. 5). Contrary to such expectations, studies have shown that pupils’ lack of L2 knowledge is not detrimental to subject content learning and that learning in a CLIL context influences cognitive development (Llinares, Morton and Whittaker, 2012, Ch. 5). Arguably, it is to be expected that early learners’ understanding and interpretation of the semantic meaning of words spoken in the classroom, even those in the L1, is not always possible. Awareness of language use by the teacher should always be a major priority in any classroom. The balancing of the L2 and subject content is a precarious feature of the CLIL classroom, but at the same time it offers opportunities for in-depth learning of both language and subject content for all participants.

The fundamental difference between CLIL in Europe and immersion programmes in Canada can be found in the difference between the political and social context in which
learning takes place and the overall content-driven aspect (Coyle et al., 2010) of the teaching approach.

Firstly, the political dimension of Canadian immersion teaching involves the achievement of a near native-like competence of the official language (French) for speakers of other languages. Therefore, L2 learning for pupils whose L1 differs from the official language of learning takes place during subject content learning. A major aim is equal fluency in both the L1 and L2 of students (Seikkula-Leino, 2007). On the other hand, the European political dimension emphasises plurilingualism, which is anchored in the necessity for speakers of other languages to have a linguistic competence that is functional rather than a near native-like competence of the official language (L2) of their country of residence.

Secondly, the Canadian social dimension lies in pupils’ daily contact with the official language outside of school, in authentic social situations. Hence, learners are continually ‘immersed’ within the language, whereas the European social dimension helps students from a majority of CoE member states to gain higher levels of FL competence through learning; exposure to daily authentic FL social situations and contexts outside of school is not the norm. The national curriculum of both the Canadian and European bilingual immersion schools are retained (Munoz, 2007).

One of the most important differences between bilingual immersion programmes in Canada and CLIL in Europe lies within the language proficiency of the teachers. CLIL teachers in Europe may not be as proficient in the FL of their classrooms as their French Canadian counterparts. Furthermore, language content and materials in European school settings are more likely to arise from school subjects than the authentic settings in which the Canadian institutions are immersed.

We now turn to studies of EFL and FL/L2 learners in the next section.
2.3 Early foreign language and second language learning studies

Research on EFLL in immersion programmes has shown that age factors and FL/L2 achievement are not prerequisites for the successful acquisition of a FL (Cook 1986; Harley, 1986). Although Lenneberg’s hypothesis of a critical period for language (1967) learning has been criticised, there is some consensus among researchers (Birdsong, 1999) that there is a sensitive period for FL/L2 learning. It has been proposed that near native pronunciation competence is more likely to be achieved when children below the age of 12 receive sufficient support to facilitate FL/L2 learning, for example environment, input, interaction (Pinter, 2006). Nonetheless, studies of early bilingual children have shown that development of both languages will only remain consistent and equal when adequate and equal opportunities to use the languages are given. Pinter (2006) also reports that although non-native children in English-speaking countries are immersed in the language both in and out of school, a study undertaken by Oliver, McKay and Rochcousta, (2003) showed that support for language acquisition (English) is necessary for longer even when the pupils show proficiency in the language.

The starting age for compulsory FL learning varies the world over. However, the starting age for pupils in the majority of European countries, including Austria, is six (Eurydice, 2008). Concerns that the learning of a L2 at an early age, particularly where children may be encountering L1 learning problems, may be counterproductive have not been confirmed in research findings (Comfort and Tinsley, 2012); in fact quite the opposite. Pinter (2011) also reports how research has shown that early L2 learning can be advantageous and that social factors in combination with early L2 learning opportunities influence learning success (p. 142). Furthermore age plays a role in the different methods and strategies used by L2 learners (Brainerd and Reyna, 1990). Research studies have shown that verbally repeating L2 vocabulary is the main learning strategy used by younger learners in contrast to older learners (9–10 years onwards) who use more sophisticated cognitive methods and
strategies, for example logical reasoning, memory (Brainerd and Reyna, 1990). Victori and Tragant (2003) also showed that as FL learners get older they report more and more diverse learning strategies than younger learners. Gu, Hu and Zhang (2005) investigated learning strategies of young primary school pupils (age seven and nine). Their study showed that the children had difficulties verbally expressing the learning strategies they used to the researchers and that younger pupils use fewer and less effective strategies than older pupils. Teachers need to be aware of young pupils’ lack of L2 learning strategy skills and accommodate these accordingly with the teaching methods in use. Furthermore, researchers also need to take into consideration the difficulties that may be experienced when collecting data from young children, as Gu et al. discovered during the research design process for their 2005 study, because this may have implications for the study’s reliability and validity.

A comparative study undertaken by Penate Cabrera and Bazo Martinez (2001) investigated young children’s (age ten) understanding of a story through different language use. Using interactional language – repetition, simplified language, gestures and pupil comprehension feedback – produced a higher level of understanding than when the story was delivered using simplified language only. The study suggests that using a range of teaching strategies for learning is an important and influential factor. Kim (2008) also shows how diverse teaching strategies can support learning. This study investigated which type of support can assist and develop the academic English linguistic skills of young pupils who are starting school where English is not the L1 - English as a second language (ESL). It was found that the combination of oral and written instruction was more effective for oral language development than oral instruction on its own.

A study by Djigunović (2010) investigated differences between early and late language learners during their L1 and L2 interactions. The findings show that early exposure to the L2 enabled easier language interaction and transfer between the L1 and the L2. These
findings have positive implications for integrative FL teaching approaches in that they suggest that language interrelatedness can assist pupil reflections and therefore also cognition levels, which can influence all learning areas of the classroom.

Studies have shown that exposure to the L2 at an earlier age does not necessarily ensure that correct linguistic structures are achieved, as the Canadian immersion programme has shown (Harley, 1986). In fact, later learners who have had less exposure to the FL may often acquire the same meta-linguistic levels as their counterparts who had early exposure to the language. Cook (1986) has suggested that this may be a result of the more explicit instruction methods related to psycholinguistic frameworks of language learning usually observed in later learners’ classrooms in contrast to the more implicit methods associated with SLA approaches found in the classrooms of their younger peers. Nonetheless, Cook (1986) claims that ‘Age in itself is no explanation if we cannot explain which aspect of maturation causes the difference, whether physical, social, cognitive or linguistic’ (p. 149).

A longitudinal study conducted by Nikolov (1999) and undertaken over a period of eight years investigated the motivation of young L2 learners aged between six and fourteen. Although not identified as such, the study follows action research principles - teacher as researcher often in his/her own classroom. Relevant to this thesis are the findings regarding six- to eight-year-old pupils, which showed that pupil motivation towards FL learning involved positive attitudes towards the teacher, for example liking her and enjoying the learning tasks, play, and extrinsic rewards in the form of praise and good grades. In contrast, instrumental features of the lessons concerning, for example reasons why the L2 is learnt, or integrative features concerning communication with other cultures were not identified as motivational criteria for young learners. Additionally, Nikolov (1999) identified how pupil motivation towards language learning gradually changed over time and that by the age of 11 instrumental features began to appear. Nonetheless, irrespective of age, pupils were intrinsically motivated to continue with the tasks when they found them
of interest. This provides some evidence from a pedagogical perspective for the importance of task design.

Weaknesses of the study (also recognised by the researcher) can be found in the research design and include possible subjective analysis, interest and professional involvement in the discussion of the findings. However, this action research study whereby the teacher is the researcher provides for a deeper insight into pupils’ learning strategies, weaknesses and strengths, which may not be identified by an outside researcher. Subsequently, teacher reflection upon the teaching methodologies and strategies in use in the classroom can be refocused to assist scaffolding (building upon previous knowledge) in the construction of knowledge for individuals, groups or the whole class of learners.

To conclude, it could be argued that the study provided very relevant and valid data concerning the importance of teachers’ perceptions and knowledge of task design for the intrinsic development of pupil motivation and provides some insights into the influence external rewards have upon motivation in young L2 learners. The situational context of learning, social interaction, self-reflection, learner autonomy and relevant curriculum content all contribute to learning motivation, which is perceived as one of the most vital factors in educational psychology.

Gardner and Lambert (1972) with colleagues were the pioneers of language learner motivation research in Canada in the 1970s and 1980s. Their theories initiated and developed empirical research concerned with causal relations between successful L2 learning and motivation. The concept of integrative motivation, i.e. the desire to learn the target community language in order to integrate with a specific community, arose from Gardner’s empirical research into motivation (1985), and Dörnyei (2003) suggests that ‘an “integrative” motivational orientation concerns a positive interpersonal/affective disposition toward the L2 group’ (p. 5). He argues that the integrative disposition is a type of emotional identification with an ethnic community group of different origin to one’s
own. However, interaction with focused target language communities is not normally given within the school context. Furthermore, Dörnyei (2003) discusses how L2 learning differs from other school subjects because of the social dimension. Ushioda (2010) also describes how motivation and attitudes towards the target language play a role in learning and not only in terms of language aptitude and intelligence.

A few studies have investigated diverse motivational components of the L2 classroom, for example course-specific motivational components such as task interest or teaching materials (Dörnyei, 2003, p. 11; Nikolov, 1999). Further studies include learner willingness to communicate and the link between motivation and the learning strategies in use (Dörnyei, 2003, p. 12). Willingness to communicate (MacIntyre, Dörnyei, Clément and Noels, 1998) in the L2 involves learners’ attitude towards the language. A study by Heining-Boynton and Haitema (2007) investigated primary pupils’ attitudes towards FL learning. It was found that girls were more positively inclined towards FL learning and showed greater interest in continuing to learn than boys. However, the study showed that FL interest declined in both girls and boys as they moved up through schooling. A follow-up study ten years later was made with the original pupils who volunteered to participate. Overall, the students showed positive attitudes towards FL learning at primary school. However, Pinter (2011) criticises the findings of the follow-up study, arguing that they are debateable due to the time lapse and because other factors which students have experienced in the meantime may influence their perceptions.

Ushioda (2010) laments that motivation research not only in education psychology studies but also in SLA studies has concentrated on learning rather than examining the dynamic properties in classrooms. She proposes that research needs to involve the investigation of the influences and interactions continuously and simultaneously developing between the environment and the learner with regard to emotion, motivation and the cognition processes taking place. In a review that was concerned with the socio-historical values in
classroom settings of language playfulness as the mediator of interactions in pedagogical practices (Sullivan, 1996), different types of ‘play’ related to national culture are also identified as useful teaching strategies. Historically the role of play in language development is situated Vygotsky’s ZPD, which enables the child to behave ‘beyond his age, above his daily behaviour’, (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 102). Vygotsky (1978, p. 95) perceived that young children are not able to imagine in play, but that their actions in imaginary play situations are rule-based behaviours of unnoticed real-life situations. Therefore, play may be perceived to stimulate cognitive processes through conscious activity. The implications this has for FL/L2 learning has been investigated by researchers and is the focus of the following subsection.

2.3.1 Language integration studies

Research involving primary school children in classes where subject content and foreign language learning are integrated is slowly expanding.

A CLIL study in Switzerland undertaken by Stotz and Meuter (2003) investigating primary school children’s oral–aural competence showed the lack of opportunities for them to practise English during the classroom discourse. Furthermore, teacher-led and short CLIL-type interactions were the main strategies in use. Nonetheless, the pupils achieved higher levels of oral–aural competence than their non-CLIL peers. Buchholz (2007) also identified similar findings in her study concerning pupils’ perceptions of their own opportunities to practise English during their lessons, and a more teacher-led approach. Some of the findings from Serra’s comparative CLIL study (2007) suggest that opportunities for pupils to use the language provide them with a tool to ‘notice’ differences in the daily use outside the classroom and for concepts inside the classroom. Through the everyday use of L2 words she argues that pupils’ awareness of the differences and their comprehension of concepts is enhanced. Therefore, through the familiarity of using L2 words every day, L1 word use becomes less familiar, leading to an increase in pupils’
meta-linguistic ‘noticing’ of the conceptual use of the words in both languages (Serra, 2007, p. 597). Serra (2007) argues that code switching can enable the visualisation of a concept: for example, in an Austrian CLIL maths lesson switching between the English word *square* and the German translation *das Viereck*, which means, basically, four corners. Similar findings are shown in Djigunovic’s multi-competence study (2010; see also Section 2.6), which is concerned with the positive influence L1 and L2 interaction may have in assisting cognition. Furthermore, language similarities can assist the memory in the learning and understanding of concepts. Serra claims that:

> Once code-alteration is internalised as a meta-linguistic practice, it becomes easier to shift to intra-language negotiation of form without losing pupils’ attention, mainly when the form in question is crucial to convey meaning.

(2007, p. 598)

Therefore the notion of ‘noticing’ and ‘code switching’ is an important learning tool in the classrooms of FL learners which teachers can put to use. Schmidt (1990) also argues that when pupils become aware of specific features or novelties during learning, for example novelty words or gaps in vocabulary during dialogic interaction, they force learners to ‘notice’ and hence reflect and negotiate for meaning with peers. A similar argument is made by Swain (2000) who identifies the importance of opportunities for learners to practise their output. She advocated not only that comprehensive teacher input facilitates learning but also that output plays a central role in L2 acquisition. Swain (2000) observed that when pupils needed to express themselves through either writing or speaking, they noticed ‘gaps’ in their linguistic knowledge. Strategies to fill these gaps involved pupils increasing their social dialogic interaction to build knowledge of the linguistic construction required to fill the ‘gap’ (Swain, 2000). Subsequently, the pedagogical implications which
Swain’s output theory has for L2 teaching and learning involve the encouragement of dialogue through communication whereby both input and output become equally important factors in the learning process. Research by Lyster and Ranta (1997) also identified problems in immersion classrooms in learners’ knowledge of form. Lyster (2004) argued that when teachers corrected pupils’ language form the pupils often did not acknowledge the correction. Reasons for this involved the emphasis placed upon language use for communication and meaning, in contrast to the emphasis placed upon form found in more formal language classrooms. Yet when pupils were encouraged to reflect upon their own language use during collaborative tasks and activities, improvement could be observed (Swain and Lapkin, 2003). Although the focus of L2 learning in Austrian primary schools is not on grammar, the research findings from Lyster and Ranta (1997) have implications for teachers’ own correct use of grammar regarding pupils' acquisition of it.

Research into teachers’ and pupils’ perspectives and perceptions of language and content-integrated lessons is growing. The next section looks at studies of teachers’ and pupils’ perceptions in FL and CLIL-type learning classrooms, with specific focus on Austria.

### 2.4 Perceptions

The concept of perception is the ‘acquirement of immediate knowledge’ through stimulation of our senses (Armstrong, 1961). One of the definitions in the Oxford dictionary (1964) also defines perception as: ‘intuitive recognition (of truth, aesthetic quality etc).... action by which the mind refers to its sensations to external object as cause’. Perceptions are the foundations upon which we develop our reasoning and beliefs. For example, ELL teachers strategies to teaching will influence pupils' perceptions of FL/L2 learning (Yoshida, 2008). Research has shown that the development of language learning processes, abilities and use of effective learning strategies are influenced by learner' beliefs (Wesely, 2012; Oxford, 2003). Therefore, the importance of early language learners' perceptions of their ELL classrooms for the development of beliefs is highlighted through
these studies. Positive perceptions will influence the development of positive beliefs which 
in turn will influence motivation and help pupils' overcome any problems arising during learning - negative perceptions will have negative effects on beliefs and motivation for 
learning (Puchta, 1999; Schommer, 1990). The Oxford dictionary (1969) defines belief as: 'acceptance of thing as true'. However, this does not mean that proof has been provided. The distinction between beliefs and perceptions is not often made in the literature yet there is a subtle difference. Wesely (2012) in her review reports that perception studies often investigate either:

- how pupils perceive, understand and make sense of themselves in the learning situation
- how pupils perceive the learning situation for example, the classroom environment.

Importantly, Wesely (2012) describes how these two areas are often believed to be interrelated by researchers (p. 100). Studies of learner beliefs although similar differ from learner perceptions.

- what pupils think about themselves
- what pupils think about the learning situation, for example the teacher.

Pupils' opinions of themselves as language learners involve their own capabilities for learning i.e. to accomplish learning tasks (Mills, Pajares and Herron, 2007). Furthermore, research into learners' beliefs are extended to include their opinions of the target language culture and community, and the task of learning a FL/L2 (Wesely, 2012).

The disposition to respond in a positive or negative manner toward for example a person or FL is defined in social psychology as attitude (Schwarz and Bohner 2001). The definition of attitude in the Oxford dictionary (1969) is: 'settled behaviour as showing opinion (way of thinking)'. Studies concerned with attitudes have shown relationships between motivation, attitude and language learning success (Ellis 2008). The environment also plays a role in learners' attitudes, beliefs and perceptions of FL/L2 learning. Rifkin (2000)
identified in his study that learners' beliefs, attitudes and perceptions of FL learning cannot be separated from the learning environment (teacher, methods, strategies, tools) as these are as diverse as languages and levels of learning. Subsequently, it can be hypothesised that learners' beliefs, attitudes and perceptions of FL learning can change. Therefore, investigation into FL learning needs to take into account all of these factors.

The following collection of studies described in this section report the findings from research into teacher and pupil perceptions and beliefs of their FL/L2 classrooms.

The findings from Buchholz’s large-scale study of Austrian primary schools (2007) have shown that teachers’ and pupils’ perceptions of their English lessons were often in divergence from one another, for example as regards pupil output opportunities to practise English, or enjoyment and integration of English into specific subjects – music was perceived to be used very often by the teachers (61.4%) for English integration in contrast to the pupils’ perceptions (35.8%). Although Buchholz (2007) attributes some of this discrepancy to the data collection methods (p. 150), the importance of pupils’ and teachers’ perceptions of classroom practice has been highlighted in the three-year ProCLIL project financed by the European Union (Massler, 2012).

The investigation into the perspectives of pupils and teachers of primary CLIL classrooms in the ProCLIL project (Massler, 2012) and the influence these have on the implementation of educational programmes was undertaken in four countries: Cyprus, Germany, Spain and Turkey. Pupils’, teachers’ and parents’ perceptions of CLIL were investigated at the start and completion of the project. Massler (2012) reporting on the German findings describes the difficulties which arose at the beginning of the project with teachers who had no previous training in CLIL. The German findings showed that difficulties perceived by teachers with regard to CLIL implementation involved lack of L2 competence, lesson preparation time, lack of subject knowledge and working alone. Positive influential factors on teachers’ perceptions of CLIL implementation into their classrooms involved further
professional and personal development, such as development of FL skills. Nonetheless the teachers also perceived CLIL to be a burden for many reasons, for example the quantity of lesson preparation time required. Pupils’ and teachers’ perceptions of FL improvement were mainly positive at the end of the study. Many of the parents and teachers at the start of the project feared that pupils’ content learning would diminish when taught through the L2. However, at the end of the project parents showed positive attitudes towards a CLIL approach for learning. Pupils’ perceptions of CLIL for content understanding were positive both at the beginning and at the end of the project. All of the teachers in the project chose the modular approach to CLIL due to their lack of CLIL knowledge. The overall findings also showed that attitudes play an important role in the successful implementation of CLIL and need to be considered by educationalists at all levels.

Another study investigating teachers’ and students’ perceptions was undertaken by Dalton-Puffer, Hüttner, Jexenflicker, Schindelegger and Smit (2008). They investigated students’ and teachers’ beliefs and views on CLIL at Austrian colleges of technology and crafts (Höhere Technische Bundeslehranstalt). The focus of participants’ perceptions was on the three main areas: language learning, aims of CLIL and dynamic features in the classroom which lead to CLIL success. The findings from language learning showed that both the non-specialist English teachers and students perceived that their English improved by using or doing it (Dalton-Puffer et al., 2008). However, specialist English teachers perceived that their own English could only be improved by interaction with native speakers. Therefore, Dalton-Puffer et al., (2008) conclude that perceptions between specialist English teachers and CLIL non-specialist English teachers differ in their concept of the aims of CLIL. Native competence is the aim of specialist teachers and language competence for communication is the aim of the non-specialist English teachers. The findings also revealed that participants explicitly taught vocabulary which contradicts the CLIL concept of incidental learning. Perceptions of the learning aims also differed
between policy-makers and the teachers and students. Both teachers and students perceived
the CLIL lessons as lessons where extra English practice could be provided but not for
learning English. Learning, they perceived is undertaken in their English lessons (Dalton-
Puffer et al., 2008). How far primary teachers and pupils perceive that English integration
into the curriculum furthers content learning is also partially investigated in this study.
Findings from investigating dynamic classroom features and CLIL success showed that
both students and teachers perceived CLIL as successful with regard to English language
competence and the importance of English as an international lingua franca for later
working life. All of the findings show that CLIL is perceived as a method for additional
English learning and practice for communication in real life, rather than as the synergy of
content and language learning. The study revealed that teachers’ and pupils’ perceptions of
CLIL are important sources for assessing the type of CLIL implementation taking place.
Mercer and Ryan (2010) have also shown how learning is organised and how the meaning
made from experience is influenced by learners’ perceptions.

The final study in this section displays vividly how young pupils model their developing
perceptions of FL learning on their teacher’s classroom practices. A study by Gardner and
Yaacob (2007) investigating the literacy practices of six and seven-year-olds in English
lessons showed that pupils are distinctly aware of the position that both the teacher and the
pupils take in the classroom. Furthermore, pupil behaviour (data collection entailed pupils
role playing in the classroom) often reflected the observed lessons. These are important
findings which can assist teachers to reflect upon their own classroom practice and
simultaneously provide insight into their pupils’ perceptions of FL learning.

The studies described in this section show the diverse attitudes, perceptions and beliefs
present in classrooms which often diverge between learners, teachers and policymakers.
The influence these have on learning/teaching motivation, implementation of educational
programmes and outcomes for both teachers’ and their pupils is important (Massler 2012; Mercer and Ryan 2010; Dalton-Puffer et al., 2008; Buchholz 2007; Puchta, 1999).

More research into learners’ and teachers’ perceptions can assist in the implementation of education programmes. Although research of teachers’ and pupils’ perceptions of their CLIL classrooms is growing, it is mainly focused on the outcomes of learning. More research on teachers’ and pupils’ perceptions of FL/L2 classrooms would be beneficial to all FL/L2 educators.

The next section discusses teacher training and teacher perceptions.

2.5 Teacher perceptions and teacher training

Buchholz (2007) gives a detailed account of the history of English teaching in Austrian primary schools. One of the major themes that arise is the connection between teacher knowledge and teacher training. She reports how teacher training does not provide sufficient English instruction for future primary school teachers (p. 62). Furthermore, investigation of teachers’ personal motivation to teach English showed that a large number of the teachers (37%) in the questionnaire would like it to be taught by specialist language teachers (p. 178). However, Buchholz (2007) reports that the majority of teachers teach English but feel the demands placed upon them are too high and would prefer English teaching assistance for the lessons (p. 178).

In a review of studies of teacher cognition (knowledge), Borg (2003) suggested that:

teachers’ prior language learning experiences establish cognitions about learning and language learning which form the basis of their initial conceptualisations of L2 during teacher education, and which may continue to be influential throughout their professional lives. (p. 88)
Borg’s findings have implications for the development of teacher education whereby new theories and knowledge of FL/L2 learning that are in contradiction with teachers’ experiences will need to be considered.

A related study undertaken by Margolin (2011) in a teacher education programme developed the concept of a ‘transitional space’, i.e. ‘when an old paradigm is no longer viable but the new one has not yet taken effect’ (p. 9). Although Margolin’s study was concerned with the professional development of teacher educators, it also has important relevance to the findings of Borg (2003) concerning teachers’ preconceptual knowledge and experiences. Margolin’s concept of a transitional space (2011) gives teachers time to pass through the psychological process necessary to readjust and accept a new redirection of their inner mental world. Margolin (2011) goes on to explain that external features of the new paradigm involving policy, practice and structures alone cannot bring about change but that internal psychological reorientation is necessary. Furthermore, Margolin (2011) argues that the gap between teaching theory and teaching practice, together with curricular diversity and fragmentation, requires teacher educators to create more relevant and consistent programmes which combine theory and practice more satisfactorily.

Bransford, Darling-Hammond and LePage (2005) report how the necessity and demands for improvement in education – which in teacher training lie in the hands of teacher educators – has come under closer observation. Teacher educators have needed to reconsider perceptions of their own professional identity and development of the curriculum required in teacher education. However, teacher educators alone are not responsible for the training of teachers: politics and sociocultural factors also play important roles in national education systems and the necessity for research-based and clear-cut quality in the teacher education sector has accordingly been influenced. The narratives of teacher and learner perceptions of school life have also become a recognised
area for investigation and tool for data collection in the attempt to develop teacher education and expertise (Borg, 1998; Bailey and Nunan, 1996; Peirce, 1995).

Verity (2000) has identified the lack of studies concerned with social affect and its relation to teachers’ cognitive development. She explains how Vygotsky believed that ‘emotions deserved theoretical status equal to that of cognition’ (Verity, 2000, p. 181). Furthermore, Verity suggests that teachers who like their work will be good at it, that teacher enjoyment has a positive influence on teacher success. A more detailed investigation of what exactly influences teachers’ enjoyment of L2 teaching would be of interest to pedagogic research.

Research has found that teachers’ own experience and cognition of FL/L2 learning influence the concepts they have regarding the FL/L2 (Borg, 2003). Further research findings with regard to teacher education reveal that relevant programmes of FL/L2 training which combine theory and practice can assist teachers to revise their perceptions of FL/L2 learning (Margolin, 2011). Therefore, as well as the actual teaching taking place in the classroom we need to consider the teacher training provision and in-service teacher training opportunities. One potential source of information on this are teacher training colleges (or as in the case of Austria, teacher training universities) and their documented syllabi.

2.6 The context of Austrian language education policy guidelines in primary schools

English as a FL is taught in nearly all primary schools in European countries except Luxembourg and Belgium (Eurydice, 2008). Reasons for this can be found in the rising global use of English as a lingua franca. The English language has become recognised as essential for both higher professional status and literacy skills (Grin, 2001). Furthermore, Graddol (2006) has suggested that ‘English proficiency has gained a similar status to computing skills’ (cited in Hüttner and Smit, 2014, p. 6).
In their discussion of how European education policies display signs of discrimination against minority languages and the effect they have on FL choice, Hüttner and Smit defend the teaching of English with the claim:

it is an obligatory subject for all students, thus acknowledging its unparalleled utilitarian value and its status as one of the essential educational goals of the 21st century. That English has gained a status similar to literacy and numeracy is underlined in bilingual initiatives catering for mainstream learners.

(2014, p. 3)

The global expansion of English language learning can also be observed in the major use of English in the classrooms adopting a CLIL-type approach to learning (Hüttner and Smit, 2014). In response to the major use of English as the chosen language in CLIL-type classrooms in Austria, Dalton-Puffer (2011) termed the phrase Content-and English-Integrated-Learning (CEIL). However, English is only one of the eight foreign languages from which primary schools can choose (see section 2.7). The type of teaching approach suggested for FL learning is also provided in the guidelines of the MoE document:

*Der Fremdsprachenunterricht in der Grundschule soll die Begegnung mit der zweiten Sprache in einer kindgemäßen und zwanglosen Atmosphäre herbeiführen.*

(MoE, 2005, p.243)

(The foreign language instruction in primary school should bring about an encounter with the second language undertaken in an informal manner, appropriate for children.)
As explained earlier in Chapter One, Section 1.3, school autonomy for English instruction exists. Nonetheless, the MoE (2012) has provided one hour extra tuition at S2 but no extra time at S1. However, provision of a total of one hour’s English instruction should take place in small phases spread over the week up to an annual total of 32 hours during which the FL (English) should also be the main classroom language (German is kept to a minimum). Replacement and loss of general subject time and content should not occur (see Section 1.3, pp. 5-6). In my review of the Austrian literature and education documents with regard to how this is undertaken by teachers at S1, where primary school teachers are not trained language teachers and time has not been allocated, the Austrian Language Education Policy Profile (ALEPP) provided some insight by stating that:

Various forms of CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning) have been successfully implemented in Austria. One of them is mini-CLIL, the ‘integrative’ approach used to teach English in primary school.

(ALEPP, 2008, p. 30)

Additionally, Abuja (2007), an expert in the field of language education and managing director of the ÖSZ, reports that in Austria CLIL is termed Englisch als Arbeitssprache (EAA) (English as a working language), and furthermore, claims that:

CLIL (EAA) is a well established part of mainstream education in Austria. It is widespread and there is sufficient provision of materials as well as pre- and in-service teacher training.

(Abuja, 2007, p. 22)
Both the claim of Abuja (2007) and the ALEPP paper indicate that an integrative approach or ‘mini-CLIL’ is used for primary schools. How far these expert views are borne out at ground level in Austrian primary schools is to some extent explored in this study.

Buchholz, for example, in the conclusion of her study (2007, p. 299) with regard to teacher training and skills and competence observed in the findings, questions the use of the term ‘integrated teaching approach’ in the 2005 MoE document. Pérez-Canado (2012) has also reported the high level of different types of CLIL implementation in European schools due to the diverse circumstances and situations of each country involving language teaching (see also Lasagabaster, 2008). In this respect, it must be taken into consideration that the ALEPP and ÖSZ documents are political and are not necessarily based upon empirical studies of what is actually taking place in Austrian primary schools. In fact the ALEPP paper also reports that:

> Even though it is not strictly speaking true that there is a lack of research into language learning and teaching, there is a lack of large-scale system focused research of the kind necessary if the effectiveness of current practice is to be reliably evaluated.

(2008, p.14)

Buchholz (2007) is one of the exceptions to this lack of large-scale studies and her research provided some very important information which has been briefly discussed above in Sections 2.4 and 2.5.

Dalton-Puffer, Faistauer and Vetter (2011) in their review article identified immediate themes of interest in the international community of researchers investigating language teaching and learning. One of these themes was early language learning in the classroom. Dalton-Puffer et al., (2011) report the development of language assessment tools by Zangl
and Peltzer-Karpf (1997) during research into early language learning which could be used by teachers of young learners. However, Dalton-Puffer et al., (2011) acknowledge the findings from Buchholz's study concerning the absence of pupil assessment in English at primary school (p.14) together with the idealistic aims of education policy in combination with educational planning (p.16). Further and more detailed analysis of the MoE’s proposals (2005) for the teaching methods, strategies and tools to be used by teachers for English learning is made in Section 2.7 below. The context of language education policy guidelines involving educational and teaching aims has been described in Section 1.4. More detailed analysis is offered in the following section, to which we now turn.

2.7 A critical analysis of the education policy guidelines for primary schools

The MoE document (2005) sets out both teaching approach and lesson content guidelines for primary educators to apply in the classroom. This section presents an analysis of the document guidelines for learning content in relation to the suggested teaching approach (see Section 1.3, pp. 5-6).

To begin with, the MoE document (2005) provides a list of eight foreign languages from which schools can choose to teach in the primary classroom:

*Verbindliche Übung „Lebende Fremdsprache“ (1. bis 4. Schulstufe)*

*(Englisch, Französisch, Italienisch, Kroatisch, Slowakisch, Slowenisch, Tschechisch oder Ungarisch).*

*(MoE, 2005, p. 243)*

*(Compulsory-lessons ‘Modern-Foreign Languages’ (1st to 4th School year)*

*(English, French, Italian, Croatian, Slovakian, Slovenian, Czech or Hungarian).*
The resources available, FL skills and competence of the teacher, and transition from primary school to the next school level are all factors which will influence the language or languages chosen by the school. As English is a compulsory subject with a fixed lesson time and curriculum in lower middle and upper school, pupils who have not learnt English in primary school may be at a disadvantage compared to those who have, although studies have shown contradictory findings (Mayo and Lecumberri, 2003). Despite this, further research has shown that FL learning at primary school influences pupils’ motivation, interest, and awareness of other cultures – all of which are aims of Austrian education policy (MoE, 2005; see also Section 1.4, p. 9). However, when Austrian primary pupils move on to lower middle school they learn English from the beginning again, a situation which Pinter (2011, p. 91) claims: ‘is detrimental to motivation levels and indirectly sends out a negative message about the value of language learning in primary schools to both children and parents’. How far this statement is true requires further research; it is not investigated in this study. As reported in Section 1.4, one of the main educational aims is to influence pupils’ interest in and motivation for learning foreign languages. FL learning at this level can be viewed as preparation for later learning at higher school levels.

Edelenbos, Johnstone and Kubanek (2006) have identified four distinct models of primary school programmes for FL/L2 learning:

1. use of themes mainly from a course book
2. use of themes mainly from a course book but with additional themes taken from the curriculum
3. language awareness: development of pupils’ intercultural and meta-linguistic awareness through access to more than one language and culture
4. immersion: increased instruction time in FL.
Edelenbos et al., (2006) suggest that the first two models are more often adopted in primary classrooms where only limited time is available (usually one hour weekly). The teachers are often generalist teachers whose English skills are lower than that of a trained / experienced / specialist language teacher. Similarities can be observed between the suggestion made above (Edelenbos et al., 2006) and the Austrian context for English in primary schools. Furthermore, although Austrian guidelines do not specify any particular course book they do specify which themes are to be taken from the curriculum and therefore are closest to the second model. Pinter (2011) has called the integration of a FL/L2 into subjects of the primary curriculum ‘embedding’. The diverse teaching tools and themes suggested by the MoE (2005) to be used during the lessons consist of CBI and TBI methods which are characteristic of classrooms where the learning aim is the target FL/L2 and not subject curriculum content. However, the guidelines clearly suggest an integrative approach to lessons with the use of lesson themes, as the quote below illustrates (see also Section 1.3, pp. 5–6):

\[\text{Die Themen des Fremdsprachenlernens ergeben sich aus der}\\ \text{klassenbezogenen Jahresplanung und verstehen sich als}\\ \text{integrierter Teilbereich des Unterrichts.}\\ \text{(MoE, 2005, p. 245)}\]

(The themes for foreign language are derived from the annual syllabus and are perceived as an integrative area of the lessons.)

Interpretation of this proposal by individual schools and classroom teachers may vary due to the flexible autonomy of teaching hours (see Section 1.3, p. 5). Teachers could simply give one hour of English instruction per week and not integrate English at all into the lessons, thereby ignoring the suggested approach in the guidelines. Some schools even
reduce the number of regular teaching hours, as seen in the example of Table 1.3 (p. 4).
Buchholz (2007) refers to English learning in primary school as ‘English as a Foreign
Language (EFL)’ and provides quantitative evidence that integration into subject content
rarely takes place during English learning.

Whatever teaching approach is used by the teacher will influence the methods in use. The
suggestion of a CLT approach to teaching can also be observed in the teaching methods
section of the MoE document (2005):

\[
\text{Schülerzentrierte Arbeitsformen}
\]

\[
\text{Zu Beginn des Unterrichts auf der Grundstufe I überwiegen}
\]

\[
\text{lehrerzentrierte Phasen. Es sollte jedoch allmählich zu}
\]

\[
\text{schülerzentrierten Arbeitsformen (Partnerarbeit,}
\]

\[
\text{Gruppenarbeit) übergegangen werden. Die Schüler sollen nicht}
\]

\[
\text{zum Sprechen gedrängt werden, sondern Zeit zur Entwicklung}
\]

\[
\text{der Sprechbereitschaft haben.}
\]

(MoE, 2005, p. 247)

*(Child-centred learning)*

At the beginning of the lessons at level I a teacher-led approach
is mainly used for the lessons. However, child-centred
working/learning patterns (working in pairs, groups) should
gradually be arrived at. The pupils should not be forced to speak,
but have time to develop in their own motivation and readiness
to speak.

Therefore, in the early stages of English instruction in the first year of schooling, more
traditional psycholinguial teacher-led methods can be expected to be used in the lessons; by
the second year of schooling at S1, a gradual increase in the interaction between pupils as
their English skills develop should be evident. CLT appears to be the approach aimed for by the government in the guidelines, and a CLT approach (Richards and Rodgers, 2001) in conjunction with integrated language learning is often found in the classrooms of early FL and L2 learners (Comfort and Tinsley, 2012).

MoE guidelines (2005) present a focused FL learning curriculum containing the following specific learning contents:

1. Practice and training for aural understanding. Pupils should show understanding of what they hear through the correct response to a demand, request or directive.

2. Pupil competence in dealing with simple daily situations. For example, introducing oneself, family, thanking, excusing oneself, invitations.

3. Verbal response to questions and giving information. For example, own belongings, address of a specific person, weather, clothes, time, identification of objects and their description, e.g. colour, size, form.

4. Control of complex daily situations. For example, shopping, asking for directions.

5. Memorising and learning simple texts. For example, short rhymes, poems, short stories.

6. Songs. For example, children’s songs, play and dance songs.

7. Themes: For example:
   - me, my family and friends
   - my school and I
   - nature and I.

(pp. 244–5)
Points 2 to 4 are examples of the use of TBI and CBI methods. By using themes taken from the subjects – for example, in general knowledge the theme might be animal habitat – the teacher can introduce English vocabulary and use it for asking questions that test pupils’ English vocabulary knowledge. Point 1 can be used throughout the lessons for learning and understanding simple phrases, for example ‘shut the door please’, ‘give me your book’, and ‘stand up’. If teachers have the necessary CLIL training they could also use English for pupils learning the content of subject themes that would be classified under points 6 and 7. For example, some of the themes could be used for English integration into maths lessons, while songs could be integrated into music lessons. Points 5 and – to a certain extent - 6 are more reminiscent of a cognitive approach to teaching/learning – i.e. by means of memorising and repeating. Nevertheless, through the use of gestures and diverse tools, e.g. hand puppets for communicative peer and group interactions, a CLT and integrative approach for learning content and English could be used in the classroom.

The subjects chosen for English integration, or themes in subjects will depend upon many factors, including a teacher’s own knowledge of how EFLL can effectively take place, pupil interest, time, teacher interest and school policy.

The document also states that the language used and chosen for FL lessons should be at a level appropriate to the learning ability of pupils:

*Das Fremdsprachenlernen in der Grundschule hat den der Altersstufe entsprechenden Aufbau des Hörverstehens und der mündlichen Kommunikationsfähigkeit zum Schwerpunkt.*

(2005, p. 243)

(The emphasis on foreign language learning in the primary school should be age appropriate for the development of listening and speaking skills for communication.)
Therefore, it is important that English input is comprehensible (Krashen, 1982), teachers are aware of the type of English used in the classroom. Buchholz (2007) argues in her study that teachers’ use of English in the classroom was inhibited through their lack of English skills (p. 149).

The training and practice needed to assess the English listening and speaking skills of pupils are described in the MoE document guidelines (2005) as:

- Gewöhnen an den Klang der Zielsprache
- Schulung sprachspezifischer Laute und Lautkombinationen
- Übungen zur Lautunterscheidung
- Pflege von sprachspezifischer Intonation und Sprachrhythmus.

(2005, p. 246)

- (Becoming accustomed to target language sounds)
- Training in target language specific sounds and sound combinations
- Practice in differentiating between different sounds
- Fostering language-specific intonation and rhythm.)

The MoE proposal (2005) suggests the use of teacher questioning and pupil response methods (initiated response feedback (IRF)) which are representative of cognitive and behaviourist approaches to FL/L2 learning. Yet, this contradicts the informal child-centred approach suggested for FL learning in primary schools (MoE, 2005) reported above (see p. 42). It is also suggested that:

Die Freude der Kinder am Erlernen der Zweisprache soll
geweckt und eine positive Haltung gegenüber anderen Sprachen
aufgebaut werden. Der Fremdsprachenerwerb wird als konkrete
Therefore the teaching strategies in use for the lessons will need to be carefully planned to enable IRF methods to be easily incorporated into a CLT approach. These strategies will need to be harmonised with the teaching aims involving the choice of vocabulary and its age appropriateness, so that the vocabulary can be used in a variety of different ways as proposed in the document:

*Erlernen eines sorgfältig ausgewählten, themenbezogenen Wortschatzes (rezeptiv und produktiv) unter Berücksichtigung der Altersgemäßheit, der leichten Erlernbarkeit und der vielseitigen Anwendbarkeit.*

(2005, p. 246)

(The learning of carefully chosen them-related vocabulary (receptive and productive) with awareness of its age appropriateness, facility for learning and diverse usability.)
The specific learning of grammar is not foreseen for pupils undertaking EFLL. Teachers are also required to use German as little as possible during the English lessons, as the MoE document (2005) states:


(2005, p. 247)

(The use of only the foreign language should be aimed for during the integrated approach of foreign language learning in the primary school. German may be used for explanations and, for example, to give information on rules for games. The rule is: as little as possible, as much as necessary.)

For Buchholz (2007), how much German is ‘necessary’ is open to interpretation. Her findings showed that 30% and less of both the teachers and the pupils in her study perceived that only English was used during the lessons. Over 45% of the teachers and 60% of the pupils perceived that English was never the only language used during the lessons. From her findings it is not clear if there are differences between the perceptions of the pupils with regard to the stage and year of primary schooling.

Teachers’ competence and confidence will influence the quantity of English used in the classroom. If English is to be the main medium of communication, primary school teachers require not only English knowledge, competence and skills but also knowledge of the
diverse teaching methods and approaches contained within the document which sometimes appear to be in contradiction with one another.

The final section of the literature review discusses gaps in current knowledge as identified by surveying the literature, and outlines research which might begin to address those gaps.

### 2.8 Gaps in the literature

Although a variety of pedagogical research questions involving teaching methodologies, strategies, classroom practice, motivation, age factors and perceptions have been investigated in primary school studies, the findings have been mainly concerned with pupils’ FL/L2 learning in contrast to the process of FL/L2 learning and, in the case of CLIL-type studies, pupils’ knowledge of the subject content (Csapo and Nikolov, 2009; Järvinen, 1999).

Borg (2003) has reported how teachers’ preconceptions and their own experience of FL/L2 learning can influence their teaching. In relation to Borg’s review (2003), Margolin (2011) identified the need for a ‘transitional space’ and for a teacher-relevant curriculum.

Although Buchholz’s longitudinal study (2007) provides a vast amount of information concerning English learning in Austrian primary schools, it is a mainly quantitative mixed methods study. It does not investigate individual year classrooms or individual stages of primary school. The development of pupils’ perceptions and teaching approaches over the years of instruction may undergo qualitative change. The findings of each individual class year and stage of schooling may be influenced by these developments. The individual years of English instruction of both teachers and pupils will influence their perceptions of English and the teaching/learning taking place. Therefore, a (predominantly) qualitative case study might provide further information and deeper insight into individual classrooms during the integration of English as a FL into curriculum subjects at ground level in the Austrian primary school sector. The analysis of the findings will provide further information concerning the importance that both teachers’ and pupils’ beliefs have on
successful implementation of educational programmes (Massler, 2012; Dalton-Puffer et al., 2008).

Drawing on analysis of the context, and a review of the relevant research literature – and taking into account my own extensive but evidently anecdotal experience of English in Austrian primary schools – the question is asked: ‘How is English as a foreign language taught in the first two years of Austrian primary schools?’ This also means taking into account diverse perspectives, comprising both the context and the participants in the process. The following contextual factors are of relevance:

- the government, whose language education policies and guidelines set expectations for every primary school
- the teacher training universities (PHs), which provide training to primary teachers, whether this is pedagogical (theoretical and/or practical) or linguistic, but which have timetabling and resource constraints of their own
- the school, which must implement the policy with the trained teachers at its disposal.

The teachers each have their own competences and attitudes, although these will have been shaped to some extent by their training. They bring their individual personality, cognition and teaching style to the classroom, and have their explicit and implicit teaching and learning goals. They plan their teaching of English, decide how best to integrate it with subject content and how to share the available time between language and subject knowledge. They then select the classroom activities which best meet the objectives, adapting them in the real-life environment of the classroom.

The pupils are inevitably influenced by the learning aims and by the attitudes of the teacher, but retain their own perceptions of the experience. Therefore it is relevant to investigate pupils’ perceptions of the integration of English into the curriculum. This can be achieved through the use of innovative methods of data collection and forms one of the
sub-questions of the main research question: ‘How is English as a foreign language taught in the first two years of Austrian primary schools?’

The seven sub-questions to answer the main research question are shown in Table 2.1.

**Table 2.1 The seven sub-questions**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub-questions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Where is English integrated into the curriculum?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. What type of teaching methods and strategies are in use during the lessons?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. What are teachers’ lesson planning procedures for English integration into the chosen subject content?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. What are the teaching aims?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. What are pupils’ perceptions of the lessons?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. What influence does teacher training have on classroom practice?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Do government guidelines influence teacher training?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The three over-arching perspectives (contextual, teacher, pupil), and the different dimensions contained within the sub-questions are summarised in Table 2.2.

**Table 2.2 The dimensions contained within the sub-questions**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Three perspectives</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Contextual factors</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government (MoE)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher training universities <em>Pädagogische Hochschulen</em> (PHs)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Competences</th>
<th>Learning aims</th>
<th>Attitudes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lesson content</td>
<td>Planning/preparation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Timing and integration</td>
<td>Classroom activities</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceptions</td>
<td>Perceptions</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As the table shows, some of the sub-questions can be investigated through direct data collection from one perspective alone. For example, the lesson planning can be investigated by observations of the lessons and teacher interviews. Other sub-questions are more complex and require data collection from diverse perspectives: for example, English integration and the teachers’ competences. Teachers’ skills will be influenced by their own English training, the training provided by the PHs, the influence of school policy and, in the wider context, education policy guidelines. Furthermore, teachers’ perceptions of their own English skills and competence will influence their self-confidence and teaching practice. All of these factors needed to be taken into account during the design of the research methods and strategies required for this study which are described in Chapter Three.

It must also be remembered that in qualitative research which relies on self-report, especially interviews and questionnaires, there may be a discrepancy between what participants say and what they actually do. In each of the cells of Table 2.2, therefore, it is appropriate to explore any dissonances between participants’ subjective perception and the subjective reality as observed by the researcher.

Blending the findings from the sub-questions and their respective dimensions enabled rich and rigorous description in the overall findings of the main research question: ‘How is English as a foreign language taught in the first two years of Austrian primary schools?’

Chapter Three discusses and describes the methodological issues involved in carrying out this investigation.
3 Chapter Three: Methodology

3.1 Introduction

This chapter will describe and provide justification for the methods and types of data collection used in this study to address the main and subsidiary research questions which emerged from the literature review and which are set out in Chapter Two. The first section (3.2) will begin with a description of the initial study, which guided the design of the main study. Sections 3.3, 3.4 and 3.5 will then discuss and describe the paradigms, research approach and design of the main study and the reasons why these were chosen. The final section (3.6) discusses ethical considerations.

3.2 Pilot study

Pilot studies are considered important pre-procedure tools by researchers before the main study begins:

[T]he use of pilot studies as a context information management tool, implemented in the process of consolidating the research design, acted as in situ training for developing and testing the adequacy of data collection and analysis instruments, and as a relevance filter.


Testing and development of the data collection and analysis tools during a pilot study ensures that if necessary the research design can be modified and consolidated before the main study begins (Baptista Nunes et al., 2010). Therefore, prior to carrying out the main study a pilot study on a smaller scale was undertaken. The research site involved two teachers from two separate schools and one classroom observation in the second school. The participants and schools were not the same as those in the main study and
investigation time was shorter. The pilot study research questions were similar to those of the main study but were narrower in scope, i.e. they involved the three perspectives of context, teachers and pupils but only some of the dimensions (see Table 2.2) contained within these and the sub-questions (see Table 2.1):

1. Where English is integrated into the curriculum.
2. The type of teaching methods and strategies in use during the lessons.
3. Lesson planning.
4. Teaching aims.
5. Pupils’ perceptions.
6. Teacher training and influence on classroom practice.

The pilot study research questions investigated dimensions contained within sub-questions 2, 3 and 4, i.e. time factors, subject choices and themes for English, tools in use, and teacher competence and training. Using a picture questionnaire, sub-question 5 investigated pupils’ perceptions of English as a learning tool for diverse subjects. The data collected for the pilot study consisted of the following:

- Two individual teacher interviews: Teacher One (T1) and Teacher Two (T2).
- One classroom observation: (T2).
- Two individual pupil interviews: Pupil One (P1) and Pupil Two (P2).
- Two individual pupil picture questionnaires: as above (P1) and (P2).

Originally the first teacher (T1) had agreed to participate in the pilot study, but shortly before the study began she withdrew her consent, citing professional problems with both
the school and parents. Nonetheless, she did consent to participate in a semi-structured interview and this enabled some of the research questions to be addressed. In the second school, the pilot study was undertaken as planned. A semi-structured interview to investigate some of the dimensions contained within sub-questions 2, 3 and 4 was conducted with teacher (T2) prior to the classroom observation. One short post-study interview was conducted directly after the pilot classroom observation.

Audio-recording and field notes were in use during the interviews and observation. Unfortunately, the audio-recording of the classroom practice was a complete failure due to technical problems with the Dictaphone. Therefore, observation data consisted of field notes and notes written from memory directly after the lesson. The observation and interview findings guided the development of the pupil picture questionnaire, which was issued the following week. This was necessary to ensure that the items pictured had relevance for the children regarding their knowledge and experience of English. Nevertheless, it was necessary to simplify the mode in which the pupils could record their responses. Originally they were asked to choose which sticker from three types of sticker represented their perceptions of English use for learning diverse subjects. Unfortunately the children got confused with the signs on the stickers and could not remember what they represented. Therefore the picture questionnaire underwent revision and was reissued a week later, when it was easily completed by the pupils. Table 3.1 shows the sub-questions and dimensions investigated and the data collection methodology and strategies used for the analysis.
Table 3.1 Pilot study research questions and methodology

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant</th>
<th>Perspective</th>
<th>Sub-question</th>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Data collection tools</th>
<th>Data analysis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Two (T2)</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Tools, subject choice</td>
<td>Semi-structured interview and classroom observation</td>
<td>Qualitative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T2</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Teacher attitude, teacher training</td>
<td>Semi-structured interview and classroom observation</td>
<td>Qualitative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T2</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Enjoyment/Interest</td>
<td>Semi-structured interview and classroom observation</td>
<td>Qualitative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T2</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>2, 3, 4</td>
<td>Teaching style, interactions, tools, enjoyment</td>
<td>Classroom observation</td>
<td>Qualitative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two pupils</td>
<td>Pupils</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>English for learning subjects</td>
<td>Picture questionnaire</td>
<td>Quantitative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher One (T1)</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>2, 3, 4</td>
<td>Same as case study (pilot) Teacher (T2)</td>
<td>Semi-structured interview</td>
<td>Qualitative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MoE document (2005)</td>
<td>Contextual</td>
<td>1, 2, 3, 4</td>
<td>Teaching policy and guidelines</td>
<td>Document</td>
<td>Qualitative</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In light of the findings of the pilot study, which was originally set in the framework of a qualitative research design, a sharpening of the main study focus and reflection and analysis of the methodology and strategies in use to investigate the main research question was undertaken. Problems identified in the pilot study, i.e. pupil picture questionnaire and technical problems, were addressed and resolved. The data collection tools and strategies used in the pilot research study could all be retained. However, the study design was expanded and developed from a qualitative study into a mixed methods study that not only enabled the investigation of a wider population, which might yield generalisations, but also offered the opportunity to increase rich description (Geertz, 1973) in the findings.
Expanding the study involved the addition of a quantitative element (teacher questionnaire) entailing some statistical analysis. It was also necessary to pilot the questionnaire (Dörnyei and Taguchi, 2010) prior to the main study.

Contextual features were also developed further to include data collection from the teacher training universities (PHs) to identify links between teacher training at one level and teacher practice in the actual classroom (Table 2.1: sub-questions 6 and 7; Table 2.2). The findings could then be analysed in relation to MoE (2005, 2012) policy guidelines. The interviews with academics from the PH provided a deeper insight into how the training on offer provides future teachers with the necessary FL skills and competence in their classrooms. Associations between responses from the teacher questionnaire and teacher training could then be analysed. The pupil picture questionnaire indicated that connections could be made between teacher training and teaching practice involving pupils’ perceptions of English with regard to the English content and subjects. However, a deeper insight into pupils’ perceptions of teaching practice and learning during English was strived for in order to provide comparative data between teachers’ and pupils’ perceptions of the English teaching/learning taking place in the classroom. Associations between the educational aims and the teaching guidelines of the MoE (2005) in combination with the actual teaching taking place in the classroom could then be made. Therefore, the development of an original research tool – pupils’ drawings – to investigate sub-question 5 (pupils’ perceptions) in more detail was also made after the initial study and piloted.

Making modifications to the main study post initial study is a process which reflects the characteristics of qualitative research design as perceived in the five-stage interactive model identified by Maxwell and Loomis (2003). Maxwell (1996, pp. 1–8) refers to this as an:
‘interactive’ approach, whereby a qualitative study’s purpose, research questions, conceptual context, methods, and concern for validity all continually interact.

(cited in Yin, 2011, p. 77; original italics)

Yin (2011) describes how the importance of research design prior to data collection in qualitative studies has not always been clearly recognised by researchers, stating that ‘the design is a recursive one’ (p. 77). Furthermore, he explains how adaptations can and are continually made in a qualitative study.

The necessity to reflect upon researcher insider–outsider status (Hellawell, 2006) with the participants is also important, and as an English-born primary teacher in Austria with personal experience of the classroom context, I am aware that researcher ‘blindness’ to familiar events may influence critical observation of the phenomena.

Simmel (1950, p. 402) argues that an outsider:

can give the stranger’s perceptions and judgements a particular kind of objectivity not usually granted to the insider.

(cited in Hellawell, 2006, p. 486)

However, Schütz (1964) argues that insider knowledge may remain hidden to outside observers. In view of this my status in the case study schools as an unknown outside observer/researcher with insider knowledge and familiarity of the primary school context complemented one another during the classroom observations.

The following section discusses the research design of the main study.
3.3 Research paradigms, approaches and designs

Identifying the paradigms, approaches and designs this research is based on helps to clarify my own position in research and to justify my choice of methods for data collection and analysis. In this section I describe my choice of a research perspective and what alternatives were considered.

There are diverse paradigms in which research can be set. Birley and Moreland (1999) define a paradigm as ‘a theoretical model within which the research is being conducted, and which organizes the researcher’s view of reality (though they may not be aware of it)’ (p. 30). Paradigms are reflections of the researcher’s perspectives, perceptions and area of interest and are identified as a vital component of research design (Yin, 2009). Among the opposing paradigms, for example, the positivist paradigm is related to the scientific, objective, quantitative research approach that assumes the phenomenon exists ‘out there’ as an entity. The results of the data collection and analysis from a sample of a specific area will be the same or very similar to a larger group from the same specific area. Therefore, generalisations concerning the existence of specific phenomena in the investigated area can be made (Birley and Moreland, 1999).

A critical view of positivism compares it to religious beliefs: the assumption of certainty (of scientific facts or of religious tenets) can only be questioned to a certain extent. Beyond that, doubt is not permissible and the deepest underlying assumptions are never questioned (Burgess, Sieminski and Arthur, 2006).

In contrast to positivism the post-positivist paradigm also involves scientific objectivity but accepts the fallibility of the social world. Qualitative and quantitative data collection and analysis methods are to be found within the post-positivist paradigm. The existence of ‘out there’ phenomena, albeit difficult to access, is held as feasible within post-positivism. In contrast, postmodernism is related to qualitative research. It is suited to investigate specific
situations of the local and takes into account the multiple perspectives of the phenomena; hence it is flexible in character (Burgess et al., 2006).

Paradigms need to be examined once the research goals have been established because of their influence upon the research questions being asked which in turn guide the choice of methodology (Yin, 2009).

I have adopted a combination of the post-positivist with the postmodern paradigm for this study because the research questions (Section 2.8; Table 2.1) entail multiple perspectives of the investigated phenomena (Table 2.2), and a combination of paradigms has also been recognised ‘as a strategy that adds rigour, breadth and depth to the overall research design’ (Burgess et al., 2006, p. 57). Consequently, the study is set within the framework of a mixed methods approach entailing a qualitative ethnographic case study and quantitative data collection and analysis to investigate the three main perspectives (contextual, teacher, pupils) and the dimensions (Table 2.2) contained within the sub-questions (Table 2.1) to answer the main research question: ‘How is English as a foreign language taught in the first two years of Austrian primary schools?’

The study by Buchholz (2007) investigating English in Austrian primary schools provides important information regarding the teaching/learning taking place; however, it is not as detailed and in-depth as a qualitative case study. The study did not investigate individual primary school years; therefore there was no way of determining whether there were any relationships between the findings of the individual classrooms and stages of schooling. The mainly quantitative findings of her study are generalised findings from all four years of primary school, positioning the researched (individual classroom stages and years) as anonymous objects (Lichtman, 2013). In contrast, a qualitative case study allows for deeper investigation into the perspectives and perceptions of the individual participants (teachers and pupils) with regard to the lessons in the individual classroom.
Therefore case studies were chosen as they enable intense investigation of a single entity, for example a person, a classroom. Although case study qualitative analysis is not necessarily transferable, generalisation is sometimes possible.

Yin describes three types of case study design, as depicted in Table 3.2.

**Table 3.2 Three types of case study design**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Exploratory</th>
<th>Descriptive</th>
<th>Explanatory</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Exploratory</td>
<td>‘aimed at defining the questions and hypotheses of a subsequent (not necessarily case) study or at determining the feasibility of the desired research procedures’</td>
<td>‘presents complete description of a phenomenon within its context’</td>
<td>‘presents data bearing on cause–effect relationships – explaining which causes produced which effects’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Source: Yin, 1993, p. 5)

The literature (Massler, 2012; Margolin, 2011; Dalton-Puffer et al., 2008; Borg, 2003) has also shown that teacher and pupil perceptions can influence the teaching/learning taking place in the classroom.

Investigation of the lessons from the pupils’ perspectives required a data collection tool that would enable the seven- to eight-year-olds to easily communicate their understanding, perceptions and knowledge where their verbal and written skills were not yet sufficiently developed. Drawings were an appropriate choice, as research studies have shown that they can provide an alternative means of representation and communication (Pantaleo, 2005; Rabey, 2003).

Inspired and based upon Kress and van Leeuwen’s theory of grammar (1996, 2006) a method of analysis was developed to interpret the drawings of pupils’ perceptions of their FL instruction. Taking into consideration the claim made by Rose (2007) that the interpretation of images remains simply interpretation, justification for my interpretation of the drawings required a practical method that was systematic, reliable and valid.
Kress and van Leeuwen’s grammar theory (1996) is based upon Halliday’s functional theory of language (1978, 1985) – the importance of grammar in verbal language. Through the interaction and combinations of words chosen in a clause, different dimensions of meaning in the representation of things and events occurring are achieved. Halliday (1978) identified three communicative meta-functions always present within language:

- ideational: represents the world around and within us – contains two subcategories
  - experiential function; makes meaning and builds upon experience of language
  - logical function; choice of logical-semantic relationships between clauses
- interpersonal: mode of language chosen for social interactions with others
- textual: contains all grammatical systems to guide the flow of discourse between the ideational and interpersonal functions.

Visual analysts hypothesise that these meta-functions exist within all semiotic modes of representation.

Kress and van Leeuwen (1996) consider images and language to have their own specific forms which fulfil the purpose of communicating meaning independently of one another. Nonetheless, they do contend that not all communication can be made by language or images alone (p. 17). In Kress and van Leeuwen’s visual grammar theory (1996), ideational meaning contains the following three distinct individual structures:

- analytical
- narrative
- visual.
Kress and van Leeuwen (1996) describe how there are two types of participants in any semiotic act. The first is the interactive communicative participant who, for example, speaks, draws, views the representation. The second is the represented participant – the subject/object of communication (p. 48). They go on to suggest that the participants in pictures function as ‘Carrier’ and ‘Attribute’ (Kress and van Leeuwen, 1996). For example, the picture of a ballerina in ballet shoes and tutu (short ballet skirt) would be analysed in language as: the ballerina (carrier) has ballet shoes and a tutu (attributes). Therefore analytical structures involve the distinctive features that the participants ‘are, have and possess’ on the paper and the way in which these fit together to reveal the situation. There are qualitative, complex levels and dimensions of analytical structures. For example, there may be many carriers in the picture and each have their own attributes which individually communicate concepts to make up the whole representation. A further structure embedded within ideational meaning is the process of communication between the author/artist of the representation and the viewer. It is achieved through transitivity: who does what to whom and in what circumstances (Halliday, 1985). In the second edition of visual grammar theory (2006), Kress and van Leeuwen describe how transactional structures can be embedded within the analytical structure through vectors (p.52). Lines, circles, connections between participants on the paper/layout are all examples of vectors which express movement and directions and assist all participants in their reading for meaning in the pictures. Kress and van Leeuwen (2006) claim that: ‘When participants are connected by a vector, they are represented as doing something to or for each other’ (p. 59; original italics). Therefore, vectors assist in telling the story. These are termed narrative structures by Kress and van Leeuwen (2006).

Images may also contain multimodal representations. Kress and van Leeuwen (2006) propose that: ‘Children actively experiment with the representational resources of word and image, and with the ways in which they can be combined’ (p. 113). This was an
important component of some of the children’s drawings in my study and is discussed in more detail in Chapters Four and Five.

The interpersonal function in visual grammar theory assists in establishing not only the relationships between the represented participants in the picture but also those between the viewed and viewer. For example, distance in pictures can portray social relation, while power relation can be represented by the participants’ gaze (e.g. direct/demanding, looking down or up/status). The absence of participants can also represent different situations. Many different types of interactions between the participants can be in force and reasons for them can be diverse, as described in detail in Chapter Five.

Textual meta-functions in images are perceived by Kress and van Leeuwen (2006) as the distinct relationships between the components contained in the picture, for example size, colour, multimodal features, positioning. In the study, an analysis of the positioning of objects in pupils’ drawings proved to be a particularly important component with regard to pupils’ perceptions of their lessons. Kress and van Leeuwen (2006) describe how the visual structure – composition – of images, provides a further source of information for understanding and meaning. For example, both Goodman (1969) and Kress and van Leeuwen (2006) propose that objects placed on the left side of the page are usually the ‘Given’ (before) and those on the right, the ‘New’ (after). Basically they establish the concept of Given and New in the tradition of Western reading and writing – left to right. Kress and van Leeuwen (2006) describe the Given as the component of which the viewer has knowledge, i.e. the known. In comparison the New is special, something unknown to the viewer. This can be directly related to verbal clauses, which usually state the Given in the first part and the New in the second part, giving emphasis to the New by its being in opposition. Nonetheless, Kress and van Leeuwen (2006) do acknowledge that the relevance of Given (left) and New (right) structures are debatable for both the viewers/artists of images and the readers/authors of books/layouts (p. 181). The use of the
centre and margins is also identified by Kress and van Leeuwen (2006) to be particularly apparent in children’s drawings (p. 194). In summary, the composition of images is diverse and the complex combinations of meta-functions provide methods of analysis (conscious/unconscious) which give meaning to images. The adoption of visual grammar to investigate pupils’ perceptions of English provides a reliable evaluation tool for the analysis of pupils’ drawings.

The type of evaluation tools in use will depend upon the type of research made. For example evaluation issues in qualitative research involve methodological aspects of the study – validity and reliability. Lichtman (2013) discusses the role of the development of criteria to evaluate qualitative research. She proposes that due to the essence of qualitative research it is vital that the written text and findings are convincing. The position of the researcher’s role in qualitative research involves the concept of objectivity. Lichtman (2013) discusses how qualitative research consists of the real-life experiences, interactions, contexts and situations of the researched. She proposes that only through understanding of the self can researchers understand the researched (p. 295). Furthermore, she proposes that unlike quantitative research, qualitative research does not require acknowledgement of what is written from outside expertise, but that qualitative researchers are experts themselves of the researched. Hence with qualitative research, data collection and methods of analysis must convince the reader of the validity and reliability of the findings. Questionnaires and statistics, common forms of quantitative research tools, provide more standardised and hence more visible forms of validity and reliability checks. Nonetheless quantitative data alone does not provide reasons for the responses given.

To provide validity in qualitative research (often termed credibility), some participant confirmation of the research findings to a certain extent is required. Confirmation that the researcher has understood the participant provides more credibility to the researcher’s interpretation to give meaning to the larger context (Lichtman, 2013). In view of this,
confirmation of participants’ interview responses and clarification and a correct understanding by me, the researcher, of the components contained in the pupils’ drawings was always sought.

Although most of the data collection instruments were of a qualitative nature, this study also drew on quantitative data in a systematic way. Hence, set in the framework of a mixed methods approach, qualitative and quantitative approaches are encompassed in one study (Bryman, 2006; Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2003). The roots of mixed methods are perceived to have arisen from the multitrait–multimethod approach discussed by Campbell and Fiske (1959). Earlier studies in anthropology and sociology also often used quantitative data methods combined with fieldwork (Denscombe, 2008) and employed them in study evaluation (Greene and Caracelli, 1997). An acknowledged framework of what constitutes a mixed methods approach was duly produced and developed later by researchers employing a combination of methods. The framework involves:

- a mixed methods research paradigm (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004)
- research design for mixed methods (O’Cathain, 2009; Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2006). Qualitative and quantitative methods of data collection and analysis are in use to provide in-depth investigation of the phenomena
- procedures for mixed methods analyses (Caracelli and Greene, 1993). The blending of quantitative and qualitative findings.

All of these distinct aspects are embedded within this study.

Sequential and some simultaneous data collection (Morse, 1991, 2003) which is a characteristic of mixed methods study involving both quantitative and qualitative methods have strengths and weaknesses. Although quantitative methodology provides comparative statistical findings, critics of quantitative research, particularly in the social sciences (Hammersley and Atkinson, 1995; Mehan, 1973; Denzin, 1970; Blumer, 1969; Matza,
1969) argue that they focus too much on the numerical. Hence a weakness of quantitative research is the isolation of the phenomena from the context of the social situation. Consequently, it is argued, quantitative studies do not always contribute to greater or better understanding of the phenomena under inquiry.

The major strength of qualitative research involves asking the question ‘why?’ and therefore provides better understanding of the phenomena, which might have otherwise remained hidden if only quantitative methods had been adopted. Nonetheless, qualitative research is also not exempt from critique; a weakness of qualitative research is usually reflected in a perceived lack of rigorous scientific methodology in data collection and analysis. Sadler (1981) describes how generalisations and verbal quantifications involving no rigorous numerical testing of the phenomena are often made in qualitative studies. Similar arguments are also described by Denzin and Lincoln (2005, pp. 10–12) who report how, with the rise of scientific research, tensions between qualitative and quantitative methodologies, paradigm traditions and political and procedural resistances to qualitative studies have all influenced the acceptance and role of qualitative methods in the academic and scientific research fields (pp. 1–9).

Often, quantitative researchers perceive the findings of qualitative research as interpretations of data which are subjective, unscientific, fictional and not free of researcher bias and hence not to be considered as scientific truths (Denzin and Lincoln, 2005, p. 12). Despite all of this and the basic criticism that qualitative research does not provide ‘hard evidence’ (Denzin and Lincoln, 2005, p. 9), which usually means representative statistical evidence, it has been argued that qualitative research is indeed a ‘very powerful method for assessing causality’ (Miles and Huberman, 1994, p. 147). Scott (2007) also investigated the dilemma of the quantitative–qualitative debate from the perspective of a critical realist approach and suggests that ‘complete explanations of social events and processes cannot be reduced to the intentions of agents without reference to
structural properties or to structural forms without reference to the intentions and beliefs of agents’ (p. 15). He describes how this can only be achieved when researchers reconcile both the social and the structural factors to explain how they reflect and influence one another. Scott (2007) concludes the paper with the suggestion that ‘accounts which focus on either structures or agents to the exclusion of the other cannot account for the totality of the social experience, and it is the interaction between the two which needs to be the focus of the research’ (p. 15).

Based on these reflections predominantly qualitative methods of data collection and analysis were chosen in combination with quantitative methods for this study. By combining qualitative and quantitative methods, a fuller picture of the phenomena was achieved, and this was particularly necessary in this study where human subjects, complex processes and different perspectives were the focus of investigation. Therefore methodological aspects of systematic rigorous data collection, analysis techniques and strategies, access to research sites, participant perceptions, cases under study, confirmability, transferability, validity, researcher reflection, ethical issues, and any difficulties related to all of these were important factors to consider. A continual focus on the main research question concerning the necessity for the type of data collection and its source to fit firmly into the framework of the investigation to assure validity and reliability in the findings was vital.

The quantitative approach of this study involved inferential, systematic and more formal methods of data collection through the use of questionnaires. Three types of information – facts, attitudes and behaviours (Dörnyei and Taguchi, 2010) – can be supplied by questionnaires. These are all dimensions within the three perspectives investigated in the sub-questions of this study. Furthermore, questionnaires can identify factors that are typical of a whole group by asking a large number of respondents the same questions. Hence, questionnaires issued to a larger group of teachers increased the data collection of
teacher responses to specific questions, which provided further triangulation for the analysis of the teacher perspective and rich description in the findings. Although reasons ‘why’ could not be investigated from the quantitative data collected, the responses provided a backdrop to the qualitative data collection. For similar reasons picture questionnaires were also used for the pupil perspective, involving their perceptions of their lessons. Therefore the picture questionnaires provided a background for comparison, triangulation and further description in the findings.

The qualitative approach employed ethnographic case study data collection which was then analysed. Ethnography is the study of phenomena in their natural settings and involves fieldwork in the form of observation techniques, for example field notes, interviews and recordings of the phenomena under investigation. A further characteristic of ethnographic research is the open approach to the research setting. Preconceived hypotheses or definitions are not made in the early stages as these may distract attention away from the processes taking place in the social situation of the phenomena under investigation (Silverman, 2006). Ethnographic classroom observation of the lessons enables data collection of the teaching and learning practices occurring during the lessons.

Johnson and Turner (2003) describe how the combination of research methods helps to counterbalance any negative aspects contained in one approach with the positive influence of the other. Nonetheless, discussions concerning the combination of quantitative and qualitative methods have also received positive and negative criticism. For example, Spindler and Spindler (1992, p. 69) perceive quantified methods merely as research tools that assist interpretation, test hypotheses samples or emphasise data. But they caution against their overuse as a security tool in research data collection and analysis. Furthermore, Denzin and Lincoln (2005) also suggest that quantitative measurements are rarely used by qualitative researchers in the reporting of their findings (p. 119).
Therefore the methods and tools required to ensure reliable and valid data collection and analysis were carefully chosen in this study to balance and harmonise with one another, a feature which is also identified by DeCuir-Gunby (2008) as a vital component of mixed methods research design:

In combining methods, it is imperative that methods be chosen that will enhance each other, balancing strengths and weaknesses.

(p. 125)

As discussed earlier, mixed methods research enables the phenomena to be considered from different perspectives, which is a requirement of this study. The complementary interactional relationship between the qualitative and quantitative analysis and interpretations which together build the findings has been identified by Yin (2011) as the most important feature of a mixed methods approach. Caution is required by the researcher with regard to the separation of qualitative and quantitative interpretations in the findings or to the use of these as a comparison, because it would then not be representative of a mixed methods study. Separation of the findings would result in the division of one mixed study into two single studies and ‘the integration of the two studies would then resemble a research synthesis’ (Yin, 2011, p. 291).

To conclude: this section has described and explained the reasons for the choice of paradigms, methodological approach and design of this study. Both paradigms chosen, the post-positivist and the postmodern, are critical of simple realism and emphasise the need for deeper understanding of complex phenomena by allowing for subjective contributions from participants which are counterbalanced by the researcher’s own reflections. The ‘mixed methods approach’ – the qualitative ethnographic case study approach interacting with and complementing the quantitative approach – provided rich data collection and description (Geertz, 1973) in the findings. The research methodology for this study reflects
the seven-point checklist with regard to validity in qualitative research provided by Maxwell and is presented in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3 Seven-point checklist to ensure validity in qualitative research

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1. Intensive field observation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2. Rich data collection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Respondent validation of researcher interpretation of data collection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Search for rival evidence and negative cases</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Triangulation: evidence from diverse sources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Quasi-statistics: replacement of adjectives with numbers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Comparison of findings from diverse sources of the focused area</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Source: Maxwell, 2009, pp. 244–5)

Section 3.4 describes the main study instruments and participants.

3.4 Data collection

The complex methodological design of this study included data collection at a multitude of points and from different perspectives. A number of different data collection instruments were used and adapted to the needs and cognitive abilities of participants. Preparation and analysis of the data took account of the variety of formats and modes employed. The research participants of the main study comprised 32 primary school teachers, of whom two were the case study teachers from two separate primary schools. Eight teachers from other schools were also interviewed and 22 were additional teachers who were sent the questionnaire. A total of 24 pupils from the two case study classrooms were involved, 14 pupils in case study classroom one, and 10 in case study classroom two. In addition, two case study school directors from the two separate case study schools, two English teachers/academics from one PH and one PH deputy director provided insights. The
following tables provide an overview of all the participants and data collected and analysed for the main study.

Table 3.4 gives a breakdown of the research participants.

**Table 3.4 Research participants**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participants</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Case study teachers (CST)</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pupils</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-case study teachers (interviewed)</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Additional teachers (questionnaire)</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Case study school directors</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PH teachers/ academics</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PH deputy director</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall total</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.5 gives a breakdown of the case study research participants from the two separate schools.

**Table 3.5 Two separate case study schools and the research participants involved**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher / Director</th>
<th>Teacher</th>
<th>Pupils</th>
<th>Director</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Case study school</td>
<td>Clara (pseudonym)</td>
<td>14 case study pupils</td>
<td>Doris (pseudonym)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>one</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Case study school</td>
<td>Helen (pseudonym)</td>
<td>10 case study pupils</td>
<td>Flora (pseudonym)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>two</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The overall data set is shown in Tables 3.6 and 3.7.

**Table 3.6 Overall data set of the teacher/academic participants, and classroom observations**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>17x individual semi-structured interviews</th>
<th>32x questionnaires</th>
<th>8x 30-minute classroom observations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
Table 3.7 Overall data set of the case study classroom pupils

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>4x whole classroom discussions</th>
<th>48x drawings</th>
<th>48x individual clarifications</th>
<th>24x picture questionnaires</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Table 3.8 shows the participants involved and the complex research strategies employed for the qualitative data collection and analysis.
Table 3.8 Qualitative data collection

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>Semi-structured interviews</th>
<th>Classroom observations</th>
<th>Observation chart</th>
<th>Classroom discussions</th>
<th>Drawings</th>
<th>Clarifications</th>
<th>Documents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First case study teacher, Clara (CST1)</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second case study teacher, Helen (CST2)</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Case study pupils of CST1 and CST2</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eight additional teachers</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two case study school directors of CST1 and CST2</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two PH teachers/academics</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One PH deputy director</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher training programmes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recorded as:</td>
<td>audio-recorded and field notes</td>
<td>audio-recorded and field notes</td>
<td>field notes</td>
<td>audio-recorded and field notes</td>
<td>field notes</td>
<td>audio-recorded and field notes</td>
<td>copies of documents</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Quantitative data was collected through questionnaires (see Appendix D: teacher questionnaire and Appendix C: pupil picture questionnaire) and involved teacher and pupil participants as shown in Table 3.9

**Table 3.9** Quantitative data collection

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>Data collection tools</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Clara (CST1)</td>
<td>✓ Questionnaires</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helen (CST2)</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eight interview teachers</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22 additional teachers</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24 pupils</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Because of the nature of the study, purposeful sampling (specific choice of participants) was used for all data collection procedures. A few of the participants were known to me and others were approached by colleagues on my behalf or through personal contact.

The choice of the case study schools involved consideration of firstly the practical – location convenience – and secondly enhancement of the study findings – one rural school and one town school. Initial contact with the schools was made through appointments with the school directors, where I explained the investigation I intended to conduct and discussed my motivation for the research, which was my own professional role as a teacher with a Masters degree in Education, my being a native English speaker and my position as an external English teaching consultant at the local PH. With both directors showing interest in the study, it was decided that they would initially approach the second year teachers in their schools to inquire if they would be interested in taking part. In both schools the teachers were willing to participate and contact was then established between myself (researcher) and the teachers to explain the study further and answer any questions. The rural school consisted of one second year class in contrast to the town school, which had two second year classes. The class chosen to participate from the town school
consisted of a similar number of pupils to that of the rural school. Reasons for this involved the attempt to diminish variables which might have influence upon the teaching taking place.

A range of data analysis strategies needed to be employed to fit the data collected. The analysis of qualitative data usually takes an interpretive, descriptive and verbal form in contrast to the statistical form of quantitative data analysis.

The qualitative data collection consisted of individual semi-structured interviews, ethnographic observation from the two case study teachers in their classrooms, pupil drawings, and documentary evidence of teacher training programmes. The ethnographic method of systematic observation with the use of field notes, observation charts and audio-recording was undertaken in the two case study classrooms. All semi-structured interviews were audio-recorded and some field notes were taken. Quantitative data collection consisted of a small teacher questionnaire and pupil picture questionnaire. Both the tools and the methods chosen for the data collection were considered the best to use in order to answer the main and sub-research questions for this study.

An exploratory case study design was used in this study, enabling flexibility in the development of the research tools that were used during the data collection stage as the study proceeded. The choice of data collection tools was based on these considerations of approach and methodology, all of which had been tested in the pilot study (see Section 3.1). Qualitative data collection tools usually involve interviews and intensive observation to investigate the ‘why’ and ‘how’ of the phenomena. Consequently, I used interviews to gain insights into the perspectives of the teachers regarding their own perceptions and beliefs of their competence and classroom practice for English integration. I also observed the teachers in action during the lessons. A comparative analysis between the teachers’ perceptions, beliefs and actions observed in the classrooms could then be undertaken. Interviews at higher institutional levels would enable insights into the contextual
perspectives involving factors of MoE policy (2005), PH policy and school policy and the influence these have upon the teaching taking place in the classrooms. Pupils’ perspectives involving perceptions of the lessons also required a data collection tool that was appropriate for their age. Therefore, pupils’ drawings were decided upon as an original qualitative data collection tool where access to pupils’ perceptions of the lessons could be sought and provide confirmation of the teaching methods and strategies taking place in the classroom. The drawings could also undergo descriptive statistical analysis. Two drawings from each pupil in the two case study classrooms were collected during two separate lessons. Prior to each drawing being produced, a short five-minute classroom discussion between myself (researcher) and the pupils concerning the drawing contents was undertaken and audio-recorded. During the discussion pupils were able to exchange ideas and ask questions. After completing the drawing, each pupil was asked to clarify its contents to ensure that there was no misunderstanding before transcription and analysis was made (Neuman, 2000). Clarifications were audio-recorded and numbers were given immediately to each recording and written on the back of the corresponding drawing for identification later. Although some of the pupils did write their names on their drawings, for ethical reasons these could not be displayed publicly.

The use of Computer-Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis Software (CAQDAS) can assist the organisation and coding of qualitative data. There is an array of CAQDAS available, but it is the methodology of the research that will guide choice (Lewins and Silver, 2004, p. 3). CAQDAS NVivo was chosen for this study because its flexibility enables large amounts of diverse types of qualitative data to be stored and organised. NVivo is the most widespread academic software package for this purpose. It can be used to determine whether data is interrelated and quantitative steps can be combined with qualitative data, all of which can assist in critical reflection of the analysis.
Due to the time and resource constraints of an EdD (Doctorate in Education), only a limited number of case studies could be undertaken. Consequently, the breadth of the research is replaced by depth, hence generalisations are restricted. Despite this, the findings are representative of the case studies and enabled interconnections to be made between all the findings for rich description to address the research question. Furthermore, and importantly, it is not study size that is characteristic of qualitative research but its in-depth investigative nature (Krueger, 1998).

Quantitative research is characterised through its focus on numbers rather than text and frequently does not answer the how and why questions. Nonetheless, the small teacher questionnaire broadened the data collection and provided a comparative and interactive element in the interpretation of the findings.

The sequential data collection and pre-analysis guided the development of further data collection. Qual-quan (emphasis on qualitative data to inform the quantitative data development) data collection was used for the development of the teacher questionnaire, the items stemming from the qualitative interviews. Qual-qual (qualitative data informs qualitative data development) data collection was used to develop pupils’ drawings and the picture questionnaire, classroom observation and further interviews.

Data from the diverse sources provided a fuller account for a valid description in the findings of how integrating English in a structured way is being undertaken by teachers in their classrooms and the reasons why. Early findings influenced the ongoing data collection which is a natural feature of qualitative research. Morse (1991) identified this as a major reason why researchers choose these strategies. In contrast the positivist approach typically starts from fixed questions for data collection and fixed categories for the analysis. The qualitative approach enables analyses of differing combinations of categories between the data sets (Atkinson and Hammersley, 1994, p. 248).
The order of data collection played an important role in this study.

Section 3.5 with its related subsections explains the stages of data collection in detail.

### 3.5 Stages of data collection

The data collection was undertaken in five main stages. Each stage through pre-analysis of the data collected informed further development of the data collection tools to gain deeper insight into the three main perspectives. As outlined in Section 3.4, it is mainly sequential with some simultaneous data collection. Table 3.10 gives an overview of the stages of data collection.

**Table 3.10 Stages of data collection**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage One</th>
<th>Stage Two</th>
<th>Stage Three</th>
<th>Stage Four</th>
<th>Stage Five</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-study semi-structured interviews with the two CSTs: Helen and Clara</td>
<td>Systematic observation of the two case study classrooms and classroom discussions (Helen and Clara)</td>
<td>Teacher questionnaire and pupil picture questionnaire</td>
<td>Post-study semi-structured interviews with Helen and Clara</td>
<td>Semi-structured interviews with two PH English teachers/academics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Semi-structured interviews with eight additional teachers</td>
<td>Pupil drawings from the two case study classrooms with pupil clarifications</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Semi-structured interviews with case study school directors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher training documents</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Semi-structured interview with PH deputy director</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The research tools linked to the research sub-questions and dimensions with regard to the data collection framework are shown in Table 3.11.
Table 3.11 Framework and research tools linked to research questions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research sub-questions</th>
<th>Framework</th>
<th>Tools</th>
<th>Participants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>1. Where is English integrated into the curriculum?</strong></td>
<td><strong>Qualitative</strong></td>
<td>i. Observation chart, audio-recording, field notes</td>
<td>i. Case study teachers and case study pupils</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>i. Ethnographic case study classroom observations</td>
<td>ii. Audio-recording, field notes</td>
<td>ii. Teachers, school directors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ii. Semi-structured interviews</td>
<td>iii. Drawings</td>
<td>iii. Pupils</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>iv. Document analysis</td>
<td>v. Classroom discussion</td>
<td>v. Pupils</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>v. Classroom discussion</td>
<td>vi. Questionnaires</td>
<td>vi. Teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>2. What type of teaching methods and strategies are in use during the lessons?</strong></td>
<td><strong>Qualitative</strong></td>
<td>i. Observation chart, audio-recording, field notes</td>
<td>i. Case study teachers and case study pupils</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>i. Ethnographic case study classroom observations</td>
<td>ii. Audio-recording, field notes</td>
<td>ii. Teachers, school directors, academics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ii. Semi-structured interviews</td>
<td>iii. Drawings</td>
<td>iii. Pupils</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>iv. Document analysis</td>
<td>v. Classroom discussion</td>
<td>v. Pupils</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>v. Classroom discussion</td>
<td>vi. Questionnaires</td>
<td>vi. Teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>vi. Visual grammar of children’s drawings and clarifications</td>
<td>v. Picture questionnaire</td>
<td>v. Pupils</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. What are teachers’ lesson planning procedures for English language learning integration into the chosen subject content?</td>
<td><strong>Qualitative</strong></td>
<td>i. Semi-structured interviews</td>
<td>i. Audio-recording, field notes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Quantitative</strong></td>
<td>ii. Questionnaires</td>
<td>ii. Teachers</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>4. What are the teaching aims?</th>
<th><strong>Qualitative</strong></th>
<th>i. Semi-structured interviews</th>
<th>i. Audio-recording, field notes</th>
<th>i. Teachers, academics, school directors, PH director</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ii. Visual grammar of children’s drawings and clarifications</td>
<td>ii. Drawings</td>
<td>ii. Pupils</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Quantitative</strong></td>
<td>v. Questionnaires</td>
<td>v. Teachers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visual grammar of children’s drawings and clarifications</td>
<td>vi. Drawings</td>
<td>vi. Pupils</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>5. What are pupils’ perceptions of the lessons?</th>
<th><strong>Qualitative</strong></th>
<th>i. Semi-structured interviews</th>
<th>i. Audio-recording, field notes</th>
<th>i. Teachers, pupils</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ii. Visual grammar of children’s drawings, clarifications and classroom discussion</td>
<td>ii. Drawings</td>
<td>ii. Pupils</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Quantitative</strong></td>
<td>iii. Visual grammar of children’s drawings, clarifications and classroom discussion</td>
<td>iii. Drawings</td>
<td>iii. Pupils</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iv. Classroom discussion</td>
<td>iv. Picture questionnaire</td>
<td>iv. Pupils</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>6. What influence does teacher training have on classroom practice?</th>
<th><strong>Qualitative</strong></th>
<th>i. Semi-structured interviews</th>
<th>i. Audio-recording, field notes</th>
<th>i. Teaching university teachers/academics, teaching university deputy director</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
The following subsections describe the stages of data collection in detail.

3.5.1 Stage One: pre-study interviews and documents

Prior to observation of the two case study teachers’ practices embedded in their case study classrooms, pre-study semi-structured interviews were undertaken with both case study teachers and the eight additional teachers. The interviews were used to investigate the perspective of the teacher and all sub-questions (Table 2.1) and the different dimensions (Table 2.2) involved.

Documents concerning teacher training programmes and interview data were collected simultaneously and pre-analysed in order to help develop the semi-structured interviews with the two English teachers/academics and the deputy director of the PH.

3.5.1.1 Teacher interviews

All interviews in this study followed the same methodological procedures. The audio-recorded interviews were undertaken in German and later translated and transcribed into English. Validation of the translation was undertaken by a second researcher who is a bilingual university student.

During the interviews field notes were taken when necessary. The field notes contained information that could not be captured on an audio-recording, for example the teacher’s non-verbal behaviour, interview location and unexpected interruptions from outside which might have had an influence on the interviewee response.
For all semi-structured interviews, a written interview protocol was used which helped the researcher to remember the key points of the research questions. The use of a protocol and its benefits as a conversational guide are also recognised by Rubin and Rubin (1995, p. 164).

Semi-structured interviews were chosen as they enable the researcher to guide the interview with open-ended pre-designed questions. Thus phenomena can be rigorously and systematically investigated, while simultaneously interviewee responses may provide in-depth explanation and description. During the interview the researcher mentally analyses interviewee responses and can follow up with further questioning when deemed relevant to the research (Yin, 2011).

The semi-structured interviews were all undertaken face to face, either in and after school or privately at the participants’ homes. Sensitivity to the interview setting in order to establish and maintain a good and confidential rapport with the interviewee is vital where participants’ personal perceptions, beliefs and feelings are being sought.

As explained earlier in Section 3.2, although I do not teach in any of the case study schools under observation I am a teacher myself. I am, therefore, a stranger to the case study pupils and the case study teachers but not to the context of a classroom and teaching. I needed to win participants’ trust (Fontana and Frey, 2005) and was assisted through insider knowledge of a teaching situation. What is more, ‘insiderness’ (Hellawell, 2006) during interviews (in this case, shared teaching experience) is an empowering factor that can create empathy between the researcher and interviewee. Conversely, interpersonal activity during a qualitative interview requires the researcher to maintain a neutral position to avoid influencing interviewee responses (Yin, 2011). The advice of Spradley (1979, p. 3) to ‘learn from people’, rather than studying them, was considered a vital component of the conversational qualitative interview and adhered to.
The pre-analysis of the two case study teacher interviews (Clara and Helen) was used to
guide the development of a classroom observation chart (Appendix B). The chart helped to
identify potential observable classroom teaching elements relating to the research focus
that could be expected during the integration of English in the lessons and was used in the
development of the pupil picture questionnaire (Appendix C). Pre-analysis of all ten
teacher interviews was undertaken and aided the development of the short teacher
questionnaire (Appendix D).

3.5.1.2 Documents
At the same time as the interviews were conducted, documentary evidence of teacher
training was obtained. Examination of teacher training programmes assisted the analysis
and relationships could be made to the type of teaching practice and level of English skills
observed in the case study classrooms. Understanding typical teacher training programmes
meant that all teacher responses from the interviews and later the questionnaire could be
analysed in relation to the teacher training programme, providing further rich description in
the findings.

The following subsection discusses the multiple sources of data collection at Stage Two.

3.5.2 Stage Two: observation and drawings
Observation of the research site enables data collection that shows interactions occurring in
the natural setting. At the start of both the pilot and the main study, observation of the
classroom setting, as suggested by Silverman (2006, pp. 87–8), was undertaken and
involved features concerned with the classroom layout. For example, how the classroom
furniture was organised and where the blackboard and teacher were positioned made it
easier to focus on what was taking place in the classroom. Additionally the first, second
and fifth questions from the five-question set derived by Emerson, Fretz and Shaw (1995,
p. 146) guided the observation procedure:
• What are people doing? What are they trying to accomplish?
• How exactly do they do this?
• Analytical questions: What do I see going on here? What did I learn from these notes? Why did I include them?

Pupil drawings provide insight into pupils’ perceptions of the lessons and complement the findings from the data collection of the observation and the CST interviews.

3.5.2.1 Case study classroom observation

Systematic case study classroom observation was undertaken to provide further information from the perspective of the teacher through the sub-questions (Table 2.1) and dimensions (Table 2.2) to answer the main research question.

Again, as in the CST interviews, field notes and audio-recording were used for data collection and an observation chart (Appendix B) involving teacher and pupil movement and gestures during the lessons was also used (see Appendix A for samples of transcripts from the field notes and observation chart). The audio-recordings were employed to investigate language use, code switching and interactions occurring during the lesson.

A total of six observations were made of the first case study classroom between October and January and four in the second school from November to January. The reason for this was because the general curriculum content management of the case study teachers differed. Unfortunately, a longer period of classroom observation time was not possible due to the Austrian MoE stipulations concerning empirical studies e.g. limited visits to the classroom, no use of video. Despite this, the total period of observation time spent in each classroom was equal. The longer time span between each observation was also considered positive, since it would allow the researcher to capture any possible changes to the teaching methodologies.

Access to the process of data collection is a sensitive area in this study. Silverman (2006, p. 82) describes how observed research participants often become observers of the
researcher, while Hammersley and Atkinson (1983) claim that research participants and gatekeepers:

are often more concerned with what kind of person the researcher is than with the research itself. They will try to gauge how far he or she can be trusted … how easily he or she could be manipulated or exploited.

(p. 78; original italics)

Certainly the first part of this statement can be perceived as true where young children are involved. This does not necessarily mean that this is a negative factor to be contended with, but was taken into consideration. Also it can have positive effects. Children from my own experience are often more open and talkative than adult participants, particularly when any initial shyness has decreased. In my study the presence of the researcher visibly lost its novelty over initial inquisitiveness in both classrooms, where in the beginning pupils would often turn to look at me. It was particularly in evidence in case study classroom one (Clara’s classroom), where the lessons mainly took place with the pupils seated at their desks. The second part of the statement concerning trust also applied more to CST1 (Clara) than CST2 (Helen). CST1 Clara professed that she had felt inhibited by my presence at the beginning of the observations. CST2 Helen claimed that both she and the children enjoyed having a ‘visitor’ (me – the researcher) in the classroom throughout the study.

During all of the observations I sat quietly at the back of each classroom in an attempt to minimise researcher influence on the classroom participants’ behaviour. The field notes were taken as unobtrusively as possible, identifying what was taking place under the focused headings of my pre-prepared script. The audio-recordings were of great assistance regarding the reliable collection of both the lesson contents and the type and quantity of interactions and language use for coding for the analysis in combination with the
observation chart and field notes. Examples of the lessons (transcripts) appear in Chapters Four and Six and Appendix E and G. A code book with all the codes used, their definitions and examples is provided in Appendix K.

The qualitative individual CST interview findings were analysed against the lesson observations, enabling further and deeper insights from the teacher’s perspective through investigation of the sub-questions (Table 2.1) and their diverse dimensions (Table 2.2) (see Appendix L for teacher interview protocols). Comparative analysis between the two and complete separate case study findings was then undertaken. Subsequently, the analysis could then be related to the findings of FL/L2 learning research, to contextual factors from MoE policy documents (2005, 2012) and to an identification of any new concepts emerging.

3.5.2.2 Pupil drawings

Visual grammar theory provided the methods for the interpretive analysis of the pupils’ drawings in this study. The findings were then analysed through the lens of language learning theories and approaches. Finally, comparisons to MoE policy (2005) and teachers’ perceptions of their classroom practices were made.

The drawing tasks were semi-structured. For example, for the first drawing pupils were requested to draw their perceptions of the English lesson immediately it had ended. Analysis of the classroom discussion showed that practical issues concerned with the drawing task were the pupils’ main concerns:

- Can we use colours?
- Can we draw anything from the lesson?
- I’m not good at drawing – does it matter?
- Can we draw the classroom? teacher? book?
- Does it have to fill the whole page?
The first drawing was undertaken at the end of a lesson where the content was similar in both case study classrooms. Through analysis of the first drawing, identification of the teaching methods and strategies were made and then related to language theories.

The second drawing investigated pupils’ perceptions of English and was not confined to the school context. Again, a classroom discussion between the pupils concerning the use and enjoyment of English and what it means to the pupils was undertaken in the final classroom lesson observation. Four semi-structured questions were addressed to the pupils to help them in formulating ideas for a classroom discussion of the drawing:

1. reasons for English learning
2. likes/dislikes of English
3. uses of English
4. uses of English later when adult.

The case teachers were also requested to draw in an effort to keep them busy and diminish their influence on the composition of their pupils’ drawings.

The second drawing provided data related to contextual factors, i.e. MoE policy (2005), PH policy and school policy.

Clarification with each pupil (one to two minutes) was immediately undertaken to establish three components of the drawing for the analysis later. These were:

- What is in the drawing? (objects)
- Venue? (situation)
- What is taking place?

Again, it must be made quite clear that investigation of the pupils’ drawings was not related to children’s cognitive ability but to perceptions of English and the lesson contents in relation to the teaching practice taking place and MoE policy and guidelines (2005).
Examples of pupils’ responses to the drawing clarifications are reported together in the findings of the pupils’ drawings in Chapter Five.

We now turn to the quantitative data collection.

3.5.3 Stage Three: questionnaires

Questionnaires are a suitable form of data collection to assist triangulation and analysis. Oppenheim (1992) describes how questionnaires ensure ‘higher response rates’ (p. 103) and produce less bias than interviews.

3.5.3.1 Pupil picture questionnaires

The pupil picture questionnaires (Appendix C) enabled rigorous collection of all classroom pupils’ individual perceptions of English use for learning. Due to pupils’ insufficiently developed writing skills, a picture questionnaire was designed. Caution was taken to ensure that items pictured had relevance for the children regarding their knowledge and experience of their English learning. Difficulties arising during the pilot study were concerned with the way pupils were required to respond to the pictures. Subsequently, redesigning and retesting were undertaken to resolve the difficulties, and successful completion and understanding by the same children involved in the pilot study was accomplished.

The pupil picture questionnaire consisted of five items. They were all directly related to general curriculum subjects and hence school activities. Pupils were requested to circle an emoticon. A happy smiley face represented ‘yes’ and a sad smiley one represented ‘no’. The picture questionnaire was conducted at the end of the complete case study classroom observation period. The pupil picture questionnaires underwent quantitative analysis to provide further information to the sub-questions and dimensions that involved contextual factors, as well as to those that involved teacher perspectives (Tables 2.1 and 2.2) of how
far MoE policy (2005) is being fulfilled in relation to potential teaching practices and those taking place in the case study classrooms.

3.5.3.2 Teacher questionnaires

The development of the teacher questionnaire was undertaken simultaneously with the pupil questionnaire. It provided an investigation of dimensions from the teacher perspective through interactive analysis and assisted in the valid account of a small but representative sample of the phenomena investigated. Comparative analysis between the case study and the questionnaire findings was also undertaken, giving more breadth for rich description in the final analysis.

Petersen (2011) discusses how study size needs to be justified in the rationale regarding the definition of:

- **the research design**: how far can the proposed sample satisfactorily answer the research question?

- **the population**: choice of participants regarding same specific characteristics assists improvement of validity although the sample is small

- **the context**: description of the sample for a larger interested population

- **the use of language**: references to the small sample should be repeated in each section of the study report to avoid critiques concerning attempts to promote the findings as a ‘universal truth’.

(p. 139; original italics)

All of the definitions identified by Peterson (2011) were taken into account to ensure valid justification for the small questionnaire size.
In the main study, responses from 32 participants were collected and the unit of analysis was the shared context of teaching relating to English integration in the general curriculum. Analysis of the teacher questionnaire involved extra teacher participant responses to investigate specific themes of the dimensions identified in the qualitative data collection from the teacher interviews.

The teacher questionnaire (Appendix D) consisted of 13 items divided into four main sections: A, B, C and D, with sub-items. Each item enabled further explanation if desired by the questionnaire participant through the provision of an open response box. Qualitative collection of some responses to sections A, B and C had been undertaken in the teacher interviews. Despite this, teacher interview participants’ responses were re-collected in the questionnaire with those of the additional teacher participants. The questionnaire responses assisted triangulation and provided a higher level of reliability and validity (Gibbs, 2007) to researcher interpretation of the teacher interview findings. Section D of the questionnaire entailed collecting new data for all questionnaire participants.

**3.5.4 Stage Four: post-study case study teacher interviews**

Debriefing interviews with CST Helen and CST Clara were undertaken to ensure that the researcher had correctly understood the teaching practice as observed and recorded. The interviews offered an opportunity for further explanation and discussion by both the teacher and the researcher if requested.

**3.5.5. Stage Five: additional post-study interviews**

Semi-structured interviews with the school directors, PH teachers/academics and PH deputy director followed the same process as previously adopted in the teacher interviews (see Section 3.5.1.1). An individual interview was undertaken with each of the participants and an interview protocol dependent on the participant ‘type’ (school director, PH teachers/academics, deputy director) was used.
Simultaneous data collection in contrast to sequential data collection was undertaken at this stage, as the interview responses did not guide the questions put to the other interviewees.

Contextual factors were investigated in these interviews. Investigation of school policy involving English integration and teacher competence was the focus of interviews with the case study school directors (see Appendix M for interview protocol). The interviews with the two PH teachers/academics (see Appendix N for interview protocol) focused upon teacher training policy and their perceptions of this upon teacher competence. The PH deputy director (see Appendix O for interview protocol) was asked about teacher training policy and curriculum design to meet teachers’ needs.

The methodological approach of using multiple, diverse data sources required careful reflection at all times with regard to the methods of data analysis to be applied post-data collection and is the focus of Chapter Four. We now turn to a vital component of research and the final section of this chapter – Ethical considerations.

### 3.6 Ethical considerations

The most obvious ethical considerations prior to the start of both the pilot study and the main study concerned access to the research sites and participants. As both studies were undertaken in Austrian state primary schools permission had to be obtained from the local education authority and the schools concerned. Consent from the Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC) of The Open University was also required.

Ten ethical procedures were undertaken during the study and post-study. They were as follows:

- protection of participant identity through pseudonyms
- guarantee of confidentiality to the participant
- assurance that participants could withdraw from the study at any time
• contact details of the researcher provided for the participants in case any questions might arise
• identification of the researcher and the university involved
• identification of the research purpose
• safe storage of the data collected for analysis
• identification of the type of participant involvement
• identification of the data collection methods
• identification of participant benefits from the research. For example, new knowledge to assist teaching for learning.

In order to gain access to the case study research sites and participants for the main study, a written application and the necessary documents had to be sent to the relevant local education authorities.

In the first case study school, permission for the school and the case study teacher to take part in the study had to be obtained from the school director, who, in the first instance, had to be contacted by the authorities. Permission to undertake the research in the second case study school was given directly by the school. Letters of permission containing information and requesting consent for their children to participate in the study were then issued to all parents at both schools.

In Austria, at the time of this study and currently, it is not necessary to gain pupils’ consent to participate: parental permission is sufficient. Nonetheless, the proposed study was explained to the pupils and their consent sought. If any child had requested not to take part, this would have been respected despite parental permission having been obtained. Permission from education authorities was not necessary for interviewing additional study participants and for teacher surveys, as these were undertaken in private settings. The ten
other areas for ethical consideration are the bias involved in researching an area close to one’s own field of work and – more generally – the research should assist the development of knowledge and provide information to the academic and educational community to improve education further. Critiques concerning researcher bias with regard to the wording of questions and coding of responses (Fontana and Frey, 2005) were also carefully reflected upon. Interviewee feedback concerning any corrections or changes to the responses given in both the pilot and the main study meant that misinterpretations by the researcher were avoided (Maxwell, 2009, pp. 244–5).

Often, contradictory responses are given by an interviewee to the same or similar question, which researchers (Campbell, 2009; Yin, 2000) consider is a component of the research process. Therefore, it is necessary that the researcher seeks explanation and clarification of the contradiction from the respondent. The findings can only be considered valid when no further contradictions are found. The search for ‘discrepant evidence’ is also considered to be a vital procedure by researchers and all such evidence needs to be tested and explained (Patton, 2002, p. 553; Rosenbaum, 2002, pp. 8–10). Therefore, debriefing of the interview participants was undertaken to ensure the accuracy of the data collected (Berg, 2001).

The qualitative ethnographic methods of data collection applied in the classrooms required sensitivity to the setting at all times. Awareness of researcher presence during the lessons was observed at the start of the study but decreased as the observations progressed. Maheux and Roth (2012), in a discussion concerning conducting classroom observations in qualitative research, question ‘the role of researchers in relation to education and educational practices’ (p. 1). Ethically, the researcher’s role should be to contribute to the production of knowledge in order to assist the development of education policy and practice. Therefore the purpose of the study creates an ethical responsibility on the part of
the researcher towards the observed. Hence researcher bias needs to be carefully reflected upon, not only during the classroom observations but throughout the data collection and analysis procedures of the study.

Maheux and Roth (2012) also argue that the separation of the observer from the observed is not a simple undertaking and also is not entirely possible. To make distinctions, it is necessary to have a conscious awareness of our own identities which through interaction in diverse social contexts with others are constructed and developed. It is not possible to reduce the pupils and teacher observed in a learning/teaching context during class time to unknown objects, as we ourselves are the same objects (human) but in a different position, i.e. researcher. However, contrasts between prior knowledge of the known (teacher/pupils/classroom context) and relationships to the observed (classroom practice) enable distinctions to be made for the development of new knowledge.

Cresswell (2009) discusses how dissemination of the final report also involves ethical issues that are concerned with the type of language used. Discriminating or biased language is to be avoided at all times and purposeful inaccurate presentation of the findings is totally unacceptable (Neuman, 2000).

We now turn to Chapter Four for the explanation, description and discussion of the data analysis procedures and methods used in this study.
4 Chapter Four: Analysis of the data

4.1 Introduction

The analysis of this qualitative mixed methods research study, although complex, enables enhancement of knowledge through the multiple perspectives of educational participants. Provision of rich description in the findings through the synthesis of standpoints, views and perspectives can be achieved through the combination of qualitative and quantitative research methods. Therefore the analysis required an application of methods and tools which would assist rigorous data organisation and categorisation of the large collection of qualitative data from the diverse sources (Table 3.8). The software program NVivo (described in Section 3.4) fulfilled these requirements and also assisted in the investigation of the interrelating and interactional patterns for which it is particularly designed (Fraser, 1999; Richards, 1999). An additional asset of NVivo is an audit trail enabling reanalysis for confirmation of the findings to be undertaken by outside researchers. Excel was also used during the analysis for some of the exported NVivo findings and presentation of the quantitative analysis.

As explained earlier (Section 2.8), in order to answer the main research question ‘How is English as a foreign language taught in the first two years of Austrian primary schools?’, three diverse perspectives need to be taken into account, i.e. the context and the participants (teacher and pupils).

The different dimensions of the teacher and pupil perspectives were investigated (Table 2.2) and analysed in light of the contextual perspectives. NVivo assisted in coding the extensive unstructured data, which would not have been feasible through manual coding. The coding of specific themes and analysis of their recurrence in different contexts was also made with NVivo.

A matrix tool enabling visual combinations of collected data was particularly helpful in the coding and continual interactive and interrelated analysis evolving from the mixed data
collection. Hutchison, Johnston and Breckon (2010) have also identified how NVivo can assist the main components of a grounded theory analysis approach to research involving the three main stages of analysis:

- Development of categories.
- Saturation of categories, i.e. when no new concepts can be developed from the data.
- Development of theory.

Blending the findings enabled insights into interconnections between factors that influence the teaching practices occurring in the classroom and pupil perceptions of these. The next section explains the analysis approach.

4.2 Constructivist grounded theory (CGT)

Both the pilot and the main study analyses were undertaken using the constructivist grounded theory (Charmaz, 2003) approach. The constructivist model of grounded theory (CGT) is based on the original model developed by Glaser and Strauss (1967), Strauss and Corbin (1990) and Glaser (1992). With the rise and development of ‘Grounded Theory’ (GT), the role of qualitative research changed. Grounded theory is inductively extracted from the data, which in turn assists further forward focusing of data collection in the refinement of the theoretical analysis.

Although Strauss and Corbin (1990) did extend grounded theory to include the views and perceptions of the research participants, Charmaz (2003) argues that grounded theory has positivist characteristics involving an ‘objective external reality, a neutral researcher who discovers data, reductionist inquiry of manageable research problems and objectivist handling of data’ (p. 250).

Objectivity has also been described by Phillips:
A view that is objective is one that is open up to scrutiny, to vigorous examination, to challenge. It is a view that has been teased out, analyzed, criticised, debated – in general, it is a view that has been forced to face the demands of reason and of evidence.

(1993, p. 66)

Objectivity remains a vital component of good research, although Flick (2002) argues that objectivity can never really be achieved and suggests that the triangulation of methods can provide an alternative route to validity.

The more constructivist approach proposed by Charmaz (2003) involves the use of grounded theory methods but with more flexibility in their strategies of discovery than through rigid procedures. A CGT approach enables researchers from many traditions to use grounded theory methods in the development of their constructivist studies which involve interpretive approaches (Charmaz, 2003, p. 252). However, a major criticism of CGT by Glaser in his article ‘Constructivist Grounded Theory?’ (2002) is the remodelling of GT into a Qualitative Data Analysis (QDA) method. QDA is concerned with accurate description. Glaser argues that in GT through continual comparative and reductionist methods of categories, researcher bias is eliminated and concepts and theories evolve. In contrast Glaser argues that CGT is tainted by researcher bias in attempts to provide accurate descriptions of the data, which take into account the social context and situation. Glaser’s arguments against CGT (2002) are manifold, and it is not possible to report them all here. However, in light of the diversity of data collection from multiple sources, CGT provides the necessarily greater investigative analysis procedures. For example, the original use of drawings in combination with pupil clarifications requires a method of analysis which not only allows broader interpretation for the findings but also provides reliable and valid data analysis for objective and rich description in them.
All of these factors support further the design chosen for this study, i.e. a mixed methods approach for the data collection and data analysis.

We now turn, in Section 4.3, to how the data analysis is organised.

### 4.3 Data analysis organisation

The qualitative data collected was imported into NVivo and stored in separate folders for easier access at all stages during the analysis. Coding of the data was then undertaken through the creation of nodes. Nodes are categories which assist the coding and organisation of the data. Main theme categories are parent nodes and can contain subcategories (child nodes) which in turn may also contain further subcategories. Nodes assist the interconnection of data for the analysis and development of concepts. Through node coding the researcher can bring together similar data responses from diverse sources or nodes to create a new node (category). In addition, through a text search run, NVivo can identify specific phrases or words from different types of sources or nodes and interrelating links between the data can be made. Therefore a node for each individual data set and an individual node for each participant (case node) within that set were created. For example, the case study teacher *Clara* was appointed the case node *Clara* and stored within the case study teacher folder, whereas the teacher *Mary* was appointed the case node *Mary* but was stored within the teacher folder. In each case node, the coding for categories from the data sources could be made.

The importance of reliable researcher identification of categories and themes can be evaluated through diverse types and tests which basically evaluate the degree to which raters agree on their decisions. Inter-rating reliability (IRR) is usually associated with and a recognised feature of quantitative research (Armstrong, Gosling, Weinman and Marteau, 1997) and a fundamental concept of research design. Through provision of an audit trail in NVivo (Section 4.1), IRR is given in this study adding rigour to reliability.
Elaboration of the findings (Creswell, 2009) was undertaken by qualifying quantitative data and quantifying qualitative data. Validity and reliability (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007; Caracelli and Greene, 1993) were enhanced through triangulation of the data and the multiple levels of analysis which assisted the amalgamation of the findings. (Creswell, 2009; Morse, 1991, 2003).

As previously explained in Sections 3.3 and 3.4, organisation of the data analysis was set in a sequential exploratory framework strategy. Cross and comparative analysis between cases and sets of data is described later. The order of analysis is shown in Figure 4.1.

![Diagram of data analysis](image)

Key: arrows indicate timeline of analysis
lines indicate type of data analysis

**Figure 4.1** Order of analysis of the individual qualitative and quantitative data sets
The organisation of the mixed analysis of the individual data sets is depicted in Figure 4.2, which is based on the structure of the visual diagram of explanatory design procedures in Jie and Xiaoqing’s study (2006).

### Stages (numbers in boxes)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage</th>
<th>Procedure</th>
<th>Outcome</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. QUALITATIVE analysis</td>
<td>Thematic analysis Coding form *NVivo 10</td>
<td>Codes and categories</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Transference of qual-quan</td>
<td>Selection of themes *NVivo10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. QUANTITATIVE analysis</td>
<td>Theme statistics Charts and graphs</td>
<td>Interpretative statistics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. QUALITATIVE analysis Repeat stage 1 procedure</td>
<td>Thematic statistics *Excel</td>
<td>Descriptive theme statistics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. QUANTITATIVE analysis</td>
<td>Thematic statistics *NVivo10</td>
<td>Themes and categories</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Transference of quan-qual</td>
<td>Selection of themes *NVivo10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Connecting quan-qual interacting analysis 1,2,3 to 4</td>
<td>Thematic analysis *NVivo 10 *Excel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. QUALITATIVE analysis Repeat stage 1 procedure</td>
<td>Thematic statistics *Excel</td>
<td>Interaction descriptive statistical theme analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Mixed analysis Interaction of all findings</td>
<td>Explanation and rich description of all findings</td>
<td>Conclusion</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Key:**

1 = Teacher interviews and classroom observations

2 = Pupil picture questionnaires

3 = Pupil drawings

4 = Teacher questionnaires

5 = School directors’, PH teachers’/academics’ and PH deputy director interviews

6 = Mixed analysis of all findings

**Figure 4.2** Representation of mixed analysis sequential procedure
The sequential exploratory analysis strategy administered in this study enabled the researcher to build upon the previous data findings. For example, the quantitative findings of the pupil picture questionnaire (Figure 4.2, Box 2) followed by the qualitative analysis of pupil drawings (Figure 4.2, Box 3) assisted in the interpretation of the qualitative findings (Figure 4.2, Box 1) of the case study teacher interviews and classroom observations. Comparative and cross analysis between the case study teachers and their classrooms was then undertaken.

The findings from qualitative interviews with eight additional teachers provided comparison not only with the case study teacher findings and access to a larger chosen participant community but also with the development of the teacher questionnaire at the research design stage. Subsequently the questionnaire enabled further expansion of numbers in the field of enquiry (Morse, 1991). Through building on the qualitative teacher interviews and quantitative and qualitative classroom observational findings, the quantitative analysis of the teacher questionnaire (Figure 4.2, Box 4) could be undertaken. Descriptive statistical theme analysis of each questionnaire participant response together with the descriptive and interpretive theme analysis of all qualitative and quantitative teacher findings were the analysis strategies used.

Influential factors related to teacher and classroom findings were sought in the analysis of the qualitative data collected at higher institutional and authoritative levels (Figure 4.2, Box 5).

The final stage of analysis (Figure 4.2, Box 6) entailed the merging of all data analysis findings undertaken with the help of relational network tools provided by NVivo. Interconnections between the data findings were made visible, and strengthened the analysis methods (Miles and Huberman, 1994) to enable critical scrutiny from others to provide more validity and reliability in the findings.
Making meaning from the developing relational networks entailed the development of concepts as the analysis proceeded. The necessity to develop related networks assisted more intense consideration of the research question and concept development. Subsequently, as analysis progressed and my own analytical skills sharpened, the research purpose became clearer, which positively assisted the coding of the data sources.

4.3.1 Coding and categories

All the interviews for this study followed a qualitative semi-structured design. The analysis procedure for each interview was identical. The interview analysis process entailed the following 14 stages post-interview translation and transcription:

- Complete general reading of the interview to gain a sense of the whole.
- First general coding for categories.
- Re-examination of interview to develop and create additional new categories.
- Creation of node graphs for each interview participant and analysis of category responses.
- Clustering of categories into themes and identification of main theme with their sub-themes.
- Revisiting the data for further possible new and unexpected categorisation to emerge.
- Creation of matrices for all main themes with sub-themes and general analysis.
- Creation of classification sheet from the values of the attributes assigned to each node.
- Query runs from data text and creation of diverse graphs for further analysis.
• Cross and comparative analysis of main themes and sub-themes from each of text analysis, matrix analysis and classification sheet.
• Creation of diverse matrices and comparative analysis.
• Development of concept maps for interconnecting features.
• Summary of all findings.
• Creation of visual summary finding figure/s.

The interview questions for research participants were identical within each specific data set. Sensitive language use concerning non-ambiguity in meaning, clearly formed questions and the level of researcher–respondent interaction understanding was always carefully addressed (Smyth, 2006). This is necessary if the findings of the comparative analysis are to be considered dependable and to avoid increasing numbers of variations in the type of responses. Nevertheless, expansion of questions was often undertaken and is also a major characteristic of qualitative semi-structured interview procedures enabling intensive probing into participant responses when considered helpful to understanding and clarification for both the researcher and interviewee (Silverman, 2006). In addition, it allowed interviewees ‘the space to talk’ (Rapley, 2004, p. 25) and this led to unexpected information which required further categorisation and hence new node creation directly from the data.

4.3.1.1 Teacher interviews

The first stage of analysis (Figure 4.2, Box 1) involved the advanced coding of the existing broad and subcategories that were derived from the sub-questions, dimensions and protocol questions which had been developed in light of the pilot project findings. The categories were used for the pre-analysis of the interview and questionnaire data before installation of the NVivo software. For example, the category L2 (English) teacher training, which was investigated during the teacher interviews, contained the subcategories English competence and English teaching skills. New additional coded data could be placed into an existing
category where appropriate and new categories were created when necessary. For example, although the subject integration category contained the subcategory time factors, closer examination identified lesson priority as a feature of teacher interview responses concerning lesson planning of English integration into subject content. Hence the new subcategory lesson priority was created from the interview responses. The two separate interview responses involving the same question, ‘When does English integration take place during the week?’, but undertaken on different days and individually with the case study teachers Clara and Helen are displayed in Extracts 4.1 and 4.2.

**Extract 4.1**

Clara: *When there is time, when I have to exclude something then it is English. Well, I am doing English today now … in between the lessons … to relax the lessons and give the children a break between subjects and so forth, ten minutes from the book.*

**Extract 4.2**

Helen: *I have two thirty minute lessons weekly … I do thirty minutes of German and thirty minutes of English, twice weekly. However, when it is inconvenient then I teach it on another day, it varies … let me think. Naturally when I organize a MOFF* it must be good. Half an hour is then not enough time. Sometimes we have more than one hour of English in the week.*

(Source: Teacher interviews)

*MOFF* Monats Treff – Monthly Meeting, where class projects are presented to peers and parents. In this interview the teacher talks about English presentations)
Note: The original German text of all extracts displayed in this study can be observed in Appendix E. Tables of each extract source can be viewed in Appendix F.

The interview protocols assisted in the identification and guidance for some prior category node creation for the analysis in advance of the actual data processing. The category ‘tools’ is one example of pre-node creation. Classroom ‘tools’ and teacher perceptions of them is related to teacher perspectives and investigation was undertaken during the data collection of the teacher interviews. An example of nodes coded from the interview data of the case study teacher Helen is shown in Figure 4.3.

Figure 4.3 The coded interview nodes of case study teacher Helen

NVivo allows researchers to create visual graphs of all contents coded at specific nodes for each individual source, which assisted linking of ideas and comparisons between teacher
participant responses for the analysis. Therefore, by clicking on a node, immediate retrieval of all data coded at the node for each individual teacher could be viewed.

After coding the entire teacher interviews further finer coding was undertaken. This entailed revisiting data sources and renaming categories when new or divergent information arose.

Six main categories developed as the analysis proceeded and six parent nodes were created with relating subcategories, as displayed in Table 4.1.

**Table 4.1** Teacher interviews with the main theme categories and their subcategories

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Main themes (Parent nodes)</th>
<th>Sub-themes (Child nodes)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Integration</td>
<td>CLIL-type (integrative methods)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pedagogy</td>
<td>Aims</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subject choice</td>
<td>Subject content</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time factors</td>
<td>Timetable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher perceptions</td>
<td>Influences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher experience</td>
<td>Teacher training</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As the additional separate data sets (for example the school director interviews) were processed and analysis progression continued, interrelation factors assisted identification of the main categories further.

NVivo’s ability to develop framework matrices enabled structured qualitative comparative analysis (Cohen and Manion, 1994) between all themes and sub-themes to be undertaken, assisting identification of relational and interlinking features between each teacher interview participant. An example of the matrix *Integration, English skills and competence and teaching experience* can be viewed in Appendix H.
Further analysis of the diverse matrices supported the development and assignment of attributes to the individual teacher interview nodes, where classification sheets and graphs created from the attribute values assisted the analysis further. For an example, see Appendix J.

Scrutiny of the attributes assisted investigation of further possible associations and divergence between the teacher responses.

Query search runs of the data were a further facility provided by NVivo. Therefore, diverse related factors within the teacher interview coded data were investigated and the development of concept maps visualising interconnections between data were built upon as the analysis progressed (see, for example, Figure 4.4).

![Figure 4.4](image) Levels of integration and teaching experience

### 4.3.1.2 Classroom observations

The classroom observation analysis as displayed in Box 1 of the analysis procedure (Section 4.3., Figure 4.2) involved the same 14-stage procedure as described in the teacher interview analysis (Section 4.3.1). This entailed attribute assignment, framework matrices and conceptual mapping to identify interconnection, relations and divergences. Once again,
the qualitative data was imported into NVivo, but on this occasion coding for categories was not guided by an interview protocol but by expectations from the findings of the case study teacher interview regarding classroom practice. An observation chart had been in use during case study data collection with some audio-recording of the lessons. Again, unexpected features were coded with pre-preparation of expected categories.

The flexible relational network facility provided by NVivo enabled rigorous, structured and comparative qualitative analysis between the case study teacher interview and case study classroom observations. The findings were related to language learning theories (Cook, 2008; Ellis, 1997, 2006; Long, 1996; Krashen, 1981, 1982) through examination of the classroom practice observed involving specific characteristics of language learning theories, early language learners (Djigunović, 2010; Nikolov, 1999), integrated language learning theories (Coyle et al., 2010; Serra, 2007; Dalton-Puffer and Nikula, 2006; Brinton et al., 2003) and general learning theories, in particular social constructivist learning theory (Bruner, 1983; Vygotsky, 1978). This was followed by the qualitative comparative analysis with some quantification of the data involving descriptive theme statistics (Richardson, 2013). Nominal measurement was used for categorisations and frequency distribution was displayed through the creation of bar graphs to show the ranking of the nominal measurement. Measurements of central tendency were evaluated by the mean and mode scores of the specific categories for explanation and visualisation of the findings. Range and variance scores were used to analyse the measures of variability. Correlation measurements were not in use for the classroom observation analysis due to the type of data investigated. The data analysis at multiple levels (Creswell, 2009) supported the interrelating and comparative findings between the two case study teacher interviews and observation of their classroom practices.

Comparative analysis between the complete case study findings and contextual factors involving MoE policy (2005) and teacher training policy from the documents and school
policy from the school director interview provided tentative pre-analysis and descriptive interpretation concerning the influence of these policies observed in classroom practice. Extracts 4.3 (CST Clara) and 4.4 (CST Helen) show a working example from each classroom.

**Extract 4.3** Observation of interaction in lesson two of case study classroom one (Clara’s classroom)

T = Teacher, C = Class, P1 = Pupil one, P2 = Pupil two, Ps = Pupils, T and Ps = Teacher and pupils, ET = English translation.

T what’s this? What’s this?
P1 umm
P1 (silence)
T ähnliche wie woolly hat (ET: similar to woolly hat)
C (silence)
T what’s this? nicht a woolly hat (ET: not a woolly hat)
C (silence)
T hmmm
C (silence)
Ps a woolly hat
T no no woolly hat
C (silence)
P2 a hat
T a hat, okay
C a woolly hat
T what’s this?
T and Ps cap

(Source: Observation of interaction in lesson two of Clara’s classroom)
Extract 4.4 Observation of interaction in lesson two of case study classroom two (Helen’s classroom)

T = Teacher, C = Class, T and C = Teacher and class, P1 = Pupil one, P2 = Pupil two, P3 = Pupil three, Ps = Pupils, ET = English translation.

T (chanting) what’s this?
T and C (chanting) what’s this?
T a
C hat
C a hat
T hat okay
T (chanting) what’s
T and C (chanting) this? what’s this? a
P1 skirt
P2 skirt
T a skirt
T and C (chanting) a skirt a skirt
T (chanting) what’s this?
T and C (chanting) what’s this?
T a woolly hat, a woolly hat,
T and C (chanting) what’s this? what’s this? a woolly hat, a woolly hat,
T and C (chanting) what’s this? what’s this? a
T dre
T and C (chanting) ss, a dress, a dress a dress dress dress
T what’s this?
P2 red
T what’s this?  

P2 (silence)  

T (quietly) dress  

P2 dress  

T (secretively) what’s this?  

P1 a dress  

T what’s this?  

P1 a dress  

T what’s this?  

P2 a dress  

P3 a dress  

T and what’s this?  

P3 a woolly hat  

T perfect Paul  

(Source: Observation of interaction in lesson two of Helen’s classroom)

Analysis of the classroom interactions in Extracts 4.3 and 4.4 revealed that Initiation Response Feedback (IRF) methods are used in both classrooms and are associated more often with psycholinguistic methods of teaching and a cognitive approach. Language factors involving code switching, input and output were also analysed from all classroom data collection. The analysis revealed Helen’s use of whole classroom interactions for repetition and revision of lesson content, providing pupils more opportunity to practise their output (Extract 4.4) in contrast to the individual single word pupil responses observed and recorded in Clara’s classroom (see Extract 4.5).
Extract 4.5 Observation of interactions in lesson four of Clara’s classroom

T = Teacher, C = Class, P1 = Pupil one, P2 = Pupil two, P3 = Pupil three, P4 = Pupil four,
ET = English translation.

T Where is the apple? What’s this? *(pointing to apple in book)*
C *(silence)*
P1 Number four
T What’s number five?
C Plum
T What’s number two?
P2 It’s a carrot
T What’s number one?
C *(silence)*
P3 Carrot
T Carrot, no, what’s number one? *(asks pupil 4)*
P4 Potato
T Potato, it’s a potato

(Source: Observation of interaction in lesson four of Clara’s classroom)

The breadth of language involving the teacher input used during the lessons was also analysed. Extract 4.6 is an example from Helen’s classroom revealing the use of longer phrases for communication in an authentic manner characteristic of SLA and CLT approaches. In comparison a reduced use of English in the form of two or three words for questions is used by Clara (Extract 4.5).


**Extract 4.6** Observation of interactions in lesson one of Helen’s classroom

T = Teacher, C = Class, T and P = Teacher and pupil, T and C = Teacher and class,

P1 = Pupil one, P2 = Pupil two, ET = English translation.

T

Okay now let’s do … let’s start with the month okay!

With the month okay!

T

Mon

T and P
day

T and C

Tuesday

P1

Nein (English translation (ET): No). *(Pupil one shouts out in a loud voice while Tuesday is being said by the teacher and class)*

T

What was wrong *(quietly)*

T

Lena? I said let’s start with month *(intonation changes to incredibility) what happened *(astonished voice) Monday???

P2

Noooo

T

Noo it wasn’t correct *(still astonished in high voice)*

T

Womit beginnen wir? *(ET: What do we start with?)*

P2

Jänner *(ET: January)*

(Source: Observation of interaction in lesson one of Helen’s classroom)

Teaching input was also analysed against the CSTs’ perceptions of their own English skills, training and enjoyment.

Although the classrooms of the non-case teachers could not be observed, an analysis of individual teaching approaches was undertaken. Valid and reliable provision for the analysis was taken from the interview and questionnaire responses, involving the key dimensions from the teacher perspective (Table 2.2).
Analysis of pupils’ perceptions of their lessons with regard to the lesson content provided valuable information relating to the teaching approaches observed and perceived to be in use by the case study teachers and reflections of the influence of education policies (MoE, PH and school).

Classroom analysis also involved the type and quantity of pupil movement occurring during the lessons. All movement that involved learning had been recorded and four categories had emerged:

- pupil movement for learning through the classroom (e.g. walking, marching during chants and song)
- gestures for learning not in combination with songs
- movement for learning during songs
- movement to play games for learning in the classroom.

The number of times for each category were recorded and added together for the total number of times movement had taken place in each lesson. The qualitative analysis of the findings involved associations to language theory and the teaching approach observed both in the case study teacher classroom and with the interview responses. The next section describes the analysis of the pupil picture questionnaires.

4.3.2 Pupil picture questionnaires

Descriptive statistics (Richardson, 2013) as used in the quantification of the qualitative analysis of the classroom observations was also the analysis strategy for the pupil picture questionnaires as displayed in Box 2 of the visual diagram of the analysis procedure (Figure 4.2).

Pupils’ developing perceptions of English as a learning tool for diverse subjects were investigated. Links between the case study teaching methodology used (taken from the findings of the classroom observations and case study teacher interviews) provided insight into teachers’ implicit knowledge of how a language is taught and learned, as did the way
in which teacher knowledge and teaching methodology influence pupils’ perceptions of the lessons in each case study classroom. Comparative analysis between the two classrooms was also undertaken. As the number of students in the case study classrooms was unequal (10 in Helen’s and 14 in Clara’s classroom), numbers had to be expressed as percentages to make the findings comparable.

Finally a comparative analysis between education policy and classroom practice was made using descriptive theme statistics (Richardson, 2013).

Table 4.2 displays the responses to the picture questionnaire from Clara’s classroom, regarding whether pupils believed that individual subjects could be taught in English.

**Table 4.2 Pupil responses to the picture questionnaire from the case study classroom ‘Clara’**
Figure 4.5 displays the ranking of the responses from the pupil picture questionnaire of Clara’s classroom, while Figure 4.6 displays the ranking of responses from Helen’s classroom.

![Figure 4.5 Pupil responses to the picture questionnaire of Clara’s classroom](image)

![Figure 4.6 Pupil responses to the picture questionnaire of Helen’s classroom](image)

Further descriptive statistical analysis between the pupil picture questionnaire findings and all the teacher interview responses and the teacher questionnaire responses concerning teacher subject choices made for English integration lessons and levels of integration were made post-questionnaire data analysis.

Section 4.3.3 discusses the next stage of analysis, pupils’ perceptions of the lessons.
4.3.3 Pupils’ drawings

The third stage of analysis (Figure 4.2, Box 3) involved analysing pupils’ drawings. The analysis used the visual grammar framework developed by Kress and van Leeuwen (2006), which is based on Halliday’s theory (1994) involving the three types of meaning contained within drawings (see subsection 3.5.2.2):

The two sets of pupils’ drawings from each case study classroom were imported into NVivo and stored in separate folders. Direct individual coding from both sets of drawings was undertaken; no pre-coding was made. The coded drawings then underwent sequential analysis in two stages:

Stage one: involved three levels for each drawing set and individual case study classroom:

1. individual analysis of each pupil’s drawing
2. comparative analysis between the pupils’ drawings
3. comparative analysis between the case study teacher findings.

Stage two: involved comparative analysis between the two case study classrooms for each drawing set and was undertaken at two levels:

1. separate comparative analysis between the two drawing sets
2. comparative descriptive analysis between the summary findings of each classroom.

The codes applied to all of the drawings are shown in Table 4.3.
### Table 4.3 The coding of the drawings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Codes</th>
<th>IDEATIONAL</th>
<th>INTERPERSONAL</th>
<th>TEXTUAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Analytical</strong></td>
<td>1. Objects</td>
<td>1. Distance</td>
<td>1. Size relationships</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Carrier</td>
<td>2. Gaze</td>
<td>2. Colour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. Location/Situation</td>
<td>4. Positioning</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Narrative</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5. Clarification</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5. Vectors</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Visual</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6. Multimodality</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Interrelations between the coded structures of the drawings assisted the coding for categories.

The categories for analysis of the coded drawings of set one are shown in Table 4.4.
Table 4.4 Categories for analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sociocultural language learning approaches (CLT, SLA Integrative)</th>
<th>Social constructivist general learning theory</th>
<th>Psycholinguual language learning approach (Cognitive)</th>
<th>Behaviourist general learning theory</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Social interactive classroom</td>
<td>Active learner – teacher guidance shared interaction for learning</td>
<td>Teacher-led classroom</td>
<td>Passive learner versus active teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learner opportunities to focus on both language learning and process</td>
<td>Social interactions for learning</td>
<td>Initiated response feedback (IRF). Teacher questioning followed by pupil response. Teacher positive feedback to correct response</td>
<td>Positive reinforcement for correct learning. Teacher methods involve repetition and drilling for learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authentic texts</td>
<td>Authentic learning opportunities</td>
<td>Focus upon learning of linguistic features of the language, for example grammar rules, vocabulary</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contribution of learner personal experience to lessons for learning</td>
<td>Teacher guidance to facilitate learner requirements</td>
<td>High teacher input. Low pupil output</td>
<td>Emphasis on teacher input for learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Link between language learning inside and outside of the classroom context</td>
<td>Learning takes place in a shared social cultural context</td>
<td>Low peer interaction</td>
<td>Low peer interaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authentic themes</td>
<td>Authentic themes for curriculum learning</td>
<td>Use of themes taken from classroom resources</td>
<td>Use of themes taken from classroom resources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authentic tools</td>
<td>Authentic tools for curriculum learning</td>
<td>Use of superficial classroom tools</td>
<td>Use of superficial classroom tools</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Coding for categories of the drawings from set two was undertaken through the lens of the MoE educational aims (2005):

- influence learning motivation and interest in foreign languages
- develop communication skills in a FL
- influence and develop intercultural awareness – respect and unprejudiced interaction with others of different cultures
- acknowledge and recognise self as part of a larger community and specifically the European community.

The findings of pupils’ perceptions of the lesson content (drawings: set one) and pupil perceptions of English (drawings: set two) involved confirmation analysis of the case study teacher’s aims, pedagogical strategies applied and observations of these in the classroom. The coded drawings (set one) were analysed through the lens of language learning theories and approaches (Coyle et al., 2010; Cook, 2008; Dalton-Puffer and Nikula, 2006; Brinton et al., 2003; Ellis, 1997, 2006; Long, 1996; Krashen, 1981, 1982) and the two major general learning theories – ‘social constructivist’ (Bruner, 1983; Vygotsky, 1978) and ‘behaviourist’ (Skinner, 1953) in combination with contextual factors involving school policy, PH policy and MoE policy (2005).

The next stage of analysis involved the quantitative analysis of the teacher questionnaire.

4.3.4 Teacher questionnaires

Analysis of the teacher questionnaire as displayed in Box 4 of the visual diagram of the analysis procedure (Figure 4.2) involved additional teacher participants’ responses to investigate specific themes identified in the qualitative data from the teacher interviews. The questionnaire was divided into four main sections: A, B, C and D, with sub-items.

Descriptive statistical analysis was again used for the teacher questionnaire. Individual questionnaire participant analysis and comparative cross analysis between participants was
undertaken. The questionnaire enabled a broader scope with respect to the findings, which assisted analysis concerning how far the case study and teacher interview findings are representative of a larger selective population.

Table 4.5 is an example of responses taken from Section A item 2, which investigated if English was integrated by the teacher into subject content or taught separately or a combination of both, and Section D item 3, which investigated teachers’ additional English qualifications. Table 4.6 is an example of responses taken from Section B item 3, which investigated teachers’ preference for extra lesson time, and Section D item 3 as mentioned above.

The teachers who answered the questionnaire anonymously have been given a number.
Table 4.5 An example of teacher participant responses to the teacher questionnaire:

Section A item 2 and Section D item 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher</th>
<th>Integration</th>
<th>Extra English qualification</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Integration</td>
<td>Classic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clara</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helen</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Steve</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gabi</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mary</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selina</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Edith</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Karin</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ursula</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Babsi</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eleven</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Twelve</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thirteen</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fourteen</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fifteen</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sixteen</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seventeen</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eighteen</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nineteen</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Twenty</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Twenty-one</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Twenty-two</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Twenty-three</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Twenty-four</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Twenty-five</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Twenty-six</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Twenty-seven</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Twenty-eight</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Twenty-nine</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thirty</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thirty-one</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thirty-two</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Table 4.6** An example of teacher participant responses to the teacher questionnaire:

Section B item 3 and Section D item 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher</th>
<th>Lesson Time</th>
<th>Extra English qualification</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Extra time</td>
<td>No extra time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clara</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helen</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Steve</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gabi</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mary</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selina</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Edith</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Karin</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ursula</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Babsi</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eleven</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Twelve</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thirteen</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fourteen</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fifteen</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sixteen</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seventeen</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eighteen</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nineteen</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Twenty</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Twenty-one</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Twenty-two</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Twenty-three</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Twenty-four</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Twenty-five</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Twenty-six</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Twenty-seven</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Twenty-eight</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Twenty-nine</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thirty</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thirty-one</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thirty-two</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td>21</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The results can be presented in nominal form. Responses for each questionnaire item were recorded and bar graphs and tables created with Excel to show frequency distribution and assist the cross and comparative analysis between the participant responses.

Importation of the Excel sheet into NVivo assisted the qualitative interpretation of the quantitative questionnaire findings through the creation of interconnecting and relational models. It also provided further evidence of the lack of the human element in quantitative research in contrast to qualitative research. Reasons for the teacher responses could not be derived from the questionnaires alone. Nevertheless, a wider range of respondents raised the validity, reliability and generalisability of the results. So far, the analysis procedure has involved data from teachers and pupils. The next stage involves the analysis of the additional interviews.

4.3.5 Additional interviews

The analysis procedure as displayed in Box 5 (Figure 4.2) was undertaken for all additional interviews: school directors, teacher training university teachers/academics and teacher training university deputy director. The development of nodes in NVivo where category contents were stored was created directly from the interviews and from the source-specific semi-structured interview protocols.

4.3.5.1 School directors

The node categories developed from the interview of the case school director Doris are displayed in Figure 4.7.
Figure 4.7 The coded interview nodes of the case study school director *Doris*

As explained in Section 4.3.1, the evolution of main themes and their subcategories was identified through further intensive examination and through continually revisiting the complete interview when necessary for further clarification.

The main themes identified were:

- Pedagogy
- School policy
- Teacher training.

These all contained subcategories as displayed in Table 4.7.
Findings from the main themes were subsequently analysed to investigate the associations between school policy and teacher practice. The findings were then analysed in relation to MoE policy through descriptive interpretative analysis. Comparative descriptive qualitative analysis between the findings from both case study schools was then undertaken.

The next section looks at the analysis of the data from the two English teachers/academics from one teacher training university (PH).

**4.3.5.2 Teacher training university teachers/academics**

Three main themes were identified from the teacher training university English teachers’ (academics’) interviews:

- PH teacher policy
- Pedagogy
- Teacher training.

These all contained subcategories as displayed in Table 4.8.
Table 4.8 Themes and subcategories of the PH English teachers’/academics interviews

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Main themes</th>
<th>Subcategories</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PH teacher policy</td>
<td>Aims, Curriculum content, Integration priority, Evaluation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pedagogy</td>
<td>Tools, Evaluation, Methodology, Language use</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher training</td>
<td>L2 (English) competence, Student evaluation, Teaching perceptions, CLIL-type (integration methods), Teaching experience</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Findings from the theme analysis involved investigation of comparisons and relationships to teacher training, case study teacher perceptions and classroom practices, and examination of the relationship to MoE policy and guidelines (2005).

We now turn to the analysis of the teacher training university deputy director.

4.3.5.3 Teacher training university deputy director

The analysis involved investigation of curriculum planning and teacher training aims in relation to MoE policy (2005). Figure 4.8 displays the nodes coded from the interview of PH deputy director Debi.
Figure 4.8 The coded interview nodes of the PH deputy director Debi

Two main themes were recognised with the subcategories displayed in Table 4.9.

Table 4.9 Themes and subcategories of the PH deputy director’s interview

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Main themes</th>
<th>Subcategories</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PH policy</td>
<td>Autonomy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher training</td>
<td>Curriculum</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Comparative analysis between the teaching policy of the teaching university English teachers/academics and teaching university (PH) policy of the deputy director was undertaken. It involved an investigation of training methods, teaching aims and student teacher English skills and competence prior and post-teacher training. Together these were analysed in relation to MoE policy (2005).

The final stage of the analysis is described in Section 4.3.6.
4.3.6 Final mixed analysis

We have now reached the final stage of the analysis procedure (Box 6, Figure 4.2). This involved carrying out a summary analysis of the interconnecting and relational factors of the phenomena brought to light through the diverse methods and sources of data collection and analysis. Figure 4.9 visualises these interconnections, relational factors and influence upon teacher practice in the classroom, and pupil confirmation of these practices.
Key:

**Yellow** = Levels of policy

**Pink** = Mainly qualitative data analysis

**Blue** = Mainly quantitative data analysis

Circular shapes = Policy types

Hexagonal shapes = Case study participants

Diamond shapes = Case study and additional teachers

Triangular shapes = PHs participants

**Figure 4.9** Interconnecting features with regard to teacher classroom practice and the methods of analysis and data collection involved
Chapter Five: Findings

5.1 Introduction

The strategy applied to organise the vast quantity of multiple findings for interpretation was set in the sequential exploratory framework (Creswell, 2009; Morse, 1991, 2003) described in Sections 3.3 and 3.4. For easier reading, Chapter Five is organised according to the sub-questions to the main research question ‘How is English taught in the first two years of Austrian primary schools?’ The chapter will begin with a focus on the first four sub-questions (Table 2.1) and the dimensions involved (Table 2.2) with regard to the teachers’ perspective. Data from the teacher interviews (Section 5.2) and classroom observations (Section 5.3) are the main sources used.

Sections 5.4 and 5.5 will focus on the pupils’ perspective in order to provide an answer to sub-question 5 ‘What are pupils’ perceptions of the lessons?’ Classroom observation, the pupil picture questionnaire and – most importantly – a detailed multimodal analysis of the drawings produced by the pupils are the data sources used for the analysis on which the findings are based. Finally, Sections 5.6, 5.7 and 5.8 focus on the external influences considered in sub-questions 6 and 7 (Table 2.1). Again, the sources used to answer these questions are manifold, comprising teacher questionnaires, classroom observations, and interviews with school directors and officials at teacher training universities. Documentary evidence from government guidelines and teacher training universities will also be taken into account.

With the use of nodes and node graphics, an overview of the factors influencing primary English classes is provided (see Figure 5.21) as a summary in the final section of this chapter.
5.2 Sub-questions 1, 2, 3 and 4: Teacher interviews

The findings from the teacher interviews assisted the investigation of sub-questions 1, 2, 3 and 4 (Table 2.1) in regard to classroom practice concerning:

- where English is integrated into the curriculum
- teaching methods and strategies
- planning
- teaching aims.

The teacher interviews also provided information concerning how far MoE policy (2005) regarding non-replacement of subject content for English learning, a CLT approach in combination with TBI methods, was followed at ground level in the classroom. The amalgamation of findings from all sources provides an overall picture.

5.2.1 Sub-question 1: Where is English integrated into the curriculum?

Findings from the two case study teacher (CST) interviews revealed that CST Helen believed that she integrated English into the lessons without replacing subject content. The eight additional teacher interviews showed that all of the teachers made the same claim. However, the levels of integration varied and use of subject content for integration was highly controversial. The case study classroom observations supported these findings. Four levels of integration from the interview analyses were identified and accordingly assigned to the teacher interview responses:

1. High integration: General curricular content was not replaced by ‘classic’ (see point 3 below) FL lesson activities but was taught in the target language using a CLIL-type approach.

2. Partial integration: English was used, for example in Music through English songs or counting in Maths, and the teacher adopted a TBI approach with additional separate blocks of classic English learning only.
3. Low integration: Mainly classic FL learning lessons, i.e. English language learning is undertaken through traditional methods often entailing a psycholinguistic approach, namely teaching through IRF drilling and repetition with low levels of interaction. The classic English FL lessons were taught as a separate subject and English phrases were used during the teaching of some of the other subjects. English songs between lessons are also often used for learning.

4. No integration: Only classic English FL learning lessons were taught and those were separate from the teaching of other subject content, for example Maths or Music.

The subcategory integration type was derived from responses to the question ‘How do you integrate English into the lesson?’ The findings showed that TBI (Brinton et al., 2003) was used by all the teachers, of which one also applied a CLIL-type approach (Coyle et al., 2010) during the lessons. Three of the teachers did not integrate English into any subject content but replaced subject content time. No developing patterns could be observed between integration type and integration level. Yet all of the teachers except one, the CST Clara, perceived integration of English into the curriculum to be important at S1 in primary school.

Table 5.1 shows the individual teacher integration levels, type of integration taking place during the lessons and teacher policy concerning the importance they place upon English learning in their own classrooms.
Table 5.1 Individual teacher interview findings concerning English integration level, integration type and teacher policy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers</th>
<th>English integration levels</th>
<th>Integration type</th>
<th>Teacher policy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Clara</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>Classic/TBI</td>
<td>Less important</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(CST)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Helen</td>
<td>Partial</td>
<td>Classic/TBI</td>
<td>Very important</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(CST)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Babsi</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>Classic/TBI</td>
<td>Important</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Edith</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Classic/TBI</td>
<td>Important</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Gabi</td>
<td>Partial</td>
<td>Classic/TBI</td>
<td>Important</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Karin</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>CLIL-type/TBI/CBI</td>
<td>Very important</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Mary</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Classic/TBI</td>
<td>Very important</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Selina</td>
<td>Partial</td>
<td>CLIL-type/TBI</td>
<td>Very important</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Steve</td>
<td>Partial</td>
<td>Classic/TBI</td>
<td>Very important</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Ursula</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>Classic/TBI</td>
<td>Important</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 5.1 shows two categories: teacher policy involving levels of importance assigned to English and the type of integration taking place. The columns represent the type of integration and show the number of teachers and the level of priority accorded to English.

For example, the first column ‘high’ shows one teacher with high integration in her classroom who believes English learning to be ‘very important’.

Figure 5.1 Integration levels and levels of importance

The non-shortening of lesson time (see Section 1.3, pp. 5–6) (with regard to MoE policy (2005)) through integration of English into subjects was not found in nine out of ten
teachers’ interview responses. Extracts 5.1–5.6 display examples from the individual
teacher interviews where some subject content replacement was identified.

**Extracts 5.1–5.6**

**Researcher:** How do you integrate English into the curriculum
subjects in relation to time?

**5.1 Babsi:** *it doesn’t really work I do twice half an hour weekly, ah I
steal a little time from other subjects, sometimes German, sometimes
Maths.*

**5.2 Edith:** *When I usually teach a whole lesson once a week,
sometimes when I integrate it but not often ten minutes a day.*

**5.3 Helen:** *I do half an hour German and half an hour English, twice
a week on two days.*

**5.4 Gabi:** *well Music is one hour so I do half an hour Music and half
an hour English, and then I shorten other lessons.*

**5.5 Ursula:** *I take a little time off German or the Maths lesson*

**5.6 Clara:** *I don’t, English is English … I follow the book.*

(Source: Teacher interviews)

In contrast, Extract 5.7 displays the responses of the teacher *Karin,* where no replacement
of lesson content was identified. She has high integration teaching policy levels regarding
the importance of English learning.

**Extract 5.7**

**Researcher:** How do you integrate English into the curriculum
subjects in relation to time?

**5.7 Karin:** *there is no problem. It is important for children at this age
in fact extremely important that they speak a lot in order to develop
their vocabulary. Whether it is in German or English or mixed is*
irrelevant. It is a wonderful opportunity for the children. And I can quite easily, for example when I am teaching numbers, teach them all in English.

(Source: Teacher interviews)

We now turn to the findings of sub-question 2 and related dimensions from the teacher interviews: the teaching strategies in use, subject choice and subject content chosen for the lessons.

5.2.2 Sub-question 2: What type of teaching methods and strategies are in use during the lessons?

Methods: Dimensions: teaching approach, subject choice, subject content

Findings from the teacher interviews from the main category ‘subject choice’ showed that English integration was undertaken in nine out of ten of the teachers’ classrooms during General Knowledge (GK) and Music. Explanations given for the choices involved the availability of themes and songs which often coincided with class themes of the week or yearly events in the English book. Examples of teacher responses can be observed in Extracts 5.8–5.11.

Extracts 5.8–5.11

Researcher: In which subject or subjects do you integrate English and why?

5.8 Mary: It fits well into the Music lessons, we sing.

5.9 Helen: in General Knowledge lessons it flows in very nicely with the various themes.

5.10 Karin: we do the fruits as a theme for example in General Knowledge during the Autumn …
5.11 **Steve:** colours, numbers … then there is animal protection …

*they love to know, dog, cat … so I integrated it into the General Knowledge lessons and weekly themes …*

(Source: Teacher interviews)

GK was also the subject choice of *Ursula* for English, although she claimed in the interview not to integrate English into the subject content of lessons (Extract 5.12).

**Extract 5.12**

**Researcher:** In which subject or subjects do you integrate English and why?

**5.12 Ursula:** *I generally teach English in blocks. English is English, General Knowledge is General Knowledge.*

(Source: Teacher interviews)

Yet Ursula also claims later in the interview to integrate English into GK classes (Table 5.2). Hence it must be acknowledged that these are teachers’ views, where one person can even contradict herself. How far GK subject content is learnt through the use of English is dependent upon teachers’ perceptions of GK subject content. Unintentional replacement of GK content by teachers for English learning may be taking place. If the latter is closer to what is taking place in the classroom, then integration into subject content is not occurring, despite teachers’ claims. This raises the question of whether teachers’ perceptions of English integration differ from MoE policy guidelines (2005).

Before examining how findings from the two case study classrooms provided more information and some answers to these questions, findings of the teaching strategies will be discussed.
5.2.2.1 Teaching strategies: Dimensions: tools, language use

Teachers’ use of language showed that code switching between German (L1) and English (L2) was undertaken by all teachers mainly for directives and explanations. Reasons given by the teachers were the lack of pupils’ English knowledge at this stage of learning. Gabi and Ursula, who claimed to use only English during the lessons, explained how they believed pupils’ attempts to understand English were hindered when translation and explanations were not made in German by the teacher.

Classroom tools involved teachers’ use of the English book (Playway) with supplied materials: DVD, CD and flashcards (picture-cards). Teachers’ own extra classroom tools involved worksheets and games downloaded from the internet. The CLIL-type teacher Karin used the tools of the curriculum subject, which also consisted of DVDs, CDs and flashcards.

Table 5.2 displays the complete pedagogical features of the individual teachers’ classrooms from the interview findings.
Table 5.2 Pedagogical features of the individual teachers’ classrooms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant teachers</th>
<th>Subject choice</th>
<th>Subject content</th>
<th>Language content</th>
<th>Code switching</th>
<th>Classroom tools</th>
<th>Aims</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Babsi</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>Themes</td>
<td>Words, phrases, songs</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>English book, CD, DVD, flashcards and teacher</td>
<td>Enjoyment Vocabulary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Clara (CST)</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>Themes</td>
<td>Words, phrases, songs</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>English book, CD, DVD, flashcards</td>
<td>Vocabulary Enjoyment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Edith</td>
<td>GK</td>
<td>Themes</td>
<td>Words, phrases, songs</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>English book, CD, DVD, flashcards and teacher</td>
<td>Enjoyment Vocabulary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Helen (CST)</td>
<td>Maths, Music, P.E., GK</td>
<td>Themes</td>
<td>Words, phrases, songs</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>English book CD, DVD, flashcards and teacher</td>
<td>Enjoyment Vocabulary Interest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Karin</td>
<td>All subjects</td>
<td>Curriculum</td>
<td>Words, phrases, songs</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Curriculum CD, DVD, flashcards</td>
<td>Enjoyment Communication Vocabulary Interest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Mary</td>
<td>Music, GK</td>
<td>Themes</td>
<td>Words, phrases, songs</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>English book CD, DVD, flashcards and teacher</td>
<td>Enjoyment Vocabulary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Selina</td>
<td>GK, Music</td>
<td>Themes</td>
<td>Words, phrases, songs</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Curriculum, English book, CD, DVD, flashcards</td>
<td>Enjoyment Vocabulary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Ursula</td>
<td>GK</td>
<td>Themes</td>
<td>Words, phrases, songs</td>
<td>English only</td>
<td>English book, CD, DVD, flashcards</td>
<td>Enjoyment Vocabulary</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Through amalgamating the findings from sub-question 1 (subsection 5.2.1) and sub-question 2 (subsections 5.2.2 and 5.2.2.1) interpretive analysis of the language theory implicitly adopted during the lessons by each individual teacher was made. The
combination of a CLT and psycholinguistic cognitive approach to teaching and learning was the approach most often adopted in the classrooms.

Where blocks of English were taught only from the English book, a predominantly cognitive approach was assigned to teacher practice. For a working example of classroom interaction during a lesson with the English book, see Extract 4.5. However, where blocks of English were integrated partially with the use of the English book and partially without, i.e. songs and phrases between and during lessons or directly into subject content, a CLT approach in combination with a cognitive approach was identified from the data and assigned as a ‘mixed’ approach in the findings.

Although observation of the non-CST classrooms could not be made, the interview responses provided detailed information concerning the tools used and the type of teaching approach being applied in their classrooms and were also investigated in the teacher questionnaire.

Figure 5.2 displays associations to language learning theory identified from the analysis of the teacher interviews.
Analysis of teachers’ plans to introduce English into the classroom is the focus of the next subsection.

**5.2.3 Sub-question 3: What are teachers’ lesson planning procedures for English integration into the chosen subject content?**

Planning procedures were undertaken by most of the teachers, although these involved mainly factors concerning the integration of English into the weekly timetable.

Although teachers did not produce detailed lesson plans or activity schedules, they all believed that a native speaker assistant or specialist English teacher would be beneficial. Reasons for this were teacher concerns with their own lack of speaking practise for pronunciation, vocabulary and, in particular, flowing dialogue or fluency. The CST Helen also believed that specialist English teachers should be a feature of the primary school system and some of the teachers also expressed the view that assistance from a native speaker would be welcome (see Extracts 5.13–5.15).
Excerpts 5.13–5.15

Researcher: What type of assistance would you welcome during the lessons if any and why?

5.13 Gabi: A native speaker now and then would be great, sometimes the words fail me …

5.14 Helen: I believe a specialist English teacher should be in the primary school.

5.15 Edith: It would be wonderful to have a native speaker during the lessons.

(Source: Teacher interviews)

5.2.4 Sub-question 4: What are the teaching aims?

Teaching aims involved motivating pupils’ interest, enjoyment and communication in English. A diverse and large repertoire of vocabulary was one of the main learning aims identified in all teacher interviews. All the teachers believed that pupils enjoyed the lessons and were highly motivated to learn (Table 5.2). Reasons for this were associated with the absence of assessment in English in their school reports (see examples in Extracts 5.16–5.18).

Excerpts 5.16–5.18

Researcher: How do you perceive pupils enjoy their English integrated lessons?

5.16 Helen: My class love them … because there aren’t any evaluation pressures …

5.17 Mary: The children enjoy learning English because there is no pressure to gain good marks …
5.18 Selina: Generally they find English wonderful and they think they are so cool. They learn in a more playful way, much better than with pressure and school marks.

(Source: Teacher interviews)

5.2.5 Summary of the findings from the teacher interviews (sub-questions 1–4)

The teacher interviews show that no or only partial integration involving classic methods of English FL teaching was undertaken by nine out of ten teachers during the lessons. Therefore the majority of teacher classroom practice only partially fulfils education policy. A TBI (Brinton et al., 2003) approach to teaching is adopted by all the teachers. The tools used are mainly a set English book (Playway) with supplementary materials. GK and Music are the main subjects chosen for the lessons. Time factors involved shortening the allocation to other subjects. All of the teachers believed that their pupils enjoy the lessons, and that native speakers or specialist teacher assistance during the lessons would be beneficial for both pupils and teacher. Nonetheless, all of the teachers believed that their English skills were sufficient.

A psycholinguistic cognitive approach to the lessons was adopted by two of the three teachers where English integration into curriculum subjects was not undertaken. Most of the teachers used a combined psycholinguistic and CLT approach to teaching, which was clearly revealed in their interview responses. A CLIL-type approach to teaching was adopted by one teacher, Karin.

What teachers do in their classrooms is influenced by many factors: cognition; local practice; official curriculum guidance; and the classroom atmosphere whereby unexpected events can lead to improvisation. Naturally, all teachers are individual and the predominant teaching approach assigned to each is based upon the interviews and classroom observations, hence the classifications are approximate.
Figures 5.3 and 5.4 display the interconnecting factors from the teacher interviews of sub-questions 1–4 (Table 2.1).

**Key:** Single-headed arrows show associations between the findings

Double-headed arrows show influential factors upon classroom practice

**Figure 5.3** Interconnections between the findings of sub-questions 1, 2 and 3 from the teacher interviews
Regardless of approach and integration, all teachers predominantly have the enjoyment of pupils as their aim. Other relevant aims are pupil interest and communication.”

Key: Single-headed arrows show associations between the findings

Figure 5.4 Findings of sub-questions 1 and 4 from the teacher interviews

We now turn to the findings of the classroom observations.

5.3 Classroom observations (sub-questions 2–4)

The classroom observations provided information for analysis of the CSTs’ perceptions of their classroom practice and its relation to educational policies.

5.3.1 Classroom methods, strategies and tools

A predominantly cognitive approach in the classroom was adopted by the CST Clara in contrast to Helen’s combined cognitive and CLT approach. Clara’s classroom was teacher-led where low and sometimes no peer interaction or movement was observed during the lessons, indicative of a psycholinguistic approach. Helen’s classroom involved high levels of pupil movement and diverse classroom interactions, indicative of a CLT approach.

Tools used in both classrooms were the English book and some extra materials that had
been supplied. School materials – for example P.E. equipment – and extra tools downloaded from the internet – for example rhymes and songs – were also used in Helen’s classroom. Teaching strategies in both classrooms involved IRF with the use of flashcards. Oral–aural strategies and vocabulary do vary between the teachers. In Clara’s classroom pupils’ combined use of the English book with the CD or DVD for the identification of words with pictures was followed by teacher questioning that involved the pupils translating words to investigate their comprehension of the text. In contrast, oral–aural learning in Helen’s classroom involved songs, dance and movement, with peer interaction in all of the lessons. Combined teacher and pupil chanting of questions was also a teaching/learning strategy that was applied during the IRF sessions in Helen’s classroom. Researcher perception of pupil enjoyment and motivation levels was recorded in both classrooms. Clearly, it is not possible to give a valid and reliable interpretation of pupil enjoyment from observation alone.

Table 5.3 displays the teaching approaches used in the two separate CST classrooms. The number of times pupil movement for learning took place in each case study classroom is displayed in Figure 5.5 (see p.149). The levels show the quantity of the total from all four pupil movement categories during learning (see Section 4.3.1.2):

- movements through the classroom
- gestures (not in combination with songs)
- movement during songs
- movement and games.

Sixteen was the highest total recorded in one lesson; hence quantity values do not exceed this number. It was not possible to quantify the number of movement types in Helen’s classroom during observation of the P.E. lesson as the pupils were continuously in motion.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clara: Lesson 1</th>
<th>Psycholinguistic</th>
<th>Vocabulary</th>
<th>Book, IRF, flashcards</th>
<th>Teacher- led</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>Cognitive/ Behaviourist</th>
<th>Teacher–pupil, Teacher–class</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Clara: Lesson 2</td>
<td>Psycholinguistic</td>
<td>Vocabulary, word game and songs</td>
<td>Book, CD, ball, flashcards, IRF</td>
<td>Teacher- led</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Cognitive/ Behaviourist</td>
<td>Teacher–pupil, Teacher–class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clara: Lesson 3</td>
<td>Psycholinguistic</td>
<td>Vocabulary and film</td>
<td>IRF, book, DVD, CD</td>
<td>Teacher- led</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Cognitive/ Behaviourist</td>
<td>Teacher–pupil, Teacher–class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clara: Lesson 4</td>
<td>Psycholinguistic</td>
<td>Vocabulary</td>
<td>Book, CD, flashcards, IRF</td>
<td>Teacher- led</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Cognitive/ Behaviourist</td>
<td>Teacher–pupil, Teacher–class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helen: Lesson 1</td>
<td>Sociocultural</td>
<td>Vocabulary and songs, word games</td>
<td>CD, IRF, chanting</td>
<td>Whole classroom</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>CLT/ Cognitive (Mixed)</td>
<td>Teacher–pupil, Teacher–class, peer, teacher with class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helen: Lesson 2</td>
<td>Sociocultural</td>
<td>Vocabulary, songs and dance</td>
<td>CD, flashcards, IRF, chanting</td>
<td>Whole classroom</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>CLT/ Cognitive (Mixed)</td>
<td>Teacher–pupil Teacher–class, peer, teacher and class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helen: Lesson 3</td>
<td>Sociocultural</td>
<td>Vocabulary and songs, word games</td>
<td>CD, flashcards, IRF, chanting</td>
<td>Whole classroom</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>CLT/ Cognitive (Mixed)</td>
<td>Teacher–pupil Teacher–class, peer, teacher and class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helen: Lesson 4</td>
<td>Sociocultural</td>
<td>Vocabulary, songs, P.E.</td>
<td>CD, P.E. equipment, flashcards, IRF</td>
<td>Whole classroom</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>CLT/ Cognitive (Mixed)</td>
<td>Teacher–pupil Teacher–class, peer</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Levels of movement = positioning on the classroom movement scale of pupil movement types other than seated at desks during learning

Levels | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5
--- | --- | --- | --- | --- | ---
Quantity | 1–4 | 5–8 | 9–12 | 13–16 |

Figure 5.5 The classroom movement continuum

Subject and language content of the English instruction are the focus of the next section.

5.3.2 Subject content and language content

Subject content in both classrooms consisted of themes from the English book, Playway 2 (2009). Observation during the P.E. lesson of Helen’s pupils revealed that English was not used to learn P.E. Instead, individual pupil knowledge of previously learnt vocabulary consisting of body parts, fruits and numbers was tested while pupils used the P.E. equipment. Various types of P.E. equipment had been set up in a large circle in the gymnasium and pupils moved from one piece of equipment to the next. At each equipment station the pupils’ recognition and knowledge of words learnt in a previous lesson from a chapter of the English book was revised using flashcards to jog their memories. At the final piece of equipment the teacher tested pupils’ vocabulary knowledge by showing each pupil a series of flashcards of previously learnt vocabulary.

Observational findings concerning FL teaching during all of the lessons showed low levels of focus on form in contrast to the teaching of vocabulary through IRF modes. The two CSTs rarely prompted pupils and never corrected their pronunciation. Instances of code switching between L1 (German) and L2 (English) in lessons one and two of both classrooms were equal for explanations and directives in Clara’s lessons and higher than those recorded in Helen’s classroom. Subject content was identical for both classrooms
during lessons one and two, though it differed in lessons three and four. During the P.E. lesson, Helen code switched more often than in the other lessons.

The analysis of teachers’ use of language during the lessons revealed that variations depended on the context. For example, during explanations and classroom management (directives), code switching was undertaken more often than during praise. In contrast the analysis of language use for corrections revealed no code switching. All of these language features have been recognised by researchers (Dalton-Puffer and Nikula, 2006; Nikolov, 1999) as influential upon FL/L2 learning. A specific feature of language use observed in Helen’s classroom during teaching and interaction was the use of tone variation.

Table 5.4 displays the quantitative findings of the language features comparing each case study classroom between lessons and between teachers. Figure 5.6 shows a graphic representation of these features. The levels show the quantity of the CSTs’ diverse use of language observed in each lesson. The continuum scale is identical for language use of all types represented in the table. Twenty-six was the highest number from one type recorded.
Table 5.4 Features of teacher language use during English integration lessons

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>L1 (German) Directives</th>
<th>L2 (English) Directives</th>
<th>Teacher prompting</th>
<th>Pronunciation correction</th>
<th>L1 Praise</th>
<th>L2 Praise</th>
<th>Verbal tone variation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Clara: Lesson 1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clara: Lesson 2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clara: Lesson 3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clara: Lesson 4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helen: Lesson 1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helen: Lesson 2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helen: Lesson 3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helen: Lesson 4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Levels | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5
---|---|---|---|---|---
No use of language feature

Figure 5.6 The features of language use continuum

The vocabulary used for questioning and praise in both classrooms was almost identical.

Table 5.5 compares in summary form the data drawn from individual CST interviews and all classroom observations.
Table 5.5 Comparative findings between the two data collection types of the CSTs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Clara (CST)</th>
<th>Helen (CST)</th>
<th>Observation</th>
<th>Clara (CST)</th>
<th>Helen (CST)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>English integration</strong></td>
<td>None</td>
<td>Partial</td>
<td>English integration</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>Partial</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Integration type</strong></td>
<td>Classic</td>
<td>TBI</td>
<td>Integration type</td>
<td>Classic</td>
<td>TBI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Teacher policy</strong></td>
<td>Less important</td>
<td>Very important</td>
<td>Teacher policy</td>
<td>Less important</td>
<td>Very important</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Aims</strong></td>
<td>Communication and enjoyment</td>
<td>Communication and interest</td>
<td>Aims</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Code switching</strong></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Code switching</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Interaction</strong></td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Interaction</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Subject choice</strong></td>
<td>None</td>
<td>Maths, Music, P.E., GK</td>
<td>Subject choice</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>Music, P.E., GK</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pedagogy</strong></td>
<td>Behaviourist</td>
<td>Socio-constructivist</td>
<td>Pedagogy</td>
<td>Behaviourist</td>
<td>Socio-constructivist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Shortens timetable</strong></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Shortens timetable</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pupil enjoyment</strong></td>
<td>High</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Pupil enjoyment</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Teacher English skills</strong></td>
<td>Sufficient</td>
<td>Sufficient</td>
<td>Teacher English skills</td>
<td>Sufficient</td>
<td>Sufficient</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Teaching experience</strong></td>
<td>10–15 years</td>
<td>10–15 years</td>
<td>Teaching experience</td>
<td>10–15 years</td>
<td>10–15 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Vocabulary praise</strong></td>
<td>Okay, Good, Very good</td>
<td>Good, Very good, Excellent, Okay, Well done, Perfect</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Examples of vocabulary used during IRF sessions</strong></td>
<td>What’s this? What is this? Which one? What’s that? Which one? How much? How many? What’s missing?</td>
<td>What’s this? What is this? Which one? What’s that? Where is it? How big? How much? How many? What’s missing?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Findings from the classroom observations reflect almost all of the CST interview findings and together reveal how educational policy is regarded as English integration into subject time rather than subject content. Using time taken from disciplinary teaching for English, teachers are adding English to their pupils’ learning by making it an additional subject rather than an enhancement to established subjects. Yet research has shown that there is justification for considering a CLIL-type approach as an efficient method of learning if full integration, i.e. using English so that pupils acquire both English and subject knowledge, is achieved.

In every respect, CST Helen’s perceptions of English integration teaching with relation to MoE guidelines (2005) are lightly reflected in reality in her classroom practice. However, some minor contradictions between her interview responses (see Extracts 5.3 and 5.9) and the classroom observations are revealed. In comparison, CST Clara’s classroom practice does not reflect English integration with relation to MoE guidelines (2005) but her interview response ‘English is English’ (Extract 5.6), does. Therefore the triangulation of qualitative research methods, using both interviews and classroom observation, is fully justified.

The following section presents the findings from the pupils’ perspectives.

**5.4 Sub-question 5: What are pupils’ perceptions of the lessons?**

**Pupil picture questionnaires**

The findings of the pupil picture questionnaires (Appendix C) are presented in percentages for comparative measurement as the number of pupils in each of the case study classrooms was unequal (10 in Helen’s classroom and 14 in Clara’s classroom).

More than half of the pupils in both case study classrooms regarded English as a learning tool for nearly all of the school subjects. A contrast between the classrooms was shown for
P.E., GK, Maths and Art, but both classrooms scored 100% for pupil perceptions of English as a learning tool in the Music lessons.

The findings reflect pupils’ experiences of English as a learning tool for specific subject content and themes. For example, counting was a theme in one of Clara’s lessons and English was taken into P.E. in one of Helen’s lessons. Tentative claims about relations with education policy can therefore be made involving integration of English into subject content. Pupils believe they are learning English in other subjects.

Figure 5.7 shows the comparative findings of the pupil picture questionnaire from the two case study classrooms.

**Figure 5.7** Comparative findings between the two case study classrooms of the pupil picture questionnaire

Findings from the pupil drawings assisted the analysis further and are the focus of the next section.

**5.5 Sub-question 5: What are pupils’ perceptions of the lessons?**

Pupil drawings

Pupil drawings enabled insights into pupils’ perceptions of the lessons and confirmation of teacher practices and associations to contextual factors of education policies.
5.5.1 Drawing one (lesson content)

Findings from the pupils’ drawings in the two case study classrooms with regard to pupils’ perceptions of the lesson content differed extensively, although the lesson content was identical. For example, the ideational components of all of the drawings in the classroom of CST1 (Clara) consisted of classroom tools for learning reflecting the teaching strategies in use during the lesson. The majority of the drawings also portrayed the teacher. A typical drawing of Clara’s pupils’ perceptions of lesson content is shown in Figure 5.8. Applying Kress and van Leeuwen’s visual grammar methods for analysis (2006) (see Section 3.5.2.2 and Table 4.3) to the drawing, ideational features consist of two main objects: the teacher and the green blackboard (it must be pointed out that although the term blackboard is used in classrooms, blackboards can actually be green). Additional objects are the oversized pen, teacher’s desk and two overhead lights. Together they create the Carrier, i.e. the context, which is the classroom (school context). They are equally arranged from left to right on the paper. On the left side of the paper – the Given (in visual grammar) – is the teacher who is the vessel of knowledge and hence the known. Objects used by the teacher are also portrayed: pen, desk and a bottle of glue on the desk. Together they indicate the teacher’s ‘space’ and represent the knowledgeable area of the classroom. On the right – the New – is the blackboard where (new) learning takes place. The blackboard does not belong to the teacher alone; it is a shared tool which is used to communicate knowledge from the teacher (depicted on the left – from the Given) for learning (New knowledge – depicted on the right). Narrative features of the drawing can be read in the vectors of the teacher’s body position with arms akimbo. This open position portrays Clara’s freedom in the classroom. In visual grammar, lower positioning of images is interpreted as the ‘Real’ with regard to actual real-life facts (Kress and van Leeuwen, 2006). Therefore the downward direction of Clara’s arms to the ‘Real’ is interpreted as a fact regarding her status as teacher and the freedom of teaching control she has over the classroom, and as an owner of higher knowledge. When images are positioned in the upper
areas of a drawing Kress and van Leeuwen (2006) interpret these as the ‘Ideal’. The Ideal in a classroom is successful teaching and learning. In the example drawing (Figure 5.8) Clara is holding a pen in her right hand and the direction of the pen is upwards to the Ideal (learning). Therefore, the narrative features read through the vectors in the drawing tell us that the pupil perceives Clara to have freedom and control over the classroom, and knowledge (the ‘Real’) for learning (the ‘Ideal’). There are no visual features in this child’s drawing.

Interpersonal meaning in drawings is constructed by the gaze of both the internal (drawing components) and the external viewers (Kress and van Leeuwen, 2006). In this drawing example (Figure 5.8) the teacher is the largest object standing at the front of the classroom facing the pupils. The gaze of the teacher demands attention from the internal viewers (pupils) and the external viewers (real-world viewers). Although the pupils (internal viewers) are absent in the drawing, the real-world viewer is aware of their presence. The dominance of the teacher, teacher control of the classroom tools and the absence of the learners in the drawing indicates the passive role learners take in the classroom. The interpretation is supported by the distance between the objects portrayed in the drawing. The lack of distance between the teacher and desk show how pupil perceptions of the teacher are interwoven with objects ‘belonging’ to the teacher, i.e. desk, glue, pen, power and importantly knowledge. In fact the desk itself appears to form part of the teacher, although she is standing behind the desk. It is from here – ‘Given’ (left side of the drawing) – that she divulges knowledge to the pupils. Observation findings of all the lessons support this interpretation. The teacher rarely moved away from her desk during teaching, only sometimes to write on the blackboard. Distance between the blackboard and the teacher is size-related in the drawing. The central position of the blackboard on the right side of the drawing shows that the pupil believes that the blackboard is an important tool for learning (the New – knowledge). A salient textual feature of the drawing is the
oversized pen in the teacher’s right hand. The knowledgeable teacher can use the pen in many ways, for example to write explanations, correct, mark work and praise. Finally, the position of the lights at the top of the paper individually placed almost exactly above the teacher’s (the ‘Given’ – knowledgeable) head and the blackboard (enlightened/the ‘New’ – knowledge) are in accordance with Kress and van Leeuwen’s suggestion of the ‘Ideal’ (2006). Together they are powerful representations of the importance of the teacher in the learning process. The drawing is colourful and the colours of the teacher’s clothes represent their true colours. Kress and van Leeuwen (2006) discuss how colour also has semiotic functions; for example, ideational functions can distinguish places, signatures of firms, and people.

For this drawing interpersonal meaning was denoted through the use of the colour red for the nib of the blue pen in the teacher’s hand and for Clara’s red cheeks. Although the use of colours is not universal, they do convey meaning. Red in the Western world is a dynamic powerful colour and used to signify extreme situations, for example sign warnings, love and fire. Clara’s red cheeks are interpreted as the pupil’s perception of Clara’s temperament during teaching. The red (dynamic colour) nib of the pen conveys power: it is also the colour many teachers use when mistakes have been made by their pupils. It draws attention to the mistakes. In contrast the colour green is often identified as the colour of calm, hope and healing. For example, many hospitals walls are painted green. Therefore, the textual meaning in the green of the blackboard was interpreted as the ‘healing element’ in the classroom, where (learning) problems can be resolved (hopefully) through teacher explanations and instruction. The summarised findings of the ideational, interpersonal and textual meaning in the drawing were analysed against the framework of Vygotsky’s social constructivist general learning theory (1978) with the adoption of CLT methods for FL learning. The analysis revealed that both teaching approaches were not represented in this pupil’s drawing. The interpretation of this pupil’s perceptions of the
lesson content was aligned to a behaviourist (Skinner, 1953) teaching approach. Teacher-led instruction is the dominant feature of ‘behaviourism’ and is characteristic of psycholinguistic theory involving an instructional FL teaching approach – the pupil as an empty vessel waiting to be filled with knowledge by the more knowledgeable teacher. Figure 5.8 shows the pupil’s drawing and Table 5.6 shows the summarised interpretation of the drawing.

Figure 5.8 Pupil two’s perceptions of the lesson content in Clara’s classroom
Table 5.6 Summarised visual grammar analysis findings of the drawing from pupil two (shown in Figure 5.8) in Clara’s classroom

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Functional meaning</th>
<th>Visual grammar analysis</th>
<th>Teaching approach</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Ideational</strong></td>
<td>Teacher and blackboard are the main objects in the drawing. Salient object is the large pen held by the teacher standing at her desk. The desk, glue, pen and blackboard are tools for learning which ‘belong’ to the teacher, indicating teacher power over knowledge.</td>
<td>Teacher-led, importance of tools relate to teaching strategies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Analytical</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Narrative</strong></td>
<td>Opened body position to pupils indicates freedom of teaching and control over knowledge. Downward arm vectors indicate movement to the Real (knowledge). Mouth rounded indicates speaking for pupils’ learning.</td>
<td>Emphasis on teacher for learning content = passive learner. Pupil absence from the drawing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Visual</strong></td>
<td>None</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Interpersonal</strong></td>
<td>Teacher gaze directed at class demanding attention from pupils (internal viewers) and real-world viewers (external viewers)</td>
<td>Teacher-led, teacher control over knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Textual</strong></td>
<td>Items are size-related except for the large pen with the red nib (power relations). A colourful picture. Teacher yellow top – a happy colour.</td>
<td>Teaching tools important</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Clarification</strong></td>
<td>Teacher standing at her desk with her pen next to the blackboard. She is teaching English.</td>
<td>Teacher-led classroom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Interpretation of the findings</strong></td>
<td>Active teacher and passive learner of a teacher-led classroom. Drawing is teacher and classroom tool orientated. Relationships to ‘behaviourism’ and a psycholinguistic approach to teaching are reflected in this pupil’s drawing.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.6 was then analysed through the lens of general learning theories and FL teaching/learning approaches. For example, the teacher-led approach depicted in the
drawing and teacher dominance of tool use for learning are not criteria specific to sociocultural theories. To assist reliability and validity in the interpretation of each individual drawing further, an analysis formulae consisting of four possible outcomes was designed. The possible combinations and formulae applied can be viewed below:

1. D ÷ GL = SoC
2. D ÷ GL = B
3. D ÷ FL = Psy
4. D ÷ FL = SCL

**Key:**

D = Drawing  
÷ = analysed through  
GL = General learning theory  
SoC = Socio-constructivist  
B = Behaviourist  
FL = FL teaching approach  
Psy = Psycholinguistic  
SCL = Sociocultural  
Cog = Cognitive approach

A summary interpretive analysis was based on the analysis findings from each of the four individual functional meanings. Table 5.7 shows the summarised formulae findings from pupil two’s perceptions of the lesson content (see Figure 5.8) in Clara’s classroom.
Table 5.7 Summarised formulae findings of pupil two’s perceptions of the lesson content (see Figure 5.8) in Clara’s classroom

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Functional meaning</th>
<th>Summary of the findings</th>
<th>Teaching approach</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ideational</td>
<td>Formula: $D \div GL = B$</td>
<td>Psycholinguual/Behaviourist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Formula: $D \div FL = Psy$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analytical</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Narrative</td>
<td>Formula: $D \div GL = B$</td>
<td>Psycholinguual/Behaviourist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Formula: $D \div FL = Psy$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visual</td>
<td>None</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpersonal</td>
<td>Formula: $D \div GL = B$</td>
<td>Psycholinguual/Behaviourist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Formula: $D \div FL = Psy$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Textual</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpretation of the findings</td>
<td>Active teacher and passive learner in a teacher-led classroom. Drawing is teacher and classroom tool orientated. Relationships to ‘behaviourism’ and a cognitive approach associated with psycholinguistic methods for FL learning and teaching are reflected in this pupil’s drawing</td>
<td>Psycholinguistic behaviourist teaching approach</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The analysis procedure for all of the drawings was identical. A further example from Clara’s classroom (see Figure 5.9) shows almost the identical composition of ideational, interpersonal and textual functions in the drawing. Object exclusion involved the overhead lights and glue but object additions consisted of the CD player, plug, pencils, calendar and desk with chair. The CD player was an important teaching/learning tool used during the observed lessons. The drawing differs in the positioning of the objects, which are all positioned very closely together. The desk and blackboard remain on the same sides of the paper as in Figure 5.8 but the teacher in this drawing stands in front of the blackboard and empty desk and chair. For this pupil the ‘Given’ (knowledge) belongs to the area occupied by the teacher (desk) where knowledge is stored. A salient ideational feature is the oversized desk and largest object in the drawing. The viewer’s attention is drawn first to
the desk and objects placed on it (CD player, pencils and calendar). Narrative meaning is obtained through the horizontal vector arising from the wire and plug of the CD, directing the viewer’s gaze to the blackboard and teacher, both equal in size. The open raised arms of the teacher produce vectors which also direct the viewer’s gaze to the blackboard behind her and also indicate movement together with the open position of the teacher’s legs. Together they form an open cross position in front of the blackboard. Interpretation of this drawing from the narrative vectors involves the high level of teacher control over knowledge which is transferred to the blackboard for instruction and learning. The almost spidery insignificant empty desk behind and below the blackboard represents the pupils who are the recipients of this knowledge.

Overall the drawing has been made in the lower area of the paper and has a grounded effect which can be related to Kress and van Leeuwen’s distinction between the Real and the Ideal. The salient positioning of the teacher’s feet directly on the lowest edge of the paper indicate this pupil’s perceptions of Clara’s conservative (basic down to earth) teaching approach. Similar to the example shown in Figure 5.8, the interpersonal meaning can be read in this drawing through the teacher’s gaze, which demands attention from both the internal and external viewers regarding Clara’s dominance in the classroom and demand for attention. Clara’s smiling face is interpreted as the pupil liking her teacher. All of the drawings from set one of Clara’s classroom revealed similar findings and the Carrier of all of the drawings involved the classroom context.

Figure 5.9 shows the perceptions of the lesson content from pupil ten in Clara’s classroom and Table 5.8 shows the summarised findings of the drawing.
Figure 5.9 Pupil ten’s perceptions of the lesson content in Clara’s classroom
Table 5.8 Summarised visual grammar analysis findings of the drawing from pupil ten (shown in Figure 5.9) in Clara’s classroom

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Functional meaning</th>
<th>Visual grammar analysis</th>
<th>Teaching approach</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Ideational</strong></td>
<td>Teacher, teacher’s desk and blackboard are the three main objects. The desk, pencils, calendar, CD player (with plug) and blackboard are tools for learning which ‘belong’ to the teacher, indicating teacher power over knowledge. The empty desk and chair behind the teacher indicate pupil’s secondary role in the acquisition of knowledge</td>
<td>Teacher-led, importance of tools relates to teaching strategies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Analytical</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Narrative</strong></td>
<td>Opened body position to pupils indicates freedom of teaching control over knowledge. Upward arm vectors indicate movement to the music from the CD player and indicate the ideal, i.e. knowledge acquisition. These are reflected in smiling teacher and are also an indication of pupil liking her teacher</td>
<td>Emphasis on teacher for learning content, teacher gestures = passive learner. Pupil absence from the drawing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Visual</strong></td>
<td>None</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Interpersonal</strong></td>
<td>Teacher gaze directed at class demanding attention from pupils (internal viewers) and real-world viewers (external viewers)</td>
<td>Teacher-led, teacher control over knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Textual</strong></td>
<td>Items are size-related, of equal importance to all objects. Teacher yellow top – a happy colour. Empty pupil desk and chair are size-related. Salient features of the chair are the thick coloured chair legs indicating pupil’s non-active static position (seated) during the lesson. Salient position of the teacher’s feet drawn directly on the lower edge of the paper indicates conservative (basic) teaching approach</td>
<td>Teacher and teaching tools important</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Clarification</strong></td>
<td>Teacher dancing to the CD in front of the blackboard</td>
<td>Teacher-led classroom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Interpretation of the findings</strong></td>
<td>Active teacher and passive learner of a teacher-led classroom. Drawing is teacher and classroom tool orientated. Associations to behaviourism and a psycholinguistic approach to teaching</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The summarised formulae findings in Table 5.9 of pupil ten’s perceptions of the lesson content from Table 5.8 and Figure 5.9 are identical to those of pupil two (Table 5.7 and Figure 5.8).

**Table 5.9** Summarised formulae findings of pupil ten’s perceptions of the lesson content (see Figure 5.9) in Clara’s classroom

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Functional meaning</th>
<th>Summary of the findings</th>
<th>Teaching approach</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **Ideational**     | Formula: $D \div GL = B$  
Formula: $D \div FL = Psy$ | Psycholinguistic/Behaviourist |
| **Analytical**     |                         |                   |
| **Narrative**      | Formula: $D \div GL = B$  
Formula: $D \div FL = Psy$ | Psycholinguistic/Behaviourist |
| **Visual**         | None                    | Lack of motivation? |
| **Interpersonal**  | Formula: $D \div GL = B$  
Formula: $D \div FL = Psy$ | Psycholinguistic/Behaviourist |
| **Textual**        | Formula: $D \div GL = B$  
Formula: $D \div FL = Psy$ | Psycholinguistic/Behaviourist |
| **Interpretation of the findings** | Active teacher and passive learner in a teacher-led classroom. Drawing is teacher and classroom tool orientated. Relationships to ‘behaviourism’ and a cognitive approach associated with psycholinguistic methods for FL learning and teaching are reflected in this pupil’s drawing | Psycholinguistic behaviourist teaching approach |

The drawings from set one in Helen’s classroom underwent the same analysis procedure as those in Clara’s classroom. A contrast in the findings was revealed. The Carrier of all drawings except one from drawing set one in Helen’s classroom was the learning content of the lesson – the vocabulary of items of clothing. Additional textual features were also observed in the drawings of Helen’s classroom and consisted of multimodal representations, i.e. text and drawings in six of the ten drawings. These additional components provided evidence of pupils’ developing perceptions and cognitive use of cultural conventions for writing from left to right and also for writing lists from top to bottom. However, writing is not a feature of English learning at this stage of schooling and the absence of writing as a learning component at S1 is mentioned in the MoE document.
(2005; see also Section 1.4, p. 9). Writing was also not observed in any of the lessons. The ideational objects and analytical structures depicted in all of the pupil drawings from Helen’s classroom were identical. They consisted of colourful pictures of the words learnt in the lesson and reflect the findings of the teacher interviews and classroom observations. A typical example of a drawing from Helen’s pupils is shown in Figure 5.10. Table 5.10 shows the summarised visual grammar analysis of the drawing shown in Figure 5.10.

**Figure 5.10** Pupil three’s perceptions of the lesson content in Helen’s classroom
Table 5.10 Summarised visual grammar analysis findings of the drawing from pupil three (shown in Figure 5.10) in Helen’s classroom

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Functional meaning</th>
<th>Visual grammar analysis</th>
<th>Teaching approach</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Ideational</strong></td>
<td>Small individual drawings of the vocabulary learnt during the lesson. Salient features include pupil attention to details of specific items, e.g. flowers on the socks are associated with pupil perceptions of novelty words, i.e. smelly socks</td>
<td>Cognitive teaching approach. Display of learner knowledge is made through the portrayed images. Knowledge belongs to the pupil. Active pupil in the process for learning. Teacher absence indicates her secondary role for learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Analytical</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Narrative</strong></td>
<td>None</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Visual</strong></td>
<td>Written text displaying pupil developing interest and knowledge of English. Novelty item: the ‘whoully’ hat</td>
<td>Display of pupil knowledge and process of learning taking place, i.e. associations between pictures and words. Active pupil in the process for learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Interpersonal</strong></td>
<td>None</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Textual</strong></td>
<td>Appropriate use of colours, sizing of objects and between objects is observed</td>
<td>Development of cognition and logic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Clarification</strong></td>
<td>Words explains that the drawing shows the words learnt in the lesson and pictures to go with them</td>
<td>Knowledge belongs to the child</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Interpretation of the findings</strong></td>
<td>Content of learning undertaken during the lesson is displayed, suggesting a cognitive approach. The absence of all classroom components and participants indicate the pupils developing construction of own knowledge, which reflects socio-constructivist theory and sociocultural theory of learning, placing the active learner as the focus of attention during the learning process. Teaching methodology and strategies remain secondary to the pupils’ perceptions during learning. Novelty item perceptions for learning.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 5.11 Summarised formulae findings of pupil three’s perceptions of the lesson content (see Figure 5.10) in Helen’s classroom

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Functional meaning</th>
<th>Summary of the findings</th>
<th>Teaching approach</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ideational</td>
<td>Formula: $D \div GL = SoC$</td>
<td>Socio-constructivist/cognitive approach = sociocultural</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analytical</td>
<td>Formula: $D \div FL = Cog$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Narrative</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visual</td>
<td>Formula: $D \div GL = SoC$</td>
<td>Socio-constructivist/cognitive approach = sociocultural</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Formula: $D \div FL = Cog$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpersonal</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Textual</td>
<td>Formula: $D \div GL = SoC$</td>
<td>Socio-constructivist/cognitive approach = Sociocultural</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Formula: $D \div FL = Cog$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpretation of the findings</td>
<td>Active learner for the acquisition of knowledge. Drawing is learning content orientated. Links to social-constructivist theory, which places the pupil at the centre of the learning process to build and construct knowledge upon previous knowledge, can be observed in the drawing through associations to novelty words and text. A cognitive approach for FL learning and teaching are reflected in this pupil’s drawing, which in combination with socio-constructivist general learning theory indicates a sociocultural cognitive approach to teaching/learning</td>
<td>Socio-constructivist/socio-cultural cognitive teaching approach. The absence of all teaching/learning participants in the drawing indicates the emphasis placed upon showing the pupils developing knowledge of English. Therefore, the pupil is not absent but is represented by the images of the learnt English words and text in the drawing which belong to the pupil. The teacher takes a secondary supportive role</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The findings of pupil perceptions concerning lesson content in Clara’s classroom were all teacher methodology and strategy orientated. In contrast, the findings for Helen’s classroom, except for one drawing, were all learning content orientated, consisting of the items of clothing learnt during the lesson. All of Clara’s pupils’ drawings involved the use of English learning tools. The blackboard was the largest item in three out of ten drawings. Seven of the ten drawings depicted the blackboard and teacher as the largest components, and overall the teacher was depicted nine times, in five of which she was the largest component. The teacher was always depicted smiling, indicating that pupils have a positive impression of their teacher or ‘like’ her. Seven of the drawings depicted Clara standing at
the front of the classroom, three times in the centre in front of the blackboard, twice to one
side of the blackboard, and twice seated at her desk holding either a pen or flashcards, with
the CD player on her desk. Three pupils drew themselves: two portraying themselves alone
in the centre; and the third depicting the pupil himself seated at his desk, gazing towards
the blackboard. Two further drawings were colourless pencil drawings. The first depicted
the classroom with pupils standing beside their desks, singing, arms raised, gaze directed
towards the teacher’s desk and CD player. The second contained only the blackboard.
The overall and main comparative findings between the two case study classrooms
involved the teaching approaches undertaken during the lessons. A CLT and cognitive
approach to language learning set in the framework of the socio-constructivist theory of
general learning was identified in Helen’s classroom. In contrast, a cognitive approach to
language learning set in the framework of the behaviourist theory of general learning was
identified in Clara’s classroom. Both of the findings reflect the classroom observations and
the CST interview findings. The teaching approach in Helen’s classroom reflects the MoE
policy (2005) concerning the teaching approach suggested for use during the lessons.
Reflections of the policy concerning integration into subject content were not visible in any
of the drawings from either Clara’s or Helen’s classroom.

Figure 5.11 displays the findings from drawing set one comparing the relevant drawing
components from each case study classroom. Pupils’ drawings revealed the extent to which
Clara’s pupils primarily focus on the teaching process and Helen’s on the learning
outcomes. Therefore, the use of pupils’ drawings to investigate young learners’
perceptions, which may not have been revealed through other methods of data collection,
for example interviews, is justified and highly relevant in this research context.
Figure 5.11 Drawing components of the first drawing from the two case study classrooms concerned with pupils’ perceptions of the lesson content

5.5.2 Drawing two (perceptions of English)

For the second drawing, pupils’ were asked to reflect on the integration of English. This helps to provide feedback on teaching aims and education policy. The findings showed that most of the pupils enjoyed English in Clara’s classroom. Twelve drawings were colourful with smiling faces, ten of which depicted school contexts, for example the classroom, school building and teacher seated at her desk. Four drawings showed teacher-led classrooms. Two grey pencil drawings were made: one showed the classroom with non-smiling pupil faces, the second the English school book.

The analysis procedure was identical to those used for drawing set one with additional analysis against the backcloth of MoE educational aims (2005; see also Section 1.4, p. 9) involving the development of pupil motivation, enjoyment and interest in English, and teaching aims (Figure 5.4 and Table 5.5).

Figure 5.12 displays a pupil’s drawing from Clara’s classroom and Table 5.12 shows the analysis findings of the drawing in Figure 5.12.
Figure 5.12 Pupil eleven’s perceptions of English in Clara’s classroom
Table 5.12 Summarised visual grammar analysis findings of the drawing from pupil 11 (shown in Figure 5.12) in Clara’s classroom

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Functional meaning</th>
<th>Visual grammar analysis</th>
<th>Pupil perceptions of English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Ideational</strong></td>
<td>Teacher standing at the blackboard and pupil seated at his desk are the main items in the drawing. Specific details consist of the teacher holding the ruler and the flashcards on the blackboard. Salient features are the pupil’s big ears.</td>
<td>School context</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Analytical</strong></td>
<td>Visual vectors involve the teacher’s open arms held high, indicating movement directing pupil attention to the learning contents on the blackboard by the ruler held in her hand directed upwards to the Ideal (learning).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Narrative</strong></td>
<td>Visual vectors involve the teacher’s open arms held high, indicating movement directing pupil attention to the learning contents on the blackboard by the ruler held in her hand directed upwards to the Ideal (learning).</td>
<td>School context</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Visual</strong></td>
<td>None</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Interpersonal</strong></td>
<td>Teacher gaze directed at class demanding attention. Pupil gaze directed at teacher and blackboard.</td>
<td>Teacher-led approach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Textual</strong></td>
<td>Appropriate use of colours, sizing of objects and between objects is observed. Salient: the pupil’s big ears are oversized, indicating the necessity for listening for learning. A colourful picture. Pupil positioned left of drawing the ‘Given’ (the known/own known knowledge) to teacher and blackboard right of drawing ‘New’ (new knowledge of the unknown/English).</td>
<td>Pupil secondary role in learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Clarification</strong></td>
<td>Pupil describes that the big ears are for listening to the teacher in the lesson (Pupil does not have big ears).</td>
<td>School context</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Interpretation of the findings</strong></td>
<td>Active teacher and passive learner of a teacher-led classroom. Links to a cognitive approach and behaviourist methods of learning are reflected in this pupil’s drawing.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The drawing represents how the pupil positions himself in relation to the teacher and the social context. Research by Kendrick and McKay (2004), investigating young learners’ constructions of literacy, describe how children’s experiences of diverse social contexts combined with language learning and through using the learnt language influence the construction of their own identities: ‘by engaging in the practices specific to (these) contexts they come to understand how to position themselves as people with recognizable identities (pp. 124–5).

Findings showed that most of Clara’s pupils regard English as a school subject and feature of the school classroom. Nonetheless, pupils developing knowledge of English as a language for communication outside the context of school were identified in two of the drawings. The first showed a pupil at home playing a board game with family members, and the second a pupil standing outside a hotel on holiday (Figure 5.13 and Table 5.13). Pupils developing awareness of other cultures were also identified in two further drawings, one of which portrayed the pupil jumping into the sea and the English flag, while the second showed a pupil drawing the English flag at home (Figure 5.14 and Table 5.14).

Most of the pupils’ drawings from Clara’s classroom consisted of the teacher and blackboard, which is associated with a teacher-led classroom: this finding replicated the analysis findings of the classroom observations; there was low or no peer interaction or pupil movement during the lessons – pupils mainly remained seated at their desks during the oral–aural learning of words from the set English book and when using the supplied tools. Findings from Clara’s pupils reflect the interview and classroom observation findings concerned with the teaching methodology, strategies and Clara’s claim that ‘English is English I follow the book’ (Extract 5.6). Links between teacher aims and MoE policy (2005) regarding pupil enjoyment and motivation have therefore been identified (Table 5.2 and Table 5.5).
Figure 5.13 Pupil seven’s perceptions of English in Clara’s classroom
**Table 5.13** Summarised visual grammar analysis findings of the drawing from pupil seven (shown in Figure 5.13) in Clara’s classroom

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Functional meaning</th>
<th>Visual grammar analysis</th>
<th>Pupil perceptions of English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Ideational</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Analytical</strong></td>
<td>Pupil standing outside hotel. Salient feature of the drawing is the dominant dark door</td>
<td>Non-school context: holiday</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Narrative</strong></td>
<td>Visual vectors involve the pupil’s open arms directed downwards towards the Real</td>
<td>Knowledge of English as a communication tool</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Visual</strong></td>
<td>None</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Interpersonal</strong></td>
<td>Pupil gaze directed at external viewers demanding attention</td>
<td>Communication with unknown others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Textual</strong></td>
<td>Appropriate use of colours, sizing of objects and between objects is observed. Salient: the dark dominant hotel door centre and focus of the drawing. Pupil positioned left of drawing the ‘Given’ (the known) to hotel centre (focus of attention/importance) and right of drawing ‘New’ (new knowledge of the unknown/guests, holidaymakers)</td>
<td>Hotel door is the entrance to new people/cultures and languages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Clarification</strong></td>
<td>Pupil describes holiday. Pupil is standing outside the hotel. Her mother spoke English in the hotel to other guests and people working there</td>
<td>Pupil developing knowledge of use for English and communication with others from different cultures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Interpretation of the findings</strong></td>
<td>Pupil developing cognition of English as a cultural communication tool outside the classroom. Association to MoE policy (2005) involving development of pupil interest and awareness of other cultures and languages</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 5.14 Pupil five’s perceptions of English in Clara’s classroom
Table 5.14 Summarised visual grammar analysis findings of the drawing from pupil five (shown in Figure 5.14) in Clara’s classroom

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Functional meaning</th>
<th>Visual grammar analysis</th>
<th>Pupil perceptions of English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ideational</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analytical</td>
<td>English flags, table, chair and pupil. Salient: large English flag and thought bubbles</td>
<td>Non-school context: home</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Narrative</td>
<td>Visual vectors involve the pupil’s open body position. Arms directed upwards towards the Ideal</td>
<td>Knowledge of English flag</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visual</td>
<td>Text: Kat in left thought bubble. Ich ha in right thought bubble</td>
<td>Developing interest in English is shown in the attempt to write cat in left thought bubble ‘Given’. In the right thought bubble Ich ha was the beginning of Ich habe (taken from clarification). The text shows pupil developing cognitive reflection and interest of English as acquired knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpersonal</td>
<td>Pupil gaze directed at external viewers demanding attention (admiration of pupil’s knowledge and achievement of English flag)</td>
<td>Communication with unknown others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Textual</td>
<td>Appropriate size between objects is not observed. Large English flag on left of drawing is main focus of attention. It draws attention to pupil’s knowledge of the English flag (Given). Small pupil positioned to right of drawing is not size appropriate to the other objects in the drawing. Indicates English knowledge as the main focus and more important than the pupil who is a secondary component of the drawing. (Reflections of teaching approach shown in the drawings of set one are revealed here.) The pupil and table positioned on the right of the drawing are where new knowledge is attained. The large table and large drawn flag on the table reflect Clara’s pupil’s drawing from set one, where the blackboard is also shown to the right or central right of the drawings. Overall the drawing has been made in the upper two-thirds of the paper towards the Ideal, indicating the teaching/learning aim - development of English knowledge</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clarification</td>
<td>Pupil describes drawing at home and knowledge of the English flag</td>
<td>Pupil is developing knowledge and interest in other cultures (England) and languages outside of the school context</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpretation of the findings</td>
<td>Pupil interest and knowledge of other cultures is developing. Awareness that English is not confined to the school context as a learning subject is shown in the clarification (external context: home) and drawing.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In contrast, all of Helen’s pupils drew colourful smiling action drawings of themselves involving dancing and/or singing. Only one drawing depicted the classroom and consisted of the pupil doing Maths and singing with a peer at a brightly coloured desk, while two further drawings showed the pupils and the school building. Over half of the drawings contained written text in the form of speech bubbles, indicating pupils developing verbal and written skills. Gaze was always observer-directed in the drawings, apart from the Maths drawing involving peer interaction. It was also the only drawing where classroom tools were depicted. None of the drawings contained Helen. The conclusion can be drawn that English knowledge and skills are owned by the pupils rather than the teacher in Helen’s classroom. Furthermore, although most of the drawings showed pupils’ experience of English use on stage at school during a theatre project, pupils developing cognition of English use is not confined to the classroom and teacher control of learning. Figure 5.15 displays a pupil drawing from Helen’s classroom and Table 5.15 shows the analysis findings of the drawing in Figure 5.15.

**Figure 5.15** Pupil ten’s perceptions of English in Helen’s classroom
Table 5.15 Summarised visual grammar analysis findings of the drawing from pupil ten (shown in Figure 5.15) in Helen’s classroom

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Functional meaning</th>
<th>Visual grammar analysis</th>
<th>Pupil perceptions of English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ideational</td>
<td>Main object is the pupil. Details are the stage, bouquets of flowers and ribbons raining down onto the pupil. Salient feature is the large speech bubble consisting of text and two small rabbits Stage indicates pupil’s perception of English as special and reflects the English school project. Raining flowers and ribbons indicate success and self-esteem</td>
<td>School projects: specialised subject area.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analytical</td>
<td>Visual vectors: pupil’s arms open to audience indicate freedom and control. Arms directed downwards indicate the ‘Real’. Authentic experience of English as a special learning component of the classroom. Waivered coloured ribbons indicate movement downward onto the pupil (raining success). All of the bouquet’s flower heads are directed towards the pupil, influencing viewer’s gaze direction to the pupil (centre position and focus of drawing).</td>
<td>Pupil gaze demands attention from viewers (internal and external). The ribbon and flower vectors increase influence of viewer’s gaze direction to the pupil. Pupil believes her own English skills to be admirable. The pupil is confident and has high self-esteem of her English skills and knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Narrative</td>
<td>Speech bubble reciting poem indicates pupil’s high self-confidence of her English-speaking skills and knowledge. Written English reflects teacher German pronunciation, e.g. rebits (A in German pronounced E). Jill written Jirl. Transparency and reflection of teacher pronunciation. Pupil developing written skills</td>
<td>Developing interest in English is shown in the attempt to write the poem in English in the left thought bubble ‘Given’ (known knowledge)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visual</td>
<td>Pupil gaze directed at external viewers demanding attention (admiration of pupil’s knowledge and achievement of English performed on stage)</td>
<td>Pupil gaze demands attention from viewers (internal and external)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpersonal</td>
<td>All items are size-related. Very colourful picture indicates happiness. The position of the pupil in the centre of the drawing places the focus of attention on her</td>
<td>Enjoys English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Textual</td>
<td>The pupil describes herself on stage during an English project performance. She likes English; it is ‘different’ and ‘special’</td>
<td>Enjoys English; it is different and special in comparison to other subjects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clarification</td>
<td>Active learner placed at the centre of the learning process (centre stage) in the acquisition of knowledge, which reflects sociocultural theory of learning and a CLT approach. Pupil interest and knowledge of other cultures is developing.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The findings of drawing set two in Helen’s classroom reflect the interview and classroom observation findings concerning pupil and teacher enjoyment, motivation and use of themes, songs, dances, high interaction and movement during the lessons: a further instance of cross-method confirmation. Findings in respect of associations between pupils’ perceptions of English and education policy regarding English for communication and awareness of other cultures showed some developing awareness of English as a tool for communication outside the school context. However, most of the pupils regard English as a special school subject related to projects and presentations.

The profiles of the case study classrooms differed greatly. The categories ‘enjoyment’ and ‘colourful’ were the highest identified features of the second drawing from both classrooms. The colourful category reflected enjoyment of English. All 10 of Helen’s pupils’ and 12 out of 14 of Clara’s pupils’ second drawings contained these features.

Figure 5.16 and Table 5.16 display the overall comparative findings from the total number of relevant drawing components of the pupils’ second drawings from the two case study classrooms. The percentages have been rounded up to the next whole decimal.
Figure 5.16 Drawing components of the second drawing from the two case study classrooms concerned with pupils’ perceptions of English.
Table 5.16 Drawing components of the second drawing from the two case study classrooms concerned with pupils’ perceptions of English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Clara’s pupils</th>
<th>Helen’s pupils</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher &amp; pupil</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Home</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Holiday</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pupil only</td>
<td>21% 90%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher &amp; tools</td>
<td>29%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher gaze</td>
<td>29%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pupil gaze</td>
<td>21% 90%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blackboard</td>
<td>21%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enjoyment</td>
<td>86% 100%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher-led</td>
<td>29%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colourful</td>
<td>86% 100%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pencil</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English book</td>
<td>14% 20%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School</td>
<td>14% 20%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Researcher</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sing &amp; dance</td>
<td>70%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maths book</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speech bubbles</td>
<td>60%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thought bubbles</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.17 displays the overall case study findings from the teacher interview, classroom observations and pupils’ drawings in Clara’s classroom. Table 5.18 shows the overall case study findings from the teacher interview, classroom observations and pupils’ drawings in Helen’s classroom.
Table 5.17: Overall case study findings from the teacher interview, classroom observations and pupils’ drawings in Clara’s classroom

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CST: Clara</th>
<th>Pupils’ drawings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No integration</td>
<td>Set book</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Predominantly cognitive approach, reflecting behaviourist methods</td>
<td>Teacher-led</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tools: English book and resources, IRF</td>
<td>Low classroom interaction and important use of tools</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Replacement of syllabus time for English learning</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher-led classroom</td>
<td>Passive learners</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School context</td>
<td>School context</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English: low priority</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low teacher movement</td>
<td>Low pupil movement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low teacher enjoyment</td>
<td>Pupil enjoyment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No association to MoE policy (2005) regarding integration into subject content or teaching approach</td>
<td>Classic English lesson</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Association to MoE policy (2005) regarding pupil enjoyment and interest</td>
<td>Colourful pictures</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 5.18 Overall case study findings from the teacher interview, classroom observations and pupils’ drawings in Helen’s classroom

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CST: Helen</th>
<th>Pupils’ drawings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Partial integration</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Partial replacement of syllabus time for English learning</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLT and cognitive approach (Mixed)</td>
<td>High levels of classroom interaction and relaxed classroom atmosphere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tools: English book and resources, IRF</td>
<td>Singing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher tools</td>
<td>Dancing, singing, chanting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Themes</td>
<td>Lesson content (Maths)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Projects</td>
<td>Stage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English high priority</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High teacher movement</td>
<td>High pupil movement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High teacher enjoyment</td>
<td>High pupil enjoyment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some association to MoE policy (2005) regarding integration into subject content and teaching approach</td>
<td>Maths lesson</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Association to MoE policy (2005) regarding pupil enjoyment, motivation and interest</td>
<td>Colourful pictures, active pupils</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Associations between all the findings from Clara’s classroom reflect a predominantly cognitive approach to teaching and language learning. The teacher’s approach did not reflect MoE policy (2005) regarding English integration into subject content and replaced syllabus time of subjects for English learning.

Reflection of socio-constructivist theory and sociocultural theory were identified in all of the findings from Helen’s classroom. Although Helen believes that she is integrating English into the subject content, she uses the same tools, lesson content and materials as
Clara but in a different style. Helen also uses English as a classroom language for communication during teaching and learning.

The overall findings from the two case study classrooms reveal that, despite significant differences in teaching style and both teachers’ belief that they are following official government policy in integrating English into their subject classes, neither in fact fully reflects official policy. Pupils’ perceptions of English are influenced by the teaching approaches and strategies used in the classroom by their teachers. These are discussed in Chapter Six. The next section presents the findings of the teacher questionnaire.

5.6. Teacher questionnaire (sub-questions 1–4 and 6)

Findings from Section A of the teacher questionnaire (Appendix D) involved teaching methodology (sub-question 2) and English integration (sub-question 1) (see Figure 5.17). English was integrated into subject teaching by 25 teachers from a total of 32, including seven teacher interview participants out of a total of 10 teachers interviewed (8 additional teachers and 2 CSTs). Music and GK were the most often chosen subjects for English integration. Three teachers do not have any choice over the teaching materials to be used during the lessons, but are ‘encouraged’ to use the school English book.

Contradictions between the data findings involving the degree of integration will be influenced by teachers' beliefs. For example the analysis of the interview findings revealed diverse levels of integration from seven teachers, yet the questionnaire findings showed all but one of the interviewed teachers (CST Clara) believed that integration is achieved. However, the degree of integration cannot be assessed from the questionnaire on its own. The observations enabled intensive and deeper data collection of actual classroom practice.
Findings from Section B of the teacher questionnaire involved aspects of time (sub-questions 1 and 3), as shown in Figure 5.18. Twelve teachers taught English integrated into subject content twice weekly for 30 minutes. Also, all of the teachers who do not integrate English into subject content used time allocated for other subjects to teach English twice weekly for 30 minutes. The remaining 11 teacher responses were coded ‘varied’ as combinations of integration and non-integration were identified in the analysis of the response findings. Nine of the teachers reported fixed times for the lessons. This links with the teacher interview findings concerning the ‘fitting in between lessons’ and spontaneous integration during lessons with additional blocks of English.

Twenty-one teachers preferred additional lesson time for English, a result which confirms the findings of the teacher interviews. Eighteen teachers also claimed that no extra preparation time was required for the lessons and this again reflects teacher interviews.
Figure 5.18 Teacher questionnaire Section B: Classroom time

Findings from Section C of the teacher questionnaire involved teacher knowledge of FL/L2 language teaching/learning approaches (sub-question 6). Twenty-nine teachers had knowledge of at least one FL/L2 language learning approach, which was bilingual instruction. Only five teachers had knowledge of both CLIL and immersion and these two were the least known language learning approaches. Surprisingly, only six teachers had explicit knowledge of CBI and TBI. Yet TBI was identified in the teacher interview findings as the most commonly used method of instruction during the lessons. It is also one of the methods of instruction suggested for teaching in the MoE guidelines (2005).

Explanation for differences between the data findings of the questionnaire and interviews may involve teachers' lacking knowledge of the academic terminology although the detailed description of their teaching practice in the interviews was presented as TBI and/or CBI. Furthermore, observation of the actual teaching taking place showed contradictions with beliefs as in the case of Helen who expressed the belief that she integrated English into lessons both in the interview (see Table 5.2) and in the questionnaire (Table 4.5). However, observation of her teaching practice only partially confirmed this - integration involved the replacing of subject time for English learning.

Seven teachers use only English for teaching during the lessons and 29 teachers enjoy teaching English.
Eleven teachers have additional English qualifications. A pattern between integration from Section A and knowledge of FL/L2 language theories in Section C was not found.

However, a pattern linking integration and additional English qualifications was identified. Four of the 11 teachers with additional English qualifications (Table 4.5) are also four of the eight teachers who adopt a classical approach to English lessons in their classrooms. Comparisons between the questionnaire and other findings are discussed in detail in the next chapter.

Figure 5.19 displays the findings of Section C and D from the questionnaire involving teachers’ knowledge of FL/L2 theories and approaches and additional English teaching qualifications.

**Figure 5.19** Teacher questionnaire Section C and D: *Teacher knowledge of FL/L2 learning theories and approaches and additional English teaching qualifications*

Figure 5.20 displays the findings of Section C and D involving teacher enjoyment, additional L2 teaching qualifications and the primary use of English during the lessons.
Section D involved language content features perceived as important by the teacher during the lessons. Nine options were available. Twenty-four teachers considered enjoyment as the most important, which echoes the findings of the teacher interviews concerning their teaching goals, while 27 teachers considered grammar and the learning of subject content through English as the least important feature of the lessons. Although the classroom observations and teacher interviews revealed that vocabulary was the most important feature of language content in the lessons, the questionnaire did not reflect these findings. Ten teachers rated vocabulary as the seventh most important feature of the lessons. This could be explained by the fact that the questionnaire suggested responses which the teachers might not have reflected upon during the interview. In the interview, suggestions from the researcher are not made. Furthermore, the type of responses possible in the questionnaire consists of teaching/learning aims, teaching strategies and teaching approaches, together with language learning components. Nonetheless, the findings show that teaching methods and strategies have priority over pupil English competence and knowledge (vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation), and pupil enjoyment during English learning is the main aim. How far pupil enjoyment is related and influenced by the type of teaching/learning approach used in the classroom will be discussed in Chapter Six.
Table 5.19 displays teachers’ views of the learning components in order of importance.

Table 5.19 Teacher questionnaire Section D: Teacher perceptions of English learning

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English lesson contents</th>
<th>Enjoyment</th>
<th>Movement</th>
<th>Peer interaction</th>
<th>English comprehension</th>
<th>Repetition</th>
<th>Pronunciation</th>
<th>Vocabulary</th>
<th>Grammar</th>
<th>CLIL-type</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Level of importance</td>
<td>1st</td>
<td>2nd</td>
<td>3rd</td>
<td>3rd</td>
<td>5th</td>
<td>6th</td>
<td>7th</td>
<td>8th</td>
<td>8th</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The next section looks at contextual factors involving school policy.

5.7 School policy

Findings from both the CST interviews and classroom observations were reflected in nearly all of the corresponding case study school director interviews. Doris, Clara’s school director, considered English not to be a main learning priority for pupils at this school level (Appendix G: Extract 5.19). Similar findings were found in Clara’s response to English learning at this stage (Appendix G: Extract 5.20). However, Doris believed that extra curriculum time would be beneficial for the implementation of classic English language learning, in contrast to Helen and Clara who both considered that no extra time is required (Appendix G: Extracts 5.21, 5.22, and 5.23). A different view on school policies was shared by case study school director Flora and the CST in her school, Helen. Both Flora and Helen believed English integration to be important (Appendix G: Extracts 5.24 and 5.25).

Both school directors, unlike their teachers, would like additional time for English, although their reasons differed. Doris indicates in the interview that during the week English is sometimes not being integrated into the curriculum let alone into the subject. Flora laments the lack of time for English, indicating that subject content is not learnt
through English, rather it is being replaced by English (Appendix G: Extracts 5.21 and 5.26). Both directors also shared the positive views evidenced in the interviews and observations of their teachers that pupil enjoyment and the learning of vocabulary and simple phrases were important at S1.

During the interviews, both Doris and Flora were asked if they were familiar with the term CLIL. Doris said that she was not, so the concept of a CLIL-type approach was explained and defined for her. Doris repeated that she was not aware of it. Flora, on the other hand, had, but believed that it would involve too much preparation time for teachers and would be to the detriment of the less talented pupils (Appendix G: Extracts 5.27 and 5.28).

Contrasting findings concerned with influential factors upon school policy were found between the school directors. Doris believes that parents value assessed subjects, for example Maths and German, more highly than English, which is not assessed. Therefore teachers are placed in a conflicting position where their wish to fulfil MoE policy (2005) is undermined by parental pressure. In contrast, Flora believes that parents want their children to learn English (Appendix G: Extracts 5.29 and 5.30).

The tools used in the classroom were identical in both schools, with the addition of teachers’ own materials in Flora’s school. Teachers’ skills were considered sufficient by both directors. Doris believed that the tools used are sufficient and easy to follow, so that teacher skills and knowledge are not a problem (Appendix G: Extracts 5.31 and 5.32). Teachers’ own choice and decision to participate in English courses for professional development which are available at teaching universities, are respected in both schools.

Table 5.20 displays the findings from the case study directors’ and teachers’ interviews and observations. Comparisons between the findings and their influence upon classroom practice and reflections of MoE policy (2005) will be discussed in detail in the next chapter.
### Table 5.20 Comparisons between case study school 1 and case study school 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Case study school 1</th>
<th>Case study school 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>School and teacher policy: English</strong></td>
<td>Doris: Case study director 1 Less priority</td>
<td>Clara: CST 1 Less important</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Teaching aims</strong></td>
<td>Enjoyment, words and phrases</td>
<td>Enjoyment, words and phrases</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Integration</strong></td>
<td>Difficult</td>
<td>Classic lesson</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Teaching tools</strong></td>
<td>School tools</td>
<td>School tools</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Time factors</strong></td>
<td>Extra time preferred</td>
<td>No extra time preferred</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Knowledge of CLIL-type approach</strong></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>English course/seminar participation</strong></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>** Extras**</td>
<td>Monthly project</td>
<td>Monthly project</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We now turn to contextual factors involving teaching university policy.

#### 5.8 Teaching university policy (PH)

The policy of the teaching university and teaching practices revealed influence upon the teaching taking place in the schools.

##### 5.8.1 Interviews with academics

Interviews with the two teaching university teachers/academics showed that they believed that students’ (i.e. future teachers’) English skills were often insufficient both at teaching university entrance level and on graduation. Although most students had English in their *Matura* (A-level standard), their grammar skills and speaking skills were low (Appendix G: Extracts 5.33 and 5.34). The PH teacher *Pauline* had implemented grammar tests during
the teacher training period in the first term. However, most students failed. *Rita*, the second teacher, did not implement tests (Appendix G: Extracts 5.35 and 5.36).

Both teachers’ (academics’) aims were (as is also the teaching university policy) to teach students how to teach and also supply them with materials, especially songs, rhymes and knowledge of other English material resource locations. *Rita* also specified teacher enjoyment as a major aim and priority to motivate young student teachers to integrate English into the classroom during lessons throughout the day rather than in separate blocks (Appendix G: Extract 5.37 and 5.38). Teaching competence concerning pedagogical and practical skills involving how to use teaching materials and tools were the policy aims of the teaching university (Appendix G: Extracts 5.39 and 5.40).

Contrasts between the teaching methods and strategies advocated by the teachers/academics were also identified. *Pauline* employed a CLIL-type approach to teaching of which she had two years’ experience as a primary school teacher. In contrast, *Rita* used mainly German in the lessons. *Rita* perceived a CLIL-type approach as a good method at primary school, but she believed that teachers’ English skills needed to be higher and that the quantity of English instruction at university was insufficient. Both academics felt that their own English verbal skills were high, although *Rita* believed her verbal skills were lower than her practical skills. Table 5.21 displays the overall findings from the PH teachers’/academics’ interviews.
Table 5.21 Teaching university teachers’/academics’ views

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Feature</th>
<th>Pauline</th>
<th>Rita</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teaching aims</td>
<td>Knowledge and use of English resources</td>
<td>Teaching enjoyment, integration into curriculum content, and knowledge and use of English resources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tools in use</td>
<td>Songs, books, handicrafts (toys, tasks and regalia)</td>
<td>Songs, books, handicrafts (toys, tasks and regalia)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student evaluation</td>
<td>Grammar tests</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Test</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English verbal skills</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Lower</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching approach</td>
<td>CLIL-type</td>
<td>Practical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language use</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>German</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceptions: students’ English skills</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The PH timetable for the training of primary school teachers provided further insights into the teaching practices during S1 English integration and provision of the training offered.

5.8.2 Timetable

The timetable (Table 5.22) indicates how many hours of English instruction students received at the time of this study.

Table 5.22 Teaching university student teacher timetable for primary school: English (2013)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Type of instruction</th>
<th>Time</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Language theory and teaching methods</td>
<td>1 hour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Language use</td>
<td>1 hour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Practical skills (tools and resources)</td>
<td>1 hour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>No compulsory English</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>No compulsory English</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Source: Local teacher training university, 2013)

We now turn to Section 5.8.3, which focuses on the findings from the teacher training university deputy director’s interview.
5.8.3 Interview with the deputy director (sub-questions 6 and 7)

Debi, the teacher training university deputy director was responsible for the timetable, but not for subject content. She did not consider that knowledge of education policy with regard to English was her responsibility (Appendix G: Extract 5.41). PH policy was concerned with training future primary school teachers to become competent at teaching all subjects (generalist teachers) and using the relevant teaching materials. Time factors involving English were believed to be similar to other subject time factors (Appendix G: Extract 5.42). Debi stated that graduating teachers are not tested on their own English language skills and teaching involves pupils learning a large vocabulary but without a language teaching concept in primary schools (Appendix G: Extracts 5.43 and 5.44).

5.9 Summary of the findings

The overall findings of this study indicate that nearly all of the teachers/academics interviewed believe that English integration into curriculum subjects is taking place. Pupils’ perceptions do not reflect those beliefs. Education policy with regard to English integration varies at three distinct levels:

2. Local regional policy: teacher training
3. School policy.

Teacher classroom practice is influenced by all of these levels, as displayed in Figure 5.21, which summarises the factors influencing teacher classroom practice during English integration into the syllabus at S1 in Austrian primary schools.
Key:

Lines = associated

Single-headed arrows = influential factors

Double-headed arrows = symmetrical

Figure 5.21 Factors influencing primary school English classes

Chapter Six discusses the findings in detail and in relation to the literature review.
6 Chapter Six: Discussion of the findings

6.1 Introduction

After analysing all the data this chapter will bring together the main findings and will start to discuss their implications for research and pedagogy. In particular, the chapter will look at:

- the findings relating to the sub-questions and dimensions of the main research question
- how the findings relate to what has been identified in previous studies
- how the findings relate to what has been identified in official documents.

Section 6.2 discusses the findings of sub-question 1.

6.2 Sub-question 1: Where is English integrated into the curriculum?

English integration into subject content is believed by the majority of research participants to be in force in the classroom. Nevertheless, these beliefs are not reflected in the findings. Observation of when English is integrated, for example ‘fitting in and between lessons or as a relaxation tool’ (Extract 4.1) or ‘at the end of lessons’ (Extracts 5.1 and 5.4 and Appendix G: Extract 5.23), indicates that although the majority of interviewed teachers believe English to be important (Table 5.1 and Figure 5.1), the detailed responses contradicted their stated beliefs. These were reflected in the teachers’ opinions that ‘pupil enjoyment’ of the lessons is the main aim (Tables 5.2 and 5.19), which to some extent offers an explanation for both the teachers’ and pupils’ relaxed attitudes towards English learning revealed in the classroom observations and the pupils’ drawings (Sections 5.5.1 and 5.5.2).

The opinions of both school directors concerned with integration of English into the curriculum revealed that extra curriculum time would be preferred (Appendix G: Extracts 5.21 and 5.26). Consequently, it can be argued that integration is interpreted by both
directors as replacing curriculum content time rather than integration into curriculum content. Therefore, although the school director Flora held a positive attitude towards English integration into subject content and believed that it is being undertaken through teaching and learning of subject content, there is conflict between her preference for extra curriculum time for English learning and her perceptions of what integration into subject content actually means. Convergence of the findings between the two directors with regard to extra curriculum time was revealed but diverged from the perceptions of their CSTs. Reasons for this included CST Helen’s opinion that no extra time is required, because she integrates English into the lessons (Appendix G: Extract 5.23), although she utters a contradictory statement later in the interview: more time for English is sometimes needed and taken (Extract 4.2). In fact Helen does integrate English into the lessons by taking lesson time from other subjects. CST Clara believed that extra lesson time would be a burden to the children at this age (Appendix G: Extract 5.22).

The two separate school policies regarding English integration influenced both CSTs’ classroom practice. In CST Clara’s school, a high learning priority was placed upon German, Reading, Writing and Maths, whereas lower priority was given to learning English (Appendix G: Extract 5.20); it was considered a ‘nette Sache’ (nice thing) by her director Doris (Appendix G: Extract 5.19). Reflections of the school policy were revealed in the classroom practice and perceptions of the CST Clara. Although Clara claimed that ‘English is English’ (Extract 5.6), she also claimed to integrate English either into the GK lessons, between lessons, as relaxation between lessons, or for ten minutes at the end of lessons (Extract 4.1). The multiple sources of data, classroom observations, interview findings and pupils’ drawings revealed the interdisciplinary approach to the teaching of subjects regarding curricular content to be absent in school policy, which is in contradiction with MoE policy (2005).
In contrast, school policy confirms that English learning is important in the school of CST Helen.

Associations to MoE policy (2005) and school policy were revealed in CST Helen’s classroom. School director Flora not only accords high priority to English in the curriculum, but believes integration to be taking place (Appendix G: Extracts 5.24 and 5.26).

However, although Helen believes that she is integrating English into the lesson content and considers English very important, teaching was mainly undertaken in the last 30 minutes of German, during Reading and Writing twice weekly (Extracts 4.2 and 5.3). Exceptions to this pattern of integration sometimes occur by taking English into P.E. lessons, using English for numbers in Maths or singing English songs in Music. Therefore, she attempts to integrate English into subjects using a CLIL-type approach, for example as a teaching strategy for the English learning of numbers in Maths. Nevertheless, how far pupils comprehend what they are singing in English during Music is not assessed. The observation of P.E. also did not reveal English integration for P.E. learning but for revision of previously learnt vocabulary from other lessons, which in the lesson observed consisted of ‘body parts, fruits and clothes’. Hence, Helen’s ‘integration’ into subject content often rather invades time nominally allocated to these subjects.

Therefore, classroom observation revealed that ‘integration’ was in fact manifested principally as replacing subject content and invading subject time, similar to what happened in CST Clara’s school.

The teacher questionnaire showed that the majority of teachers (25 out of 32) were aware of the need to integrate English into the curriculum. Music (28 out of 32) was the subject preferred for integration while GK (23 out of 32) was the second most popular (Figure 5.17). The subject chosen least for integration was Art (6 out of 32). A pattern between the findings of the teacher questionnaire and the pupil picture questionnaire was revealed
(Figures 5.7 and 5.17). Music (24 out of 24) and GK (17 out of 24) are also believed by the pupils to be the most suitable subjects for learning English in comparison to Art (11 out of 24). Although the majority of teachers (25 out of 32) in the questionnaire (Figure 5.17) believed that integration of English into subject content was taking place in their classrooms, knowledge of FL/L2 integration teaching approaches was very low (Figure 5.19).

Contradictions between the teacher interviews and their questionnaire responses entailing the type of approach adopted in the lessons during integration were also revealed. The interviewed teachers believed they applied a TBI approach during the lessons (Table 5.1), yet only two of them and four of the additional teachers claimed to have knowledge of TBI (Figure 5.19). Surprisingly some teachers who had undertaken additional English courses believed they did not integrate English into subject content (Table 4.5). Ten teachers have additional English qualifications and the eleventh is an English teacher, yet four of these teachers claim not to integrate English into other disciplines (Figure 5.19). It can be hypothesised that teachers’ knowledge of language teaching/learning approaches together with the degree of integration taking place in the classroom influenced their responses. Furthermore, contradictions were found between the interview and questionnaire responses from two of the eight interviewed teachers. In the interviews integration was believed not to take place but this was revised in the questionnaire (Ursula and Babsi: Table 5.1). Explanation for this may be found in the multiple choice of responses available to the teachers in the questionnaire, which may have been too suggestive and influenced their answers.

Here again, the mixed methods approach has proven useful in that it revealed multiple perspectives of the phenomena under investigation.

In Section 6.3 we now turn to sub-question 2.
6.3 Sub-question 2: What type of teaching methods and strategies are in use during the lessons?

The tools used in the classrooms provided important and informative insights into the teaching methodologies and strategies taking place during the lessons in relation to language and learning theories and the influence of teachers’ English language skills. The tools used in both case study classrooms are the English book *Playway* and materials based on a TBI approach to learning chosen by the school together with the teachers. How far subject content is replaced or replicated by the themes in the English book was not investigated. However, observation of Clara’s classroom during GK revealed that the focus was placed on the learning of English words through an Initiated Response Feedback (IRF) approach and some memorisation of simple rhymes from the English book in all of the lessons (Table 5.3).

The structure of Clara’s lessons was always guided by the content of the English book, as were the teaching strategies. Pupils remained seated throughout nearly all of the lessons in Clara’s classroom and peer interaction was only observed when it was required during an exercise in the English book (Table 5.3). The teaching strategies, structure of the lessons and teaching style of Clara differed from those of Helen. The pupils’ drawings highlighted this and provided further evidence for the observation and interview findings. It can be expected that individual teaching style will vary between teachers in classrooms and that this has some influence upon the teaching methods, strategies and structure of the lessons. One of the major differences between Helen’s and Clara’s classroom practice was the almost continuous flow of movement during the lessons, which was apparent from the very first observed lesson in Helen’s classroom. Although part of the teaching took place with the pupils seated at their desks, this was kept to a minimum (Table 5.3 and Figure 5.5). Movement in Helen’s class involved pupils dancing, or singing, or walking through the room while chanting questions in an IRF mode to the teacher and to one another, providing
pupils with extended output opportunities to practise their verbal skills. Verbal tone was also a significant teaching tool used in Helen’s classroom for both teaching and learning (Table 5.4 and Figure 5.6).

Analysed through the lens of general and language learning theories the lessons in Clara’s classroom involved a traditional cognitive approach to both teaching and learning language in a behaviourist context. Evidence of this can be observed in the multiple data findings from the interviews (Extracts 5.6, 6.1, 6.3 and 6.14), classroom observations (Figure 5.2 and Table 5.20), pupils’ drawings (Figures 5.11 and 5.16) and teacher questionnaire (Table 4.5). In contrast, a predominantly CLT with some characteristics of a cognitive approach to learning set in a social-constructivist learning context with TBI methods was identified in Helen’s classroom (Figures 5.11 and 5.16, Tables 4.5 and 5.5 and Extracts 4.4, 5.9, 6.2, 6.15 and 6.17).

Both CSTs perceptions of code switching between German and English during the lessons were confirmed to a high extent in the findings. Equal levels of code switching for explanations and directives were recorded during the lessons in both classrooms; however, their overall use was higher in Clara’s classroom in lessons one and two, even though the lesson content was identical in both cases (Table 5.4 and Figure 5.6). Explanations for this can be found in the interview responses of the CSTs with regard to perceptions of their English skills for school (Extracts 6.1 and 6.2) and for private use (Extracts 6.3 and 6.4).

**Extracts 6.1 and 6.2**

**Researcher:** When the children do not understand, how do you explain, in German or English?

**6.1 Clara:** Ummm quite honestly I simply cannot in English, my English is not sufficient. My English is really quite, really quite minimal. It is only school English level. I cannot really sit down and
explain, my English would fail me quite simply and I don’t have enough English speaking practice. So it is better I explain in German.

6.2 Helen: I try to teach only in English during the lessons so I try to explain in English as much as possible but sometimes I have to explain in German if they don’t understand.

(Source: Teacher interviews)

Extracts 6.3 and 6.4

Researcher: And your own English skills? How do you perceive your English skills?

6.3 Clara: I don’t need it. I never need it and therefore when a situation arises where I have to speak English then I refuse to speak it. I don’t particularly like having to speak English. I simply don’t possess the vocabulary and I cannot just begin to speak and chat along.

6.4 Helen: Sometimes it is embarrassing because I have forgotten so much then I have to look it up.

(Source: Teacher interviews)

However, the findings showed that both CSTs believed that their English skills are sufficient for teaching at Stage one (S1), although Helen does reflect that sometimes she would welcome some assistance during the lessons (Extracts 6.5 and 6.6).

Extracts 6.5 and 6.6

Researcher: How do you perceive your English skills for teaching?

6.5 Clara: For the school it is sufficient.

6.6 Helen: It is sufficient for my class although there are two or three children they would need more, but they are the really very talented pupils and there aren’t so many of them. Sometimes I don’t know the
correct pronunciation … then I am unsure and if there was a native speaker or English teacher in the school who we could directly ask that would be a great help.

(Source: Teacher interviews)

Pupil awareness of novelty words (Serra, 2007) for learning was also identified during one of the lessons in each of the case study classrooms. The lesson content from the set book involved the theme ‘clothes’ and contained the word ‘woolly hat’. Novelty use of the concept ‘woolly’ with the word ‘hat’ received particular notice from all of the pupils. Woolly hat became the favourite word of both classrooms and was repeatedly used as much as possible by the pupils during the lessons.

Observation of transparent code switching which can assist FL/L2 learners’ visualisation of concepts (Serra, 2007) was also revealed during the lessons. However, transparent code switching in this study also involved the prohibiting of pupils’ attempts to place German words onto English words, as shown in an interaction example of lesson three (see Extract 6.7) during an IRF session in Clara’s classroom.

**Extract 6.7**

T = Teacher, C = Class, P1= Pupil one, P2 = Pupil two, P3 = Pupil three

T  What’s this?

P1  TV

T  Yes another name

P2  Fernseher (*Television*)

T  In English (*she gestures with hands to eyes*)

P3  Glotze (*German dialect for TV*)

C  (*all laugh*)

T  (*crossly*) dieses Wort verwenden wir nicht versuche nicht ein Englisches Wort auf ein Deutsches zu setzen (*We don’t use*...
that word, don’t try to put an English word onto a German word)

(Source: Classroom observation – Clara’s classroom)

Interpretation of this interaction reveals how Pupil three attempts to negotiate for knowledge through a type of transparent code switching between the English abbreviation TV and the word television by using the German vernacular form of television ‘Glotze’.

It can be hypothesised that Clara’s lack of knowledge of FL/L2 theories and approaches hinders her access to teaching strategies and is also detrimental to her pupils’ FL learning strategies. The lesson continued with repetition of the word television through IRF of individual pupils by the teacher (Extract 6.8).

**Extract 6.8**

\[ T = \text{Teacher}, \ C = \text{Class}, \ P4 = \text{Pupil four}, \ P5 = \text{Pupil five}, \ P6 = \text{Pupil six} \]

\[ T \quad \text{What’s this?} \]

\[ C \quad (silence) \]

\[ T \quad \text{Television … Kurzform TV (the abbreviation is TV)} \]

\[ T \quad \text{What’s this?} \]

\[ P4 \quad \text{Television} \]

\[ T \quad \text{What’s this?} \]

\[ P5 \quad \text{Television} \]

\[ T \quad \text{What’s this?} \]

\[ P6 \quad \text{Television} \]

(Source: Classroom observation – Clara’s classroom)

Although no extra purposeful teaching for concept forming (Serra, 2007) was observed during Clara’s lessons, observation of concept forming was revealed in the findings of the identical theme-based lesson involving clothing items in Helen’s classroom. The woolly
hat was also a favourite novelty term and teaching item from the English book in Helen’s classroom. Socks were also a learning item but in Helen’s classroom they became the ‘stinky’ socks. Through visual transparent representation involving gestures, Helen assisted pupil learning of the concept ‘smell’, and stinky or smelly socks became another highly enjoyable expression, along with woollen hat, in Helen’s classroom. Smelly or stinky was also added to the training shoes, termed ‘trainers’ in the lessons, and evidence of pupil awareness of the concept ‘smell’ was observed in Helen’s pupils’ drawings and gestures during the lessons.

Although pupil motivation was not the focus of this study, motivation and enjoyment of the lesson with the theme clothes and the ‘woollen hat’ was observably higher than in other lessons in Clara’s classroom. Language games and the observation of teacher-led play through memory games and identification of pictures with the flashcards were used in every lesson for learning, repetition, and testing pupils’ knowledge in Clara’s classroom (Table 5.3). Individual teacher–learner interaction was the most frequent type of interaction occurring in all of the lessons. Explanation for this could be that the language games are derived from the English book. These could have been modified to include different types of interactions in the classroom if Clara’s English skills, knowledge, motivation and self-confidence had been higher. Lack of pupil motivation during the memory games in Clara’s lessons was sometimes observed in the often long sessions of silence in the classroom when pupils’ English knowledge or memory of the vocabulary failed them. A very low level of teacher prompting was observed when these classroom silences occurred over a longer period of time. Continuation of the lesson was usually undertaken through Clara’s repetition of the ‘forgotten’ vocabulary (drilling) to either the same or another pupil (Extract 4.5). The use of songs and rhymes involving low use of gestures was observed once in Clara’s classroom where the pupils stood beside their desks. Visible increased enjoyment of the task could be observed through pupils’ voiced requests.
in German to ‘sing the song again please’ (‘nochmal bitte’). The findings reflect Nikolov’s research concerning motivation for FL/L2 learning involving positive attitudes towards the learning tasks (1999).

The structure, methodology and strategies in use in Helen’s classroom differed considerably from those of Clara’s despite the use of the same set English book and tools during the observations (Table 5.3). The findings from Clara’s classroom showed how pupils used the book themselves in combination with the CD for audio-visual repetitive learning of English words. Prior learning was always undertaken with Clara through the use of an IRF mode combined with the flashcards provided with the English book.

In contrast, only Helen, and not her pupils, used the English book for provision of the lesson content, for example vocabulary, themes and songs for learning. Furthermore, Helen modified and extended the contents of the book to accommodate the needs of the pupils. Helen also had some knowledge of language learning theories and had participated in additional English training courses for teachers. In contrast, Clara, who had some knowledge of bilingualism but otherwise did not have any knowledge of language learning theories or a supplemental English language qualification, strictly followed the book.

Therefore, Helen’s higher level of self-confidence, motivation, and English teaching knowledge and skills allowed her more freedom in the teaching strategies she applied during the lessons (Extract 6.9).

**Extract 6.9**

Researcher: What types of tools are in use during the lessons?

Helen: We have an English book, but I don’t want to just simply follow the book, when something better fits into the lesson then I use that. There are so many resources available over the internet and CDs for rhymes. So much freedom I do have.

(Source: Teacher interviews)
English input of both CSTs during the lessons was restricted and consisted primarily of two major word groups (Table 5.4):

1. Questioning.
2. Praise.

Questioning in both classrooms was predominantly done by the CSTs through variations of two-word combinations, although some short phrases were used on occasion (Table 5.5). Some comparison between the quantity of English input from the CSTs was made. The variety of English input for praise was limited in Clara’s classroom in contrast to the larger variety recorded in Helen’s classroom (Table 5.4 and Figure 5.6).

Subject content was identical for both classrooms during lessons one and two; however, it differed in lessons three and four. During lesson four, P.E., Helen switched to German more often, particularly for explanations of how to use the P.E. equipment (see Section 5.3.2, Table 5.4 and Figure 5.6). This could be explained by Helen’s perception of her lack of English skills (Extracts 6.2, 6.4 and 6.6) and her pupils’ understanding of English: misunderstanding how to use the P.E. equipment could be dangerous.

The vocabulary taught during P.E. was identical to the vocabulary used for questioning in the classroom and pupil learning also involved repetition (fruits, clothes and body parts) of the vocabulary learnt in previous lessons in the classroom. Interactions in Helen’s classroom during the IRF sessions in both the classroom and the gymnasium were teacher–learner based, similar to those in Clara’s classroom. However, a major difference emerged and had high impact upon pupils’ English output practise. The pupils chanted the questions with the CST Helen (Extract 4.4), who then chose a pupil to respond. Motivation and enjoyment were visibly observed and peer gaze interaction was high, and often pupils responded spontaneously even if they had not been chosen. Pupils’ knowledge of the vocabulary and their spontaneous attempts at responding, as well as the simultaneous
chanting of questions and responses with the teacher left very little need for prompting in Helen’s classroom. In comparison, Clara rarely prompted her pupils, even when they remained silent during IRF sessions. The long silences observed in Clara’s classroom may also reflect her pupils’ attitudes towards English; silence can indicate boredom, tiredness, or lack of motivation. However, these suggestions can only be hypothetical.

There is no pressure to gain good marks in English, which could influence pupils’ perceptions and motivation and attitude towards English learning. However, although enjoyment and motivation to learn English were identified from the drawings of Clara’s pupils, a few also revealed lack of enjoyment and motivation (Figure 5.16 and Table 5.16). In comparison, all of the pupil drawings in Helen’s classroom consisted of colourful components which revealed her pupils’ perceptions and positive attitudes towards English involving enjoyment and motivation (Figure 5.11). The contents of nearly all of the pupils’ drawings produced in Clara’s classroom depicted the teacher-led classroom context (Figure 5.11). Some of the drawings also lacked colour, which may indicate pupils being bored during English.

The classroom strategies and methods of both CSTs reflect cognitions and preconceptions of language learning that Borg (2003) discusses in his study. Evidence of this can be seen in the multiple data collected: interviews (Extracts 6.10 and 6.11), classroom observations and pupils’ drawings. The interview responses from Clara (Extract 6.10) and Helen (Extract 6.11) portray that a cognitive approach was adopted by the teacher in the classroom during their own English learning experience.

**Extracts 6.10 and 6.11**

**Researcher:** And how was your own English language tuition?

**6.10 Clara:** *It was really just pure grammar. Tense forms etcetera. In the college it was just grammar that was instructed, no more and no less. Not how one teaches English to young children.*
6.11 Helen: In school it was teacher led. Not the way it is taught today. And in the teaching college it was simply how to use the learning tools and materials to enable the children to understand some English. We learnt simple games, sometimes stories. Our own English knowledge was not examined at all. We had English in the Matura (A-level) and with it our own last English lesson.

(Source: Teacher interviews)

Both Clara and Helen believed that influence of their own language learning experience during teacher training was not reflected in their teaching approaches in the classroom (see Extracts 6.12 and 6.13).

Extracts 6.12 and 6.13

Researcher: How has it influenced you in your own teaching in the classroom?

6.12 Clara: In what way, I mean should it influence me, I mean that was 15 years ago. No it has definitely not influenced me.

6.13 Helen: Ah my training was a long time ago. It wouldn’t work today. It is necessary to think of new ways and ideas. I get new input from the diverse courses or seminars and then things simply change.

(Source: Teacher interviews)

However, the classroom observations reflected both CSTs’ own experience of English learning and teacher training. Hence connections to research concerning teacher cognition (Borg, 2003) and teacher preconceptions of FL learning and the influence this has on teachers’ own classroom practice was in evidence in the observations of Helen’s and Clara’s teaching practice in their classrooms.
Through diverse methods of CST data collection (interview, classroom observations, questionnaire) it was possible to gain a deep insight into the teaching and learning taking place in the classrooms. Additional sources and methods of data collection were made through the pupil picture questionnaires and pupils’ drawings. However, before these are discussed, Section 6.4 will look at sub-question 3.

6.4 Sub-question 3: What are teachers’ lesson planning procedures for English language integration into the chosen subject content?

The teacher questionnaire revealed that over half of the teachers preferred more lesson time (21 out of 32) and that one-quarter (8 out of 32) required more preparation time for English (Table 4.6 and Figure 5.18). Some explanation for the high level of extra time preferred emerged in the interview findings (see, for example, Extracts 4.2, 5.1, 5.21 and 5.24). The type of integration taking place influences preparation time. The low levels of extra time required by the teachers can be related to the tools used in the classroom. All of the interviewed teachers except one, Karin, use the English book with the tools provided rather than content from the different disciplines (see Table 5.2). Evidence of this can be seen in the CSTs’ interview responses in Extracts 6.14 and 6.15.

Extracts 6.14 and 6.15

Researcher: How do you plan and prepare for English integration?

6.14 Clara: Oh I teach spontaneously, it is not necessary to prepare the evening before. I just follow the book.

6.15 Helen: I plan a week ahead. I build upon learning undertaken the previous week very carefully for the next lessons. When we do songs I sometimes plan the movements at home and sometimes directly in the classroom with the children. They enjoy doing that especially.

(Source: Teacher interviews)
Subsequently, Clara’s reliance on and use of the English book (Extract 6.14) together with her stated lack of interest and perception of her own English skills (Extract 6.3) provide an explanation for lack of lesson planning. Eight of the remaining nine interviewee teachers (including CST Helen) planned the lessons in the evening. The ninth teacher, Selina, believed that basic English skills were enough at S1, as the lessons were dependent upon the classroom atmosphere and pupils’ moods (Extract 6.16).

**Extract 6.16**

**Researcher:** How do you plan and prepare for English integration?

**6.16 Selina:** There is no necessity to plan with my own general basic English knowledge. It depends on the day anyway. One could prepare and then it doesn’t fit into the lessons. It depends on the mood of the children. Sometimes I haven’t planned anything.

(Source: Teacher interviews)

Selina states in her response that she does not need to plan the lessons; however, she contradicts herself in the final sentence where she indicates that she does sometimes plan the lesson – ‘Sometimes I haven’t planned anything’ (Extract 6.16).

The features of planning generally involved when to integrate English into the subject time and subject choice (Extracts 6.14, 6.15 and 6.16). Both the questionnaire (Figure 5.17) and interviews (Table 5.2) revealed that Music and GK were the subjects most often chosen for integration. Although explanations for the subject choice for integration could not be investigated in the questionnaire, the findings from the additional teacher interviews provided some insight into the reasons why GK and Music were so popular (see, for example, Extracts 5.8–5.11).

All of the teachers emphasised English learning rather than the integration of English in combination with the learning of that subject, even though the interview question was
always carefully framed. Where contradictory evidence emerged, the variety of research methods applied to the multiple data sources enabled some explanation and deeper insight into factors that influenced teacher perceptions and classroom practices during the lessons. Teaching aims during the lessons are important if English integration into the lessons is to take place without displacement or loss of subject content. The focus of Section 6.5 discusses the findings concerned with sub-question 4.

6.5 Sub-question 4: What are the teaching aims?

Conflicting findings emerged from the teacher interviews and the teacher questionnaire with regard to the teaching aims of the lessons. The teachers stated in their interview responses that enjoyment and vocabulary learning are the most important aims of English learning (Table 5.2). Yet in the questionnaire, vocabulary was considered only the seventh most important teaching/learning aim of the nine possible options (Table 5.19). However, grammar was considered the least important and enjoyment the most important during the lessons and identical results emerged from the teacher interviews and questionnaire (Tables 5.2 and 5.19). Pupil enjoyment during English learning is also one of the MoE aims (2005) and data findings from the diverse sources have revealed pupil enjoyment during the lessons. Nevertheless, how far pupil enjoyment is related to English learning and/or to the absence of assessment pressure and the type of classroom activities involved was not investigated or identified in this study.

Although the learning of grammar is not the aim of learning at Stage one (S1), pronunciation is considered important for oral–aural skills and is a main focus of FL learning in MoE policy (2005). Yet, as reported earlier, it was seventh out of the nine possible options considered as an important learning aim during the lessons by the teachers in the questionnaire. Additionally, both CSTs very rarely corrected pupils’ pronunciation (Table 5.4 and Figure 5.6). Explanations for this were provided in the teacher interviews: that at this level of learning enjoyment and the learning of vocabulary and simple phrases
are the main aims. A CLT approach to English teaching was believed by the majority of teachers to be used in their classrooms in contrast to more traditional form-focused learning situations where the learning emphasis is placed upon grammar (see, for example, Extracts 6.17 and 6.18).

**Extracts 6.17 and 6.18**

**Researcher:** How important is pupil use of correct grammar during the lessons?

**6.17 Helen:** *They learn the grammar indirectly. They have no idea about form or present or past tense. They learn it with the vocabulary.*

**6.18 Mary:** *They don’t learn grammar at this level; they learn lots of vocabulary and short phrases through the CDs. They learn grammar as they go along …*

(Source: Teacher interviews)

Although all of the interviewed teachers believe that they have adopted a CLT approach, a predominantly cognitive approach emerged in CST Clara’s classroom and sometimes in the classroom of CST Helen.

Pupil movement for learning was considered the second most important aim in the questionnaire (Table 5.19). It can be argued that this is in fact a teaching strategy and not a feature of FL learning. Nonetheless, it was considered important for learning English during the lessons. Evidence of the importance of movement for English learning was found in Helen’s classroom. Peer interaction together with understanding English was the third most important aim of teachers during the lessons. These findings were also partially confirmed through the classroom observations (Tables 5.3 and 5.5).

Due to the lack of pupils’ English knowledge, peer interaction was considered problematic by all of the teachers in the interviews. However, peer interaction is also one, if not the
main characteristic of a CLT approach and sociocultural theory. Swain (2000) advocates the importance of peer interaction and learner output which assists negotiation with others for meaning and enables pupils to recognise gaps in their linguistic knowledge. Pupils’ perceptions are the focus of sub-question 5 and are discussed in Section 6.6.

6.6 Sub-question 5: What are pupils’ perceptions of the lessons?

The pupil picture questionnaire provided insight into pupils’ perceptions of English as a medium of instruction and comparisons were made to MoE policy (2005) together with teacher perceptions of integration into subjects. The drawings provided insight into pupils’ perceptions of actual classroom practice and English per se.

The decision to use drawings to gather valid and reliable in-depth qualitative data in combination with clarifications diminished difficulties often entailed in research with young children. For example, beliefs of what is expected or anxiety may have influenced the pupils’ responses in interviews and questionnaires, although the main bulk of research into learner beliefs, attitudes and perceptions has been undertaken using quantitative survey methods (Wesely, 2012). Investigation of learners’ attitudes and perceptions has focused mainly on the learning situation - experience and understanding of the teaching taking place and how learners make sense of themselves and their learning. Although the research focus of learners' beliefs is very similar to that of learners' perceptions it also includes investigation of learners' self-concepts. Therefore, learners' opinions of themselves as FL learners also include the learners' own beliefs in their capabilities to perform tasks and organise their learning (Mills et al., 2007). The research focus of learners' beliefs also includes what learners think about the target language and community as well as the learning situation.

The drawings provided a data collection tool that investigated a wide range of these factors inherent in pupils’ perceptions of the lessons, which may not have come to light in questionnaires and interviews alone. These involved the following:
1. pupils’ perceptions of the classroom tools used
2. pupils placing of self in the learning situation
3. confirmation of the teaching approach believed to be in use by the teacher
4. classroom interactions
5. pupils developing cognition of English
6. pupil motivation
7. pupils’ perceptions of English as a communication tool.

Importantly, communication problems involving the possible necessity for pupils to use expressive language were eradicated. The first set of drawings shows pupils’ perceptions of the lesson content and the second set their perceptions of English per se. Associations with general learning and language learning theories observed during the lessons, MoE policy (2005), PH policy and school policy were made from both the picture questionnaires and the pupils’ drawings.

Pupils’ perceptions of learning content through English from both case study classrooms were dependent upon their experience of English during specific subjects. For example, the picture questionnaire revealed that a higher percentage of pupils in Helen’s classroom considered it possible to learn P.E. through English than in Clara’s classroom. In contrast, a higher percentage of pupils in Clara’s classroom considered it possible to learn Maths through English (Figures 4.5 and 4.6). All pupils in both classrooms considered it was possible to learn Music through English and the teacher’s use of themes from the English book also influenced pupils’ perceptions.

Only one of the drawings from Helen’s classroom out of a total of 48 from both classrooms portrayed integration of English into subject content. The drawing showed the pupil doing Maths with a peer at his desk and was made in drawing set two – pupils’ perceptions of English. The short clarification from the pupil gave further insight into the drawing – he explained how the drawing showed him at school learning how to count in English.
Although the findings appear to partially reflect MoE policy (2005) concerning integration into other subjects, they do not give information on how far and if at all subject content has been learnt.

The drawings provided further information of pupils’ perceptions of the lessons. The influence of school policy is reflected in all of Helen’s pupils’ drawings regarding the positive and motivated attitude towards English learning. Pupils’ perceptions of the lesson in Helen’s classroom reflect her motivation and attitude towards English, which is influenced both by school policy and by the confidence she has acquired through extra English courses. This, in turn, assists provision of an exciting and dynamic learning environment for her pupils. For example, the use of gestures and movement during learning by the pupils in Helen’s classroom was very high (Figure 5.5). Helen’s classroom evidenced a type of ‘visual novelty’ for the mediation of language learning involving gestures together with pupils ‘noticing’ novelty words. Identification of this was observed in the drawings where the ‘stinky socks’ were depicted with smoke rising from them in one drawing and in another where flowers were drawn directly on the socks themselves, hence indicating pupils developing perceptions and cognition of the English word and concept ‘smell’.

The choice of songs, rhymes and flashcards as tools for learning that Helen uses in the classroom, together with her English skills, was observed in Helen’s pupils’ drawings. Reflection of her pronunciation was observed in her pupils’ spelling of English words (Figure 5.15 and Table 5.15).

The second drawing set investigated pupils’ perceptions of English. The mixing of English and German words was identified in the drawings of Helen’s pupils. Therefore, a tentative link can be made to Selinker’s suggestion of a separate developing interlanguage system (1972), which, as pupils’ English knowledge and skills develop, will eventually form the English system. It also revealed how pupils’ perceptions of English as a medium for
communication are developing. Some of Helen’s pupils in the second set of drawings had depicted themselves on a ‘stage’. These drawings reflect sociocultural theory characteristics whereby the role of play in language development enables children to move beyond their age and daily behaviour (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 102). Pupils in Helen’s classroom could step out of the school context into a type of fantasy world (the stage) and use their English skills to perform on stage (Figure 5.15 and Table 5.15); therefore in Vygotskian terms moving beyond their daily behaviour. The pupils’ drawings in Helen’s classroom depict how pupils believe that English knowledge and skills belong to them rather than to the teacher. Reflection of the predominantly CLT approach adopted in the classroom by Helen were identified in the drawings.

In contrast, teacher dominance and control of knowledge reflecting behaviourist approaches to teaching/learning were depicted in nearly all of Clara’s pupils’ drawings (Figures 5.8 and 5.12 and Tables 5.6, 5.7 and 5.12). The lack of importance English has at S1 in the school is reflected in the pupils’ drawings, which contain almost identical items portraying the less innovative teaching methods and strategies in use, and also in Clara’s perceptions, attitude and motivation towards English learning at S1 schooling.

There is no pressure to obtain good grades in English due to the absence of pupil assessment in English. The priority English has for the pupils in Clara’s classroom reflects her attitude towards the priority English has in her classroom and also her own lower level of interest (Extracts 4.1 and 6.3 and Appendix G: Extract 5.20).

In contrast, although pupils are also not assessed in the classroom of CST Helen, the absence of silences and the continuous participation of all pupils during the lessons were significant both in the classroom observations and in the pupils’ drawings. All of this reflects Helen’s attitude towards English (Extract 4.2 and Appendix G: Extract 5.25).
6.7 Summary with sub-questions 6 and 7

The multi-method study described in this thesis has explored the fundamental question ‘How is English as a foreign language taught in the first two years of Austrian primary schools?’ and the findings raise a number of significant issues.

The integration of English teaching into other subjects in Austrian primary schools at S1 is being undertaken and guidelines of how this is to be accomplished are provided in the MoE document (2005). Evidence found in the present study has revealed that implementation at ground level is fragmented and rather than being integrated into other subjects, English may be replacing them. Through the use of multiple data sources comprising interviews, questionnaires and direct observation, the case studies revealed that classroom practice is linked to teachers’ often limited knowledge and understanding of language theories and, in particular, integrated approaches such as CLIL. The PH training of primary school teachers is not focused on language theories and approaches but rather on the practical side of teaching and the available resources. The curriculum is ‘competence’-based (Appendix G: Extract 5.42). The PH English teachers/academics consider the English skills of the student teachers to be nearly all inadequate, yet the teaching and testing of English skills is not part of the PH graduation process. Nonetheless, teachers believe that their skills are sufficient for primary school level, although they recognise their own inadequacies. PH curriculum planning does not involve the planning of individual subject content. The PH deputy director explained that the PH teaching staff are responsible for the content of their subjects, but how English teaching is taking place at primary school is not the responsibility of the PH.

Evidence was found in the study of the influence teacher training has both on teacher classroom policy and on practice where English is integrated into the lesson. The multiple data sources have provided rich, complementary and often confirmatory results which none
of them could have done on their own. Presentation of the amalgamated findings and conclusions are the focus of the final chapter of this study.
7 Chapter Seven: Conclusion

7.1 Main findings

This study has asked ‘How is English as a foreign language taught in the first two years of Austrian primary schools?’ Posing seven sub-questions, it has investigated different perspectives that may be required. These range from MoE policy (2005, 2012) at one end to actual classroom practice at the other.

The findings revealed:

- Curriculum content was displaced as time was given over to English learning.
- The CLT approach suggested by the MoE guidelines (2005) was not identified in the findings as the main strategy for teaching and learning.
- Teachers’ perception that English is integrated into content classes is not reflected by actual teacher classroom practice.
- Teacher training does not facilitate teachers’ needs for knowledge of language learning theories, approaches, and skills in order to implement an integrated approach in the classroom.
- Teachers achieve their reported aims.
- Teachers have a range of approaches to lesson planning.
- Pupils’ perceptions, collected through a variety of means, confirm and reflect classroom practices as observed by the researcher.

The following section will discuss the limitations of the study. Sections 7.3, 7.4 and 7.5 will focus on integration; the influence of policies, pedagogies and teacher training; and actual classroom practices, before drawing conclusions that will take into account three perspectives: context, teachers and pupils. The remainder of the chapter will deal with recommendations for policy and further research.
7.2 Limitations

The study has provided answers to the main research question: ‘How is English as a foreign language taught in the first two years of Austrian primary schools?’ which was considered from the following three perspectives:

1. Contextual factors.
2. Teachers.
3. Pupils.

Limitations of the study involved the absence of assessment of pupils’ actual progress in English and content learning, so the outcomes related to the observed practices in case study classrooms: in any event, acquisition of subject learning through English could not be assessed since adequate language–subject integration was not in evidence. Although observed directly and indirectly, achievement of the main teaching aim of ‘pupil enjoyment’ was not measured. All of the teachers in the interviews believed that their pupils enjoyed the lessons but the reasons for enjoyment are controversial and diverse. Only one of the participating teachers was male, and statistics involving the percentage of male primary school teachers were not consulted. The influence of gender upon integration, teaching style and knowledge may influence the findings. Teacher drawings would also have provided further insight into their perceptions of English and their classroom practice. A comparison between the boys’ and the girls’ perceptions of English was also not made from the drawings.

Future investigation between boys’ and girls’ perceptions of English through the use of drawings in combination with pupils’ clarifications needs to be made. Also, large-scale investigation of teachers’ perceptions of their classroom practice and comparisons between genders through the use of drawings could provide important information for educationalists.
It could be argued that limitations with regard to the selection of the case study teachers (CSTs) influenced the findings. However, the additional teacher interviews and questionnaires provided a comparative backdrop and triangulation to the CSTs’ findings and although the number of questionnaire participants was small (32), they were taken from diverse geographical areas of Austria (Carinthia, Vienna and Lower Austria). Furthermore the majority of the teachers were not acquainted with one another. Therefore, reliability and validity of the findings is ensured through the random sample of a participant group.

The multi-mixed methods approach in which this study is framed has proven to be an eminently suitable method for investigating a complex and multifaceted question in educational research. It enables systematic reliable methods of data collection and analysis of diverse participant perspectives involved in educational contexts. And although acquiring the knowledge and skills to use the diverse NVivo tools required for this study took a considerable amount of time pre-study, with perseverance this was successfully achieved and proved a valuable tool for analysis.

Research with the focus on beliefs, perceptions and attitudes in language learning has often described how the methods of data collection can influence participants’ opinions (see Section 6.6, p. 215). The findings reflect the participants’ beliefs, perceptions and attitudes and therefore only provide an account of the study focus based on these (Mills et al., 2006). Wesely (2012) proposes that diverse research methodologies can assist investigation and the use of multi-methods has been put into action in this study. Among a variety of tools tried and tested in this study, the innovative use of drawings in combination with pupils’ clarifications provided the most in-depth approach to eliciting reactions and perceptions. The drawings proved to be a valuable research tool and highly recommended for the collection of reliable and valid data from young participants.
7.3 Sub-questions 1–5: Integration, classroom practice, lesson planning, teaching aims and pupils’ perceptions

The more experienced teachers believed that they integrated English into curricular content at a higher level than their peers with less teaching experience (Figure 4.4). However, experienced teachers had not received any additional FL (English) training. Therefore it can be hypothesised that teacher identity in relation to teaching confidence increases with experience. However, teachers’ perceptions of their own competence may not be reflected in their actions. Teachers with less experience (Figure 4.4) and specifically the interviewed teacher Edith, who was in her third year of teaching (Figure 4.4 and Appendix H) and hence had recently graduated from a PH, may be more reflective and aware of the speed and development of teaching methods and approaches, albeit in other disciplines.

Significant was how teachers place the focus upon when to teach English rather than on how to teach and integrate it. This implies not only a lack of classroom time but also a lack of actual integration practice and indicates that teachers lack knowledge of what integration entails regarding the preparation and planning of the lessons involved.

Evidence of the disparity between what teachers do and what they believe they do was confirmed through the additional teacher questionnaire regarding integration. This can be related to Borg’s study (2003) of teachers’ preconceptions and experience of FL teaching/learning which influences their own teaching style and actions. For example, in Clara’s classroom pupils remain mainly seated quietly at their desks during the lessons, and the IRF mode of teacher questioning reflects her prior experience and preconceptions of English language learning. Although Clara believes that her own FL experience does not have influence upon her own classroom practice, her beliefs are contradicted by her actions. In contrast Helen, who underwent teacher training at approximately the same time as Clara, has since then participated in diverse courses to develop her English teaching skills and methods. Therefore, Helen considers that the methods and strategies for English
learning and teaching have developed since her initial teacher training. Observation of this is shown quite clearly in her teaching strategies and structure of the lessons. Therefore Helen’s perceptions of her teaching approach are partially reflected in her classroom practice. Therefore, the ‘transitional space’ identified by Margolin (2011), which is concerned with allowing time to enable teachers to readjust to new concepts, can be observed in the findings for Helen, particularly where she reports how it is ‘necessary to think’. Margolin (2011) also suggests that external features of the classroom, i.e. policy, practice and structures, are not enough to bring about change but that the psychological inner world requires reorientation. The findings reflect Margolin’s argument that teacher programmes need to combine educational theory with educational practice (2011).

Language features of the lessons revealed low levels of focus on form, in contrast to the teaching of vocabulary and simple phrases (Table 5.3). Findings by Lyster and Ranta (1997) with regard to immersion programmes in Canada show that problems arising from the lack of learners’ knowledge of form were associated with teachers’ lack of correction and pupils focusing upon communication for meaning rather than language learning. Possible pedagogical reasons for the use of simple language and low key vocabulary include CSTs believing that the learning level of their pupils is accommodated and that they themselves lack the vocabulary and were not fluent enough in English, as well as Clara perceiving her dislike of English as an added disadvantage. Therefore it can be hypothesised that the CSTs believed that the less English they used themselves during the lessons the fewer mistakes they would make. Therefore pupil exposure to incorrect English for learning is kept to a minimum. Nonetheless, Long’s interaction hypothesis concerning how comprehensible input is necessary for dialogical interaction in the negotiation for meaning (1996) becomes particularly relevant for this study when the teacher input is limited.
How far the CSTs’ input in both classrooms influences their pupils’ knowledge of English was not investigated.

Language games was a main teaching strategy used in both classrooms (Table 5.3) and evidence of pupils’ enjoyment of these was observed in Helen’s classroom and in her pupils’ drawings. Sullivan (2006) discusses in her study the notion of playful language games, relation to national culture and a CLT approach which can influence language learning. She describes how ‘if a language learning approach is to be based on “communication” it must be applicable to all types of communication’ (p. 122). Therefore, Sullivan (2006) extends the use of group and peer interaction for learning in a typical CLT classroom (which is characteristic of an Anglocentric CLT approach) to include teacher-led classrooms. Enjoyment of English may also be influenced by the fact that pupils’ learning of the language is not assessed: hence there is no pressure to obtain good grades.

The teaching methods and strategies observed during the lessons were reflected in all of the drawings from both case study classrooms, as were the consistent differences between the two classes, which the drawings also underlined. This provided confirmatory and complementary evidence not only of the reliability and validity of the findings generated through classroom observation but also of the value of diverse and innovative methods of data collection and analysis.

Integration into subject content was evidently absent from both case study classrooms, despite the differences in individual teaching styles between Clara and Helen. The pupil picture questionnaire also provided evidence of the lack of integration into content (Section 5.4 and Figure 5.7). In addition, both school directors interpreted English integration as integration into curriculum subject time.
In summary, it can be concluded that investigation of the multiple perspectives, i.e. contextual factors (MoE policy (2005, 2012), PH policy and school policy), teachers’ perceptions (competence, attitudes, goals, methods, aims, planning and integration) and pupils’ perceptions (lesson content, English per se), reveals that English integration in Austrian primary school classrooms is fragmented.

The next section discusses the policies shaping classroom practice.

7.4 Sub-questions 6 and 7: Shaping policy

Austrian MoE policy (2005) stipulates that teachers should integrate English into subjects during Stage one (S1) of schooling and its guidelines suggest that the teaching methods used to do this would be a combination of a CLT and a TBI approach involving FL/L2 learning concepts. No evidence was found that PHs provided adequate training in this domain.

The lack of a consistent interpretation of government guidelines between PHs and schools is echoed in teacher practice and both teachers’ and pupils’ perceptions of the lessons, as analysis of the multiple data sources has revealed. All the additional teacher interview findings (except one where the teacher is a qualified English teacher) showed that classroom English integration actually means displacing the subject content rather than integrating it, and a CLT approach during integration was not observed in the classroom of the CST Clara.

A major concern is the absence of adequate training for primary teachers, both in terms of their insufficient linguistic proficiency – as evidenced by Clara’s classroom and their own admission – and in terms of their pedagogical training in the theory and practice of integrating English during the teaching of subject content to young learners. PH policy of equipping future teachers with practical skills and competence – i.e. locating resources,
the use of teaching tools – in contrast to developing teachers’ own language knowledge and skills was identified in the CSTs’ classroom practices.

The study suggests that the PHs’ curricula, apparently for reasons of time as well as interpretation of their role, fail to address the pedagogical and linguistic shortcomings of future primary teachers. Therefore, even those teachers who are aware of the national guidelines may lack the ability to implement them. The implications for the effectiveness of ELL in Austrian schools are self-evident.

The informant(s) from the PH interpreted national MoE guidelines (2005) in a distinctly different way from informants in the school context. Multiple data sources – case studies, teacher interviews, teacher questionnaires and pupil feedback – all indicate that, even though primary teachers may be able to manage tools and materials in the classroom, they are not necessarily able to interpret and implement guidance on integrated communicative language teaching.

The present study, whose informants appear to lack the necessary foundational training, thus stands in contrast to much FL integrated teaching/learning research literature such as CLIL, which frequently involves teachers with knowledge of integrated teaching approaches and proficient language skills often working in institutions which researchers know from their own dissemination work (Dalton-Puffer, 2007; Södergard, 2006; Romu and Sjoberg-Heino, 1999). Therefore, the primary school teachers carry a double burden whereby they not only lack proficient English skills but also lack the knowledge of how to teach subject content with them. Yet successful English integration is dependent upon excellent teacher language skills and if a CLIL-type approach is strived for teacher English competence together with subject content knowledge is essential for success (Coyle et al., 2010). MoE policy, PH policy and school policy shape the diverse and often unsatisfactory English teaching/learning taking place in the S1 primary school classroom. There are many potential solutions to the problems identified by the present research.
Section 7.5 looks at the pedagogical implications this all has for teacher training, education policies and classroom practice.

7.5 Pedagogical implications

Pedagogical implications involve the provision of relevant English training for future primary school teachers. At the moment primary school teachers’ perceptions of integration and the shortening of subject content are detrimental to pupils’ English education and hinder the success of MoE policy (2005). Subsequently, there is a divergence or a gap between MoE (2005) expectations and knowledge of primary school teachers’ competence and what is actually taking place at ground level. To remedy this dilemma, more communication between PHs and the government is essential if teachers are to receive adequate training to fulfil MoE (2005) expectations.

7.5.1 Teacher training

Conflicts between PHs’ perceptions of the training of competent teachers and the relevance of the training actually provided will inevitably impact upon classroom behaviour and subsequent learning outcomes.

Research (Borg, 2003) concerned with teacher cognition and preconceptions through prior learning experience has relevance for this study because of the CSTs’ perceptions of learning and the reflection of these in their own classroom practices, as shown in the case study findings. Although the majority of teachers believed they integrated English into content using a combined CLT/TBI approach, observation of the case study classrooms together with their perceptions of the necessary English skills required for teaching at this level did not reflect these perceptions. A combined CLT/TBI approach, as recommended by the MoE guidelines (2005) to be used during English classes, was significantly absent in Clara’s classroom. Nevertheless, although behaviourist approaches to teaching/learning in Clara’s pupils’ drawings do not reflect MoE guidelines (2005) involving a CLT approach to learning, they do reflect teaching university (PH) policy regarding the use of
tools. Some aspects of MoE policy (2005) regarding a CLT and a TBI approach was partially observed in the classroom of CST Helen and reflected in her pupils’ drawings.

All the teachers in the interviews, including the qualified English teacher Karin, but with the exception of the CST Clara, lamented the lack of opportunities to practise how fluent they were at speaking English, which reflected the teachers’ awareness of how inadequate they were at spoken English. Furthermore, oral–aural skills are the main learning focus of English education policy at S1. If teacher skills are lacking in this area, the learning outcomes will not be optimal. Teacher input, as research has shown, is important (Lee and Van Patten, 2003; Ellis, 1997), yet the study revealed that teachers lack confidence when using English and are sometimes imprecise in their use of grammar and pronunciation in the classroom, although they believe that they are sufficient for teaching at S1. This observation was partly corroborated by pupils’ drawings. Therefore, the self-concept of a competent teacher may be negatively influenced by perceived inadequacy and this could undermine the teaching taking place in the classroom: hence the reliance on the English textbook. Subsequently, MoE policy (2005) should be an influential factor upon teacher training at the PHs if primary school teachers are to be equipped with the necessary skills to fulfil education policy. Additionally the importance of correct teacher input (Long, 1996) requires that they are able to speak good English.

The lack of assessment of their English knowledge and skills during teacher training and after teachers have graduated, together with the absence of pupil assessment in English at primary school influenced teachers’ attitudes towards English. Consequently, future teacher training needs to take into account that lack of assessment with regard to graduate teachers’ English knowledge and skills has an impact on teachers’ own perceptions and attitude towards English teaching at primary school level.

The many misinterpretations of integration both at ground level and in the PH, and the resources and training available do not support effective implementation of English
integration into subjects for content learning. More research and greater understanding at all levels – government, PH, school and teacher – is required if the integration of English embodied in MoE policy (2005) for teaching/learning is to be achieved. At the moment, communication between all educational levels is lacking and has implications for teaching and education policies.

We now turn to the influence that diverse education policies have upon the teachers and their classroom practices.

7.5.2 Education policies

A major and significant finding of this study revealed that school policy, PH policy and MoE policy (2005) exist independently of one another, yet all have an impact on teachers’ classroom practice. Government legislation and the expectations placed upon teachers to integrate English into lessons without displacement of curricula are not realistic at the moment. Divergence with teachers’ perceptions of their teaching practices and actions also shows that the teaching approach and methods recommended in the MoE guidelines (2005) are not being adopted in the classrooms. Although evidence of a partial fulfilment of MoE policy (2005) with regard to pupils’ enjoyment during English learning was revealed in some of the drawings, it is not necessarily related to English learning but to teachers’ attitudes, teaching approaches and absence of assessment as discussed in Section 7.5.1.

In light of all these factors, questions arise concerning government educationalists’ own knowledge of what FL/L2 teaching/learning entails and specifically through an integrated approach. The expectations placed upon primary school teachers and the training required is extensive. Teachers’ lack of fundamental English knowledge and skills is traced to the lack of interpretation and communication between the MoE (2005) and teaching universities (PHs). Investigation of the teaching university (PH) policy for English and primary school teacher training revealed that the curriculum is ‘competence orientated’, i.e. is meant to ensure that teachers have the competence to teach in all subject areas.
However, the development of future primary school teachers’ own English competence and skills is not foreseen in their training or assessed upon graduation. Hence, primary school teachers are confronted with an area of teaching for which they have not received sufficient training.

The PH teaching staff are aware of the dilemma and have attempted to provide future teachers with resources and practical knowledge of using tools for English learning that will assist them during teaching. Nonetheless, development of teachers’ English skills and knowledge is not being undertaken and remains at Matura level (English equivalent of ‘A-level’), i.e. it has not progressed since leaving school. Furthermore, PH academics complained that these standards have often dropped by the time students enter the PH, as was revealed by the interviews; classroom observations of teacher pronunciation, fluency and grammar; and in some of the pupils’ drawings.

The need for a reassessment of teacher training and the use of tools and resources was reflected in the multiple data findings, i.e. in the teacher questionnaire, interviews, and in particular the pupils’ drawings. Therefore, because of the importance and necessity of teachers to understand language learning in order to plan and integrate language teaching into other subjects, the findings provoke a question concerning the future success of MoE policy (2005) with regard to language learning.

To conclude, classroom practice is influenced by the lack of communication between the stakeholders of education policy at different levels. Classroom practice is the focus of Section 7.5.3.

**7.5.3 Classroom practice**

Significant contradictory findings concerning teachers’ competence and attitudes towards English are linked to contextual factors. Although all the teachers believed that they have adequate skills for the teaching of S1 primary school pupils, in general the PH teachers and
director believed teachers’ English skills are not adequate and certainly not for an integrated CLIL-type approach in the classroom.

Language learning theories identified during the lessons were mainly a combination of psycholinguistic and sociocultural theory, methods and approaches (Figure 5.2). Although there was no evidence of a CLT approach from the interview responses, the case studies provided a more in-depth analysis and additional information.

CST Clara employed a predominantly cognitive approach to language learning, and teaching took place in the framework of behaviourist learning theory. In contrast CST Helen adopted a CLT approach in combination with teaching strategies characteristic of cognitive learning methods. The teaching tools in both case study classrooms and from seven of the eight additional interviewed teachers were identical. Nonetheless, observation of Helen’s classroom revealed contrasting teaching methods and strategies, indicating the influence that participation in additional English courses can bring about. Therefore the suggestion by Margolin (2011) concerning influential conflicting perceptions between teacher intentions and teacher practice has relevance and implications for continuous professional teacher development.

Consideration of difficulties with peer interactions by all of the teachers reflects the perceptions by teachers in CLIL classrooms where pupil language knowledge is also considered insufficient for subject content learning to be made (Dalton-Puffer, 2007). In the classrooms, teacher–learner interactions outnumbered learner–learner interactions. Although learning content involving a large repertoire of vocabulary and some short phrases is being acquired by the pupils, peer interaction is low and this has implications for English language development and knowledge. Research has shown how interaction enables learners to ‘notice’ gaps in their FL/L2 skills and negotiate with their peers for meaning, which influences pupil self-reflection upon their FL/L2 output (Swain, 2005; Gass, 2003). Ellis (2006) and Wray (2002) suggest that communication opportunities to
use FL/L2 through peer interaction contribute to FL/L2 development and knowledge. Additionally, the willingness of pupils to communicate with peers (Dörnyei, 2003), particularly in Helen’s classroom, was also reflected in her pupils’ behaviours and drawings where the development of interlanguage and the echoing of teacher pronunciation was revealed (Figure 5.15 and Table 5.15).

The shared IRF teaching/learning strategy in Helen’s classroom enabled the pupils to become part of the ‘teaching’ process and provided them with more opportunity to practise their output. Furthermore, it enabled the less talented pupils to be caught up in the flowing classroom interactions, in a safe learning environment where their English knowledge and output could be positively influenced by the more talented pupils. Ohta (2001) also suggests that opportunity for individual pupil output is often restricted and repetition of hearing the FL/L2 can partially assist learner FL/L2 cognition. Therefore, through the teacher’s use of joint pupil–teacher participation in the IRF sessions, pupils’ opportunities to practise and reflect upon their responses are increased. The use of verbal tone in Helen’s classroom was a major teaching strategy used to gain pupils’ attention. The chanted questions and tone variance during speaking and singing contrasted sharply with the lack of tone variance in Clara’s classroom (Table 5.4 and Figure 5.6). Therefore, pupils’ sensory perceptions involving oral–aural senses and skills in Helen’s classroom were continuously stimulated. Ushioda (2010) describes how research needs to investigate not only the cognitive processes but also the dynamic interactions taking place in the learning context. The multiple perspectives in this study brought to light information concerning expectations from inside (teacher, pupils) and outside (policy stakeholders, research) the primary classroom – the enjoyment pupils receive and their perceptions during various tasks – which may otherwise have not come to light. These are reflected and depicted in the pupils’ drawings and picture questionnaire and possibly in their English output, regardless of whether it is correct or not.
The CSTs’ choice of English vocabulary during the IRF sessions remained similar and restricted throughout the observation period. Walsh (2002) suggested that teachers’ verbal behaviours influence learner interaction participation, i.e. can either hinder or facilitate learners’ participation through the teacher’s choice of language. If teachers are the primary source of FL input, and FL skills and competence are limited, the quality and quantity available to the young learners is also limited (Tognini, 2008; Kim and Elder, 2005).

The study showed that the IRF sessions in both classrooms involved pupil recognition of vocabulary from flashcards and entailed mainly the use of pupil single-word responses. Scaffolding of previous key learnt vocabulary and sentence building by the pupils was not observed in any of the case study classrooms. However, the teachers did sometimes use short question phrases, thus placing vocabulary in context.

The use of songs for English learning was a major component of Helen’s lessons. They provided an authentic setting and oral–aural tool for teaching and learning with a clear focus on pronunciation and enjoyment. However, because global comprehension of song lyrics or rhymes during GK and Music lessons was not investigated in this study, it would be difficult to draw any conclusions about content learning through complex language. Language involving interactional communicative competence between the teacher and learners is the major medium for all learning in schools. Teacher FL/L2 input provides the learning context in which learners can construct their knowledge for understanding and communication (Ellis, 1997; Long, 1996).

Teachers’ restricted own English competence is a significant factor revealed by this study. Although it can be argued that pupils’ understanding, self-confidence and motivation through repetition of simple English language use is supported, the outcome is reduced meaningful interaction in English and will result in the reduction of successful learning, as research studies concerning connections between FL/L2 learning and interaction (McDonough, 2005; Mackey and Philip, 1998) have shown.
Investigating teacher feedback involved choices between English and German for praise, corrections, directives and explanations. Although the CSTs’ choice of English vocabulary was limited during positive feedback (praise), English was used more often in both classrooms than German. Nevertheless, it could be argued that the use of the expression ‘okay’ is a transparent and universal word that indicates acknowledgement and was used for positive feedback most of the time in Clara’s classroom. In contrast, mainly English was used to express praise in Helen’s classroom.

Corrective feedback was made only occasionally when it was not necessary. Corrections, when they were made, usually entailed teacher prompting either to recall vocabulary in combination with the flashcards or to correct incorrect vocabulary. Pronunciation was never corrected and pupils in both classrooms modelled their pronunciation upon their teacher’s. The lack of pupils’ incorrect use of English suggests successful learning. All of the factors reported in this section regarding the type of teaching taking place (drilling, IRF), lack of assessment and lack of English output practice undertaken during authentic peer interactions (particularly in Clara’s classroom), reduces pupils’ opportunities to make mistakes. Therefore, provision for reflection during English learning and the ‘noticing’ of gaps (Serra, 2007) in knowledge, which research has shown enhances cognition and FL/L2 development, is not available to Clara’s pupils. These factors relate to the lack of teachers’ knowledge of language learning theories and approaches as revealed in the multiple perspectives of this study.

The teacher-led context of Clara’s classroom presents a restrictive model of language learning that also restricts the development of pupil language learning strategies. In contrast, pupils from the learner-centred context of Helen’s classroom are encouraged to play with the language and develop their own ideas about language. Diverse strategies for memorising and reflection are explicitly and implicitly in use during Helen’s lessons. Pupils in Helen’s classroom also mispronounce vocabulary, yet their learning skills are
more flexible and this influences their perceptions of language learning. Hence, the provision of tools and strategies for later language learning that involves pupils coping with different teacher input (for example pronunciation, learning materials and tools such as CDs, or chanting while reflecting on their own understanding of language) is embedded within the learner-centred classroom. The pupils’ drawings reflected the teaching approaches used in the classrooms.

The high levels of full physical response recorded in Helen’s classroom during language lessons reveal increased pupil output, participation and easy memorising of songs and words, and this response influences the internalisation of the construction of meaning and knowledge in the classroom. Pupils not only hear, speak and see the language but also ‘feel’ it. Language becomes internalised through verbal and non-verbal whole physical action. The coordination of body movements in combination with the verbal use of the language assists pupils’ learning. The physical movements give expression and meaning to the language, thus language comes to life for the pupils through expressive meaningful movement.

The study has brought to light important aspects of language learning and the next section discusses recommendations for policy which can assist educationalists at diverse institutional levels.

7.6 Recommendations for policy

The way in which English integration is interpreted requires equal understanding and communication between the following institutional levels:

- Government: national.
- PHs: regional.
- Schools: local.
Recommendations for improving MoE policy (2005) involve the following:

1. Development of a standardised FL English teaching programme at all PHs in Austria. Although there are seven other optional languages English is the main FL language chosen to be taught in primary schools
Primary school teacher FL English training should be identical for all PHs in order to ensure equal levels of teacher training quality and interpretation of educational aims at a national level. Therefore, sufficient teacher English education consisting of the relevant necessary curriculum criteria – teacher language skills, knowledge of language learning theories and approaches, and classroom practice – should all be stipulated in government legislation.

2. Implementation of compulsory English assessment for all primary school teachers upon graduation from PH
National standardised assessment for all primary school teachers would ensure that teacher knowledge and training meet the MoE stipulations (2005). Therefore, the development of standardised English criteria at PHs for assessment needs to be developed.

3. Compulsory in-service training of professional primary teachers
When necessary, in-service training would ensure equal access to English learning for primary school pupils. Where experienced teachers do not or cannot meet the standardised assessment and criteria of English FL training (for whatever reason) a specialist English teacher should be allocated to work together with the general subject class teacher.

4. Modification of the existing primary school curriculum content at Stage one (S1)
Additional time for English lessons or the abolition of integration into content in favour of classical English lessons could be beneficial for all classroom participants. At the moment the one-hour weekly integration of English into the curriculum is not effective or sufficient despite the claim by Ajuba (2007) of the successful implementation of mini CLIL in
Austrian primary classrooms, an assertion which the present study sought to examine, especially given the lack of specifically focused primary teacher training. A FL language teaching concept for all primary schools would also enable easier transition to the next school level for all participants, i.e. teachers and pupils.

Policy targets will not be met if teachers lack the necessary linguistic and/or pedagogical competences. On the other hand, teacher training might not be readily offered where there is no realisation of an actual gap in competence/confidence to balance out the perspectives. The issues include the apparent non-existence of genuinely communicative integration of English into subjects and the lack of understanding by, and communication between, the different players responsible for implementing national policy.

5. Implementation of the relevant curricular content at the PHs

Relevant curricular content is required to supplement MoE policy (2005) and provide future teachers with the fundamental FL knowledge necessary to teach early foreign language learners. Additionally, factors involving teacher perceptions and attitudes (Margolin, 2011; Borg, 2003) towards FL/L2 teaching and learning need to be taken into account.

6. Implementation of a national standardised assessment of pupils’ L2 at S1 of primary school

National standardised assessment of pupils’ L2, most frequently English, would assist the change in attitude towards learning a language at primary level by the participants involved (directors, teachers, pupils). Additionally, teachers would gain more insight into the learning of their pupils, which subsequently would assist teachers to constructively reflect upon their own teaching methods, strategies and approaches. However, national standardised L2 assessment could jeopardize the main aim of all teachers, directors and the ministry, by placing pressure on teachers' and pupils' to gain good grades. Nonetheless,
research evidence that assessment diminishes pupils' enjoyment of English learning in primary school has not yet been investigated.

7.7 Recommendations for research

Research in English teaching/learning in Austrian primary schools to date is infrequent. Buchholz’s large-scale and mainly quantitative study (2007) provided some information of English teaching taking place in primary schools; however, the study did not make distinctions between the specific primary school levels. This study on the other hand set out to investigate in detail how English is taught in the classrooms of S1 pupils and a mainly qualitative mixed methods approach to data collection and analysis for rich interpretation of the findings was used. The study did not specifically address the outcome of pupils’ learning and more research would be valuable.

Given its small dimensions, the study could not definitively demonstrate the success or failure of national policy, but the concerns it identified deserve broader studies. Most research in this area to date has explored post-primary teaching contexts and there is a lack of research in primary school settings. One of the reasons for this is the difficulty of obtaining adequate information on children’s perceptions. In the light of this scarcity of research, the value of this and other primary studies is per se great.

The present study addressed pupil perceptions employing innovative and fruitful methods. Indications from observation and drawings suggest that further research into successful strategies for ELL would bring rewards. For example:

- sharing teacher–pupil questioning during IRF sessions in young learners’ classrooms and the impact this has upon pupil FL learning motivation and FL output
- comparative gender investigation of young pupils’ perceptions of FL learning
• influence of full physical movement and FL learning – gender and perceptions, enjoyment, participation, output, cognition

• influence of teacher attitudes and beliefs towards FL teaching on pupils’ learning.

More research into these areas could inform the educational and academic community and provide teachers with a wider range of teaching strategies.

This study identified teachers’ attitudes, enjoyment and motivation that impacted on pupils’ perceptions and learning at S1. The original use of drawings when working with young participants provided a reliable and valid tool for data collection for the analysis and the findings. Rather than relying on one specific data collection tool or one perspective – teacher, policymaker or student – this study aimed at combining different perspectives and the findings from different tools to assemble a complex and multifaceted picture of the primary classroom in Austria and illustrate how English is actually taught. The interviews provided in-depth investigation of teachers’ and academics’ perceptions of English. Teacher training, teaching methods and strategies, lesson planning, teaching aims and content of the lessons together with teacher attitudes towards English teaching/learning in primary school were discussed. The teacher questionnaire complemented the interviews to provide a backcloth to the qualitative data from a wider selection of the population. Data collection of pupils’ perceptions of English integration into curriculum subjects was made with a picture questionnaire. It provided a tool for comparative analysis between teachers’ perceptions of integration and associations were made to school and MoE policy and guidelines (2005). The data collection of pupils’ drawings analysed through visual grammar provided deeper insight into their perceptions of the English lessons and of English per se. Reflections of the teaching taking place in the classroom, i.e. approach, methods, strategies and tools used, were investigated. These were then analysed through the lens of general learning and FL learning theories/approaches and associations to teacher attitudes to English, school policy and MoE policy (2005) were made. Further
research in this area could be beneficial to teacher educators with regard to how teachers’ confidence in their own FL competence, attitudes and beliefs can influence teachers’ identity and their classroom practices.

Finally, the multi-method, qualitative and quantitative approach of this study is to be recommended for further educational research to show disparities – which can be inconvenient for both policymakers and researchers – between:

1. what teachers say and what they do
2. what different levels of administration believe to be the case
3. policy guidance and real-life implementation.

To conclude, if pupils are to receive the best education possible, policy stakeholders need to communicate and work together to provide teachers with the necessary and relevant training. Consequently, research requires more investigation into real-life situations and contexts if the gap between theory, policy and practice is to be closed.
References


Appendix A
Two sample transcriptions taken from the field notes and chart

Sample one

Clara (CST1): classroom observation lesson 1, transcription from field notes and chart

Lesson content themes: Fruits and vegetables. I like, I don't like, boys and girls

**Teacher classroom movements**
Front                                           1x  
Desk                                            Almost all of the time
Blackboard                                      7x  
Moves through classroom                         2x  
Moves to pupil desks                            10x

**Gestures**
Points                                          32 x  
Facial                                          5x  
Hand indications (me/you)                       6x  
Rubs tummy                                      2x

**Tools**
Flashcards                                      2x  
Book                                            2x  
Blackboard                                      1x

**Pupil classroom movement**
Whole class rubs tummy                         1x  
Individual                                      1x pupil
Desks                                           1x

**Turntaking**
Teacher (T)                                     54x  
Individual pupils (P)                          30x  
Whole class (C)                                 7x

**T. Classroom management/explanations**

Directives                                      
L1 (German)                                     3x  
L2 (English)                                    1x  
Praise                                          
L1                                             3x  
L2                                             1x

**Classroom teaching order**

1. Blackboard and flashcards - T. Input-P. Output IRF teaching strategy
2. Memory Game at blackboard
3. Flashcards at blackboard - Teacher introduces I like- I don't like
4. Teacher seated at her desk - continues with gestures I don't like
5. Vocabulary learning - taken from Playway
6. Repetition of chant - Playway

*Lack of own teacher input observed in the classroom - follows Playway diligently*
Sample two

Helen (CST2): transcription from classroom observation of the P.E. lesson and immediate thoughts from field notes

Lesson takes place in the gymnasium. The teacher has set up different P.E. equipment and has called them stations. Flashcards have been placed on and around each station to stimulate pupils memory, use and recognition of English words that they have previously learnt and are learning in the lessons (sometimes at odds with the equipment for example a flashcard showing a dress).

The main focus of the lesson appears to be on body parts. The lesson begins with children and teacher forming a circle in the centre of the gymnasium and P.E equipment. A CD player is in use and all participants sing enthusiastically and loudly a counting song.

The teacher moves the focus to body parts. The children listen to the song on the CD and simultaneously move the body parts being sung. This entails:

- stamping
- jumping
- marching
- clapping

Upon the second hearing of the CD the teacher says.

T: Just the movements once again, listen carefully.

The children actively and happily join in with the song moving the correct parts of their bodies.

The teacher then questions in English different children and the class as a whole each time gestures are made with the body parts:

T: Where are your hands? (touch your hands) now clap your hands
T: Where are your toes? (touch your toes) wriggle your toes
T: Where are your legs? (touch your legs) jump with your legs
T: Where are your feet? (touch your feet) stamp your feet
T: Where is your head? (touch your head) shake your head
T: Where are your arms? (touch your arms) swing your arms
T: Where is your nose? (touch your nose) wriggle your nose
T: Where are your eyes? (touch your eyes) close your eyes
T: Where are your ears? (touch your ears) listen with your ears
T: Where is your mouth? (touch your mouth) open your mouth

The children all happily and correctly answer and do the corresponding gestures with the teacher and alone without any directive from the teacher.

The teacher plays the game three times using a different order of body parts to be identified and moved.

The teacher turns on the CD player again (fourth time) and this time all the children sing with it touching the body parts sung.
This is repeated twice. (CD used six times in all)
The teacher then holding the flashcards in her hands once again asks individual pupils to name the body parts for example:

T: What’s this?
P: head
T: very good!
(More detail on audio-recording)

Explanation of P.E equipment

The lesson continues with the teacher explaining first in German and then English what the children have to do at the different stations of the P.E equipment (teacher walking with them around the gym). She explains how they have to feel the soft balls under their feet and toes at one piece of apparatus one child spontaneously calls out:
P: Stinky toes! This is interesting as the teacher has only used the word toes on its own. However, stinky socks were taught in the previous lesson where clothes was the theme of the lesson. Associations to the use of ‘novelty words for developing conceptions and learning can be observed here.

Note: Lit review: Children's' developing cognition for FL learning.

STATION ONE: Hoops (body parts)

T: Ihr müsst zuerst hinein in den Reifen springen (only German) (You have to jump into the hoop)
P: Und hier? (and here?) (A tube like piece of equipment to crawl through)
T: (explains in German then English): you must crawl through it

The children all work through station one the teacher praises them in English and gives directions in German when necessary to keep control of louder pupils.

STATION TWO: walking feeling through feet (senses)

T: Now carefully walk can you feel with your feet, with your toes?

STATION THREE: walking feeling through trough of air filled plastic bags (senses)

T: Can you feel? It is soft weich .(Code-switching to German for the word soft)

Children are laughing and joking suddenly a few of them begin to try to jump on the bags to make them explode

T: Wieso macht ihr das? Ihr macht das kaputt, dann können die Kinder nach euch nicht den Unterschied spüren, hört auf! (crossly: Why are you doing that? You will ruin it and then the children after you can not feel the difference, stop it!)

STATION FOUR: a built up bridge with the vaults and mats which the children have to climb through and on the other side roll out onto a mat where flashcards of fruits and veg need to be ordered into categories with the correct English name before moving onto station five (repetition of learnt words)

T: Crawl through and then order in fruits and vegetables.
STATION FIVE: another bridge built from mats repetition of learnt words

T: Explains in German that they need to crawl through see what they can find inside then one child demonstrates and teacher asks:
T: What can you find inside?
P: A ball

STATION SIX: a hanging mat (hammock) has been balanced between the two ropes (testing of vocabulary knowledge)

Teacher explains in German that when the pupils reach this station and piece of equipment each child, taking it in turns has to lie on their tummy facing her while she swings them backward and forward gently. Each time the child swings forward towards her the teacher holds up a different flashcard of a body part and will ask what it is.

T: What's this? (the pupil has time to consider while swinging backwards and answers on swinging forward in the hammock)

Upon completion of explaining to the class each equipment station the teacher gives directions in German for the children to do all the stations this time alone without her assistance while she works with the first pupil swinging in the hammock. The children all use German to communicate with one another during the lesson while the teacher is testing each individual child's knowledge of the English vocabulary with the flashcards. The teacher asks each pupil 6 different body parts. While she undertakes this with each pupil the other pupils repeat the stations again and again until it is there turn to be questioned in the hammock.

It gets quite noisy in the gymnasium but all of the pupils are busy on the P.E. equipment.

At the closure of the lesson the teacher calls:

T: Okay we finish come to me, come to me come to the centre in a circle, Kreis (Code-switching).
The teacher turns on the CD and the body song starts to play.
The children and teacher move to the CD using the body parts named in the song as at the beginning of the lesson.
The CD is played again and the pupils all join in with the words and movements this time.

T: very gently, quietly and slowly, sit down on your knees, on your knees, look knees (points to her knees as she is kneeling) and we relax.
T: Hands on floor ..........., head on floor..........., close your eyes....... feel your breath silence comes over the gym
T: (louder) Sit up (pupils all sit up) stretch one arm, stretch the other arm (pupils follow teacher and movements) shake your fingers and stand up.
T: Very quietly, very quietly (finger to lips) we go back to the classroom.

LESSON END

Teacher explains to me how the children learn the vocabulary in the classroom before they go into the gymnasium. In the gymnasium they see the words on the flashcards before each P.E station and the flashcards are also placed both inside the equipment and are placed
outside the pupils' where the pupils' come out of the equipment. So the vocabulary becomes embodied during all stages of movement of the P.E lesson.

**T:** *Sie leben es, sie nehmen es auf!* (They live it, they absorb it!).
# Appendix B
Classroom observation chart

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Movement</th>
<th>Teacher</th>
<th>Pupil</th>
<th>Class</th>
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<tr>
<td>Desk (D)</td>
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### Appendix C
#### Pupil picture questionnaire

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Appendix D (English)
Teacher questionnaire

Section A

1. Which primary school class are you teaching this year? Please tick one box only.
   - First year
   - Second year
   - Third year
   - Fourth year
   - If other please state below:

2. How does the English instruction take place? Please tick one box only.
   - Integrated into one or more subjects of the class curriculum
   - Separately in the style of classic English lessons
   - If other please state below:

3. In which subject do you integrate English? Please tick all the boxes that apply.
   - Maths
   - Physical Education
   - Music
   - General knowledge
   - Art
   - If other please state below:

4. Who decides which learning tools, and especially which book/s are to be used for English in the classroom? Please tick one box only.
   - Myself
   - The school
   - If other please state below:
Section B

1. How much lesson time is used for English? Please tick one box only.

☐ Once a week for one hour

☐ Twice a week for half an hour

☐ Three times a week for 20 minutes

☐ If other please state below:

2. Is English taught on a fixed time and day? Please tick one box only.

☐ Yes ☐ No

☐ If other please give details in the box below:

3. Would you like more teaching time for English in the first and second year classes? Please tick one box only.

☐ Yes ☐ No

☐ If other please give details below:

4. How much preparation time do you need for the lessons in English in comparison to the other lessons in German? Please tick one box only.

☐ More time ☐ Less time ☐ The same amount of time

☐ Please give details in the box below:
Section C

1. Please tick all of the definitions of which you have knowledge below:

☐ CLIL  ☐ Bilingual instruction
☐ Content-based-instruction  ☐ Task-based-instruction
☐ Communicative language teaching
☐ Second language acquisition
☐ Immersion classrooms
☐ If you have knowledge of others, please give details in the box below:

2. Do you use only the English language during the English instruction? Please tick one box only.

☐ Yes  ☐ No

☐ Please give details in the box below:

Section D

1. What do you consider to be the most important during English instruction in your classroom? Please number the boxes in order of importance below from 1-9. (1=high importance, 9=low importance).

☐ Pronunciation
☐ Pupil knowledge of vocabulary and phrases
☐ Content comprehension
☐ Pupil enjoyment of English
☐ Peer communication in English
☐ Correct grammar
☐ Repetition of words and phrases
☐ Physical and verbal interaction during English instruction
☐ Subject content competence and comprehension
☐ If other please state below:
2. Do you enjoy teaching English in the classroom? Please tick one box only.

☐ Yes  ☐ No

☐ If other please state below:

3. For statistical analysis please give the following information. Naturally, all data will be treated confidentially and participant anonymity will be maintained throughout the project. Thank you!

How many years have you been teaching? __________
How many years have you been teaching in a primary school? __________
Do you have an additional English qualification to your teaching qualification? Please tick one box only.

☐ Yes  ☐ No

Please give details in the box below:

Thank you for your participation in this project.
Teil A

1. Welche Klasse unterrichten Sie dieses Schuljahr in Englisch? *Bitte kreuzen Sie nur ein Feld an.*
   - Schüler der Ersten Klasse
   - Schüler der Zweiten Klasse
   - Schüler der Dritten Klasse
   - Schüler der Vierten Klasse
   ■ Falls anders, bitte in der untenstehenden Box angeben:

2. Wie findet der Englischunterricht statt? *Bitte kreuzen Sie nur ein Feld an.*
   - integriert in ein oder mehrere Unterrichtsfächer des Regelunterrichtes
   - gesondert im Sinne der klassischen Englischunterrichtsstunde
   ■ Falls anders, bitte in der untenstehenden Box angeben:

3. In welche Unterrichtsfächer integrieren Sie Englisch? *Bitte kreuzen Sie alle Felder, die zutreffen, an.*
   - Mathematik
   - Turnen und Leibeserziehung
   - Musik
   - Sachunterricht
   - Bildnerische Erziehung
   ■ Falls andere, bitte in der untenstehenden Box angeben:

4. Wer trifft die Entscheidung, welche Unterrichtsmaterialien, insbesondere welches Lehrbücher, verwendet werden? *Bitte kreuzen Sie nur ein Feld an.*
   - ich selbst
   - die Schule
   ■ Falls andere, bitte in der untenstehenden Box angeben:
Teil B.
1. Wie viel Zeit ist für Englisch im Unterricht angedacht? *Bitte kreuzen Sie nur ein Feld an.*

☐ Einmal pro Woche eine Stunde.

☐ Zweimal pro Woche je eine halbe Stunde.

☐ Dreimal pro Woche je 20 Minuten.

☐ Falls anders, bitte in der untenstehenden Box angeben:

2. Findet die Englischstunde stets zur selben Zeit an einem bestimmten Tag statt? *Bitte kreuzen Sie nur einen Feld an.*

☐ Ja ☐ Nein

☐ Falls anders, bitte in der untenstehenden Box beschreiben:


☐ Ja ☐ Nein

☐ Falls andere, bitte genauere Angaben bitte in die untenstehende Box:

4. Wie viel Vorbereitungszeit benötigen Sie für den Unterricht in englischer Sprache im Vergleich zum Regelunterricht gehalten in Deutsch? *Bitte kreuzen Sie nur ein Feld an.*

☐ mehr Zeit ☐ weniger Zeit ☐ gleich viel Zeit

☐ Genauere Angaben, bitte in die untenstehenden Box:
Teil C.
1. Bitte kreuzen Sie alle Begriffe an, die Ihnen geläufig sind:

☐ CLIL  ☐ Bilingual instruction / bilingualer Unterricht
☐ Content-based-instruction  ☐ Task-based-instruction
☐ Communicative language teaching / kommunikativer Sprachunterricht
☐ Second language acquisition / Zweitspracherwerb
☐ Immersion classrooms / Immersionsunterricht
☐ Falls andere oder weitere, bitte in die untenstehende Box eintragen:


☐ Ja  ☐ Nein

☐ Genauere Angaben bitte in die untenstehende Box:

Teil D.

☐ Aussprache
☐ Vokabel- und Phrasenwissen der Schüler
☐ Verstehen der Inhalte
☐ Spaß der Schüler am Englischlernen
☐ Sprechen der Schüler untereinander in englischer Sprache
☐ grammatikalische Richtigkeit
☐ Wiederholung von Wörter und Phrasen
☐ körperliche und verbale Betätigung/Interaktion während des Unterrichts in Englisch
☐ fachliches und inhaltliches Verständnis
☐ Falls andere oder weitere, bitte in die untenstehende Box eintragen:

☐ Ja  ☐ Nein

☐ Falls andere, bitte in der untenstehenden Box angeben:

3. Für statistische Zwecke geben Sie bitte noch die folgenden Daten bekannt. Die Daten werden selbstverständlich vertraulich und anonym behandelt. Vielen Dank!

Wie viele Jahre unterrichten Sie schon? __________
Wie viele Jahre davon unterrichten Sie an einer Volksschule? __________
Haben Sie eine Englische Lehrqualifikation zusätzlich zu Ihrer Lehrqualifikation? Bitte kreuzen Sie nur ein Feld an.

☐ Ja  ☐ Nein

Bitte in der untenstehenden Box angeben:

Danke für Ihre Mitarbeit an diesem Projekt.
Appendix E
Interview Extracts: Original German

Extract 4.1
Forscher: Wann findet die integrierte Englischunterrichtsstunde während der Schulwoche statt?


Extract 4.2
Forscher: Wann findet die integrierte Englischunterrichtsstunde während der Schulwoche statt?


Extract 5.1-5.6
Forscher: Wie integrieren Sie Englisch zeitmäßig in die Unterrichts- Lehrplanfächer?

5.1 Babsi: Es funktioniert nicht wirklich. Ich mache zwei mal eine halbe Stunde pro Woche, ah, ich zweige es von anderen Fächern ab, manchmal Deutsch, manchmal Mathe.

5.3 Helen: Ich mache eine halbe Stunde Deutsch und eine halbe Stunde Englisch, zweimal die Woche an zwei Tagen.

5.4 Gabi: Naja, Musik ist eine Stunde, also mache ich eine halbe Stunde Musik und eine halbe Stunde English, und ich kürze andere Stunden.

5.5 Ursula: Ich nehme etwas von der Deutsch oder Mathematikstunde.


Extract 5.7

Forscher: Wie integrieren Sie Englisch in den Lehrplan in Bezug auf die Zeiteinteilung?

5.7 Karin: Da gibt’s kein Problem. Es ist wichtig für Kinder in diesem Altern, in der Tat extrem wichtig, dass sie viel sprechen um ihr Vokabular zu entwickeln. Ob es nun Deutsch oder Englisch oder vermischt ist, ist irrelevant. Es ist eine wunderbare Möglichkeit für die Kinder. Und ich kann, wenn ich zum Beispiel mit ihnen Zahlen mache, ihnen das in Englisch beibringen.

Extracts 5.8-5.11

Forscher: In welchem Fach oder in welchen Fächern integrieren sie Englisch und warum?

5.8 Mary Es passt gut in Musik...wir singen

5.9 Helen: Es fließt im Allgemeinwissen schön in die diversen Themen ein.

5.10 Karin: Wir machen Themen, zum Beispiel Obst im Allgemeinwissen.
5.11 Steve: Farben, Nummern ....dann gibt es Tierschutz. Die Kinder lieben das Vokabular von Tieren zu lernen wie Hund, Katze... so integriere ich es im Allgemeinwissen and Wochenthemen....

Extract 5.12
Forscher: In welchem Fach oder in welchen Fächern integrieren sie Englisch und warum?

Extracts 5.13–5.15
Forscher: Welche Art von Unterstützung würden Sie begrüßen während des Unterrichts, wenn überhaupt, und warum?
5.13 Gabi: Ein Native Speaker hin und wieder ware toll, manchmal fehlen mir die Worte…
5.14 Helen: Ich glaube, es sollte besondere Englischlehrer in der Volksschule geben.
5.15 Edith: Es ware wunderbar einen Native Speaker in der Stunde zu haben.

Extracts 5.16–5.18
Forscher: Wie empfinden Sie, dass Ihre Klasse die Englisch integrierenden Unterrichtsstunden mögen?
5.16 Helen: Meine Klasse liebt sie … denn es gibt keinen Notendruck…
5.17 Mary: Die Kinder genießen es Englisch zu lernen, denn da ist kein Druck gute Noten zu bekommen…
Selina: Generell, die Kinder finden Englisch super und sie glauben, sie sind so cool. Sie lernen spielerischer, viel besser als unter Druck und mit Benotung.

Extract 5.19

Forscher: Wie sind die Schulregeln in Bezug auf Englischlernen für Erst- und Zweitklassler?

Doris: Natürlich ist Englisch eine nette Sache, aber es ist nicht das Hauptlernziel für Schüler in diesem Stadium. Deutsch, Lesen und Schreiben sind die Hauptmerkmale in unserer Schule für Lernen.

Extract 5.20

Forscher: Wie sind die Schulregeln in Bezug auf Englischlernen für Erst- und Zweitklassler?

Clara: Die Kinder haben schon so viele Stunden. Deutsch Lesen und Schreiben sind wichtiger in dieser Stadium.

Extract 5.21

Forscher: Wie würden Sie die Extrazeit für die Unterrichtsstunden bemessen?

Doris: Ich denke es wäre besser, wenn eine halbe Stunde extra oder eine ganze Stunde zur Verfügung stünden für Englisch weil denn musste jede Lehrer/Lehrerin eins Stunde Englisch unterrichten-Momentan tuen sie es nicht alle, sie behaupten dass sie haben andere prioritäten als Englisch zu integrieren in Ihren unterricht.

Extracts 5.22 and 5.23
Forscher: Wie würden Sie die Extrazeit für die Unterrichtsstunden bemessen?

5.22 Clara: Die Kinder haben schon so viele Stunden, dass eine Extrastunde Englisch bedeuten würde, dass sie jeden Tag bis 1 Schule hätten.

5.23 Helen: Es ist in den ersten zwei Jahren nicht schwierig. Ich unterrichte das notwendigste in den anderen Fächern und dann mache ich Englisch.

Extracts 5.24 and 5.25

Forscher: Wie ist die Schulpolitik in Bezug auf Englischlernen für die Erst- und Zweitklassler?

5.24 Flora: Englisch ist wichtig, aber es ist nicht genug Zeit.


Extract 5.26

Forscher: Wie würden Sie Zuatzstunden für den Unterricht beurteilen und warum?


Extracts 5.27 and 5.28

Forscher: Wie beurteilen Sie das Konzept von CLIL im Unterricht in diesem Stadium?
5.27 **Flora:** Ich glaube, es ist ein gutes Konzept, aber ich glaube weniger talentierte Kinder würden zurückfallen. Ebenso würde viel mehr Vorbereitungszeit für solche Unterrichtsstunden notwendig sein.

5.28 **Doris:** Ich kenne CLIL nicht.

**Extracts 5.29 and 5.30**

Forscher: Wie nehmen Sie die Auffassung der Eltern zu Englischlernen in diesem Stadium wahr?

5.29 **Doris:** Das ist das nächste Problem, es gibt ja keine Noten in Englisch und somit fällt es nicht in die höchste Priorität für die Eltern verglichen mit anderen Fächern.

5.30 **Flora:** Oh, die Eltern sind sehr interessiert daran, dass ihre Kinder Englisch lernen, und wir haben oft kleine Englischprojekte in der Schule, zu welchen die Eltern eingeladen sind.

**Extracts 5.31 and 5.32**

Forscher: Welche Art von Hilfsmitteln werden in der Schule verwendet?

**Researcher:** What types of tools are in use in the school?

5.31 **Flora:** Wir haben ein Setbook, aber die Lehrer dürfen verwenden, was sie wollen. Die Lehrer sind kompetent genug.

5.32 **Doris:** Wir haben ein Setbook, und es ist wirklich nicht möglich damit etwas falsch zu machen. Es gibt eine Bedienungsanleitung und ein Buch zum Unterricht und eines für die Schüler. Was ich besonders gut finde, sind die Resourcen mit dem Buch. Die CDs sind von Nativspeakern aufgenommen und alles ist sehr gut aufgebaut.
**Extracts 5.33 and 5.34**

Forscher: Wie würden Sie die Englischfähigkeiten der Studenten bewerten, wenn sie an die Universität kommen?

**5.33 Pauline:** Ich denke immer, es ist nicht genug für Volksschulniveau, denn sie können nicht … hmm… es ist nicht nur wenn sie sprechen, sondern auch bei einfachen Sätzen … hmm… gerade in der letzten Stunde hatte ich so viel zu korrigieren. Ich glaube, sie sind sehr zuversichtlich, das ist das Problem, denn sie glauben es reicht für einen Volksschullehrer, verstehen Sie?

**5.34 Rita:** Das Niveau ist sehr, manchmal erschreckend niedrig, wenn man bedenkt, dass es Matura-(A-Level)Niveau sein sollte. Manchmal haben wir Studenten mit einer anderen Art von Qualifikation, z.B. Praktikanten, bei denen die Englischausbildung nicht so hoch ist wie bei anderen Studenten. Manchmal haben wir Studenten, die die Schule vor ein paar Jahren abgeschlossen haben und seither kein Englisch gebraucht haben. Ich persönlich hätte insgesamt einen höheren Standard erwartet.

**Extracts 5.35 and 5.36**

Forscher: Und die Evaluierung bei den Studenten?

**5.35 Pauline:** Ich habe Grammatiktests eingeführt, also müssen sie alle einen Grammatiktest im ersten Semester machen, aber die meisten fallen durch, er ist sehr schwer. Aber ich möchte sie nicht melden, man darf einen Test nur 3 Mal machen und dann wird man rausgeworfen.

**5.36 Rita:** Oh, nur sehr wenig. Ich unterrichte Schulpraxis und nicht die theoretische Seite von Englisch. Die Studenten lernen, wie sie Hilfsmittel und Materialien zum Gebrauch im Klassenzimmer während des Englischunterrichts entwickeln können.
Extracts 5.37 and 5.38

Forscher: Was sind Ihre Lernziele?

5.37 Pauline: Ich wünsche mir viele Lernmaterialien die sie in ihren Stunden selbst nutzen können. So, dass sie wissen wie sie die weiteren Materialien herstellen die sie brauchen. Internetseiten wo man die Materialien herunterladen kann und weitere Informationen finden über die verschiedenen Gegenstände und wiederholende Gegenstände zu unterrichten ohne die Studenten zu langweilen. Ich möchte sie wegbekommen von engen Grenzen der Methode von nur Dinge niederzuschreiben wie die Vokabeln.

5.38 Rita: Für mich ist es vermutlich das wichtigste Ziel das dem Lehrer das Unterrichten gefällt. Ich gebe ihnen eine Menge Werkzeuge und Materialien die sie mitnehmen, damit sie nicht von einem Standardbuch abhängig sind. Es ist wichtig das die Kinder eine Menge Vokabeln lernen, damit die vom Lehrer gebrauchten Vokabeln von den Kindern verstanden werden und das der Lehrer versuchen kann, nur Englisch mit ihnen zu sprechen, damit sie Englisch in den ganzen Tag integrieren können.

Extracts 5.39 and 5.40

Forscher: Was ist die Universitätspolitik für den Englischunterricht von Studenten zum Volksschullehrer?

5.39 Pauline: Das Ziel der Institution ist zu lehren wie man unterrichtet und die Materialien. Wenn wir ihnen nur Gramatik beibringen und den Fokus darauf legen das wir die Universität sind und wir alle wissen das die Lehrer dort nicht so qualifiziert mit dem Umgang mit realen jungen Lernenden sind.
5.40 Rita: Genau so wenig on top wie es in der Schule ist. Vom Stellenwert her ist es hier auch eher gering, es sind auch nicht so viele Stunden aber im Gesamtmaß der VS Ausbildung gesehen, wie die VS Lehrer sehr viele Gegenstände gelehrt werden und unterrichten müssen ist es wenig, aber es geht fast nicht mehr.

Extract 5.41
Forscher: Wie ist das Curriculum gestaltet um die Lehrerausbildung für die Integration von Englisch in der Volksschule unterzubringen?
5.41 Debi: Ich bin verantwortlich für die Ausbildung, den Stundenplan aber hauptsächlich für die Fachkräfte. Ich bin verantwortlich für den Stundenplan aber nicht für den Inhalt jeden Gegenstand ist Lehre. Die Universität ist nicht zuständig was in den Klassenzimmern passiert.

Extract 5.42
Forscher: Wie ist die Strategie der Universität für die Ausbildung der Volksschullehrer?
5.42 Debi: Wir haben ein nach Kompetenzen organisiertes Curriculum und die Lehrer sind aufgefordert sicherzustellen, dass die Studenten die notwendige Kompetenz erreichen, aber ich kann nicht sagen wie. Wir haben kein spezielles System.

Extract 5.43
Forscher: Wie werden die Englischfähigkeiten der Studenten bewertet, wenn sie graduieren?
5.43 Debi: Wir haben Kompetenzmessungen über die Forschung drüber und es wird immer wieder, weil kann kann nicht 1,400 Studierende in der Kompezenzmessung in allen Fächern nehmen ... Dann wird immer wieder ausgewählt, irgendein Modul oder ein Fach und dann geht man in dem Jahr dort hinein und schaut sich die Kompetenz an. Derzeit ist gerade die Forschungskompetenz dran. Also darum kann ich Ihnen nichts über Englisch sagen.

Extract 5.44

Forscher: Was sind ihre Erkenntnisse von Fremdsprachen oder zweite Sprachelernen in Volksschulen?


Extracts 6.1 and 6.2

Forscher: Wenn die Kinder es nicht verstehen, wie erklären sie es dann Deutsch oder Englisch?

6.2 Helen: Ich verusche nur in Englisch während der Stunden zu unterrichten und zu erklären aber manchmal muss ich in Deutsch erklären, wenn sie es nicht verstehen.

**Extracts 6.3 and 6.4**

Forscher: Und Ihre eigenen Englisch-Fähigkeiten? Wie habe Sie Ihre Fähigkeiten erreicht?


6.4 Helen: Es ist manchmal beschämend, weil ich soviel vergessen habe und ich nachschauen muss.

**Extracts 6.5 and 6.6**

Forscher: Wie haben Sie Ihre Englischfähigkeiten für das unterrichten angemessen?

6.5 Clara: Für die Schule reicht es aus.

6.6 Helen: Für meine Klasse reicht es allemal und da sind zwei oder drei Kinder die mehr bräuchten, aber sie sind wirklich talentierte Kinder aber es gibt halt nicht viele davon. Manchmal kenne ich nicht die genaue Aussprache ... dann bin ich unsicher und wenn es einen Nativspeaker oder Englischlehrer in der Schule gibt, dann fragen wir direkt und es ist eine große Hilfe.

**Extract 6.9** Forscher: Welche Art von Werkzeugen verwenden Sie während der Unterrichtsstunden?

**Extracts 6.10 and 6.11**

Forscher: Und wie war Ihr eigener Englischunterricht?

6.10 Clara: Es war die reine Grammatik. Zeitformen etc etc. In der Akademie war es nur Grammatik, was wurde instruiert, nicht mehr und nicht weniger. Nicht wie man Englisch den Kindern beibringt.


**Extracts 6.12 and 6.13**

Forscher: Wie hat es Ihren eigenen Unterricht in der Klasse beeinflusst?


Extracts 6.14 and 6.15

Forscher: Wie planen und bereiten Sie den Englishunterricht vor?


Extract 6.16

Forscher: Wie planen und bereiten Sie den Englishunterricht vor?


Extract 6.17 and 6.18

Forscher: Wie wichtig ist der korrekte Gebrauch der Grammatik während der Stunde?


6.18 Mary: Sie lernen keine Grammatik auf diesem Niveau, sie lernen eine Menge Vokabel und kurze Sätze durch die CDs. Sie lernen Grammatik am Weg den sie folgen ....
Appendix F
Tables of interview sources from the Extracts

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</table>
Extract 5.19

Researcher: How is the school policy in relation to English learning for the first and second year pupils?

5.19 Doris: Of course English is a nice feature of the classroom, but it is not the main focus of learning for pupils at this stage. German, reading and writing are the main focus of learning.

(Source: School director interviews)

Extract 5.20

Researcher: How is the school policy in relation to English learning for the first and second year pupils?

5.20 Clara: German reading and writing are more important at this stage. The children already have so many lessons

(Source: Teacher interviews)

Excerpts 5.21, 5.22 and 5.23

Researcher: How would you consider extra time for the lessons?

5.21 Doris: I believe it would be better if an extra half an hour or a whole hour were available for learning English then every teacher would be forced to use the hour for English. At the moment this is not the case and teachers often claim that they have other priorities than English integration.
5.22 Clara: The children already have so many lessons that an additional English lesson would mean that they would have school every day until one o’clock.

5.23 Helen: It is not difficult at this stage, I do the necessary work of the other subjects then do English.

(Source: School director and Teacher interviews)

Extracts 5.24 and 5.25

Researcher: How is the school policy in relation to English learning for the first and second year pupils?

5.24 Flora: English is important but there is not enough time.

5.25 Helen: Absolutely very important, when one looks at the next level of schooling regardless the type … it is so important that children have some knowledge and I integrate into the lessons with lots of songs and movement (Source: School director and Teacher interviews)

Extract 5.26

Researcher: How would you consider extra time for the lessons and why?

5.26 Flora: Sometimes it is difficult because other subjects lose 10 minutes of their lesson time for English. Extra time would enable easier English integration into the subject content because there is so much content to get through.

(Source: School director interviews)
Extracts 5.27 and 5.28

**Researcher:** How do you consider the concept of CLIL for teaching at this stage?

5.27 **Flora:** *I believe it is a good concept but I think less talented children would fall behind. Also much more preparation time would be required for the lessons.*

5.28 **Doris:** *I have no knowledge of CLIL.*

(Source: School director interviews)

Extracts 5.29 and 5.30

**Researcher:** How do you perceive parental policy for English learning at this stage?

5.29 **Doris:** *That is the next problem, there is no pupil assessment of English; therefore it is not of high priority for the parents in relation to other subjects.*

5.30 **Flora:** *Oh the parents are very interested that their children learn English, and we often have small English projects within the school where the parents are invited.*

(Source: School director interviews)

Extracts 5.31 and 5.32

**Researcher:** What types of tools are in use in the school?

5.31 **Flora:** *We have a set book but the teachers can use whatever materials they wish to. Their skills I think are sufficient.*

5.32 **Doris:** *We have a set book, and it is not really possible to do anything wrong with it. There is an instruction manual and teaching*
and pupil books. What I find particularly good are the resources with the book. The CDs are from native speakers and it is all very well designed.

(Source: School director interviews)

Extracts 5.33 and 5.34

Researcher: How would you describe the students’ English skills when they enter the teaching university?

5.33 Pauline: I always experience that it is not enough at primary school level because they cannot it’s umm it’s not only when they are speaking but even very easy sentences umm … just the last lesson I have to correct so many things. I think they are very confident that’s the problem because they think that’s enough for a primary school teacher you see.

5.34 Rita: The standard is very, sometimes frighteningly low, when one thinks that it should be Matura (A-level) standard. Sometimes we have students who have a different type of qualification, for example apprentices where English education is not as high as other students. Sometimes we get students who left school a few years ago and have not used English since. I personally would have expected a higher standard altogether.

(Source: PH teacher/academics interviews)

Extracts 5.35 and 5.36

Researcher: What about student evaluation?

5.35 Pauline: I integrated grammar tests, so they all have to do a grammar test in the first semester but most of them fail, it is very
difficult. But I don’t want to register them because they are only allowed to do a test 3 times and if they fail then they are thrown out of the university.

5.36 Rita: Oh very little. I teach practical teaching skills and not the theoretical side of English. The students learn how to develop tools and materials for use in the classroom during English.

(Source: PH teacher/academics interviews)

Extracts 5.37 and 5.38

Researcher: What are your teaching aims?

5.37 Pauline: I want them to have lots of material that they can use in their lessons that they can do on their own. So that they know how to produce further material if they need to. Internet pages where you can download material and find further information about different topics and how to teach repetitive but not bore their students. I want them to get them away from the narrow minded methods of just writing things down like the vocabulary.

5.38 Rita: For me it is very important probably the most important aim that the teachers enjoy teaching. I give them lots of tools and materials to take with them so they do not rely on a standard set book. It is important that the children learn lots of vocabulary, that the vocabulary the teacher uses is understood by the children and that the teacher tries to only speak English with them, that she integrates English the whole day.

(Source: PH teacher/academics interviews)
Extracts 5.39 and 5.40

**Researcher:** What is the university policy for English teaching of primary school student teachers?

**5.39 Pauline:** *The aim of this institution is to teach them how to teach and the materials. If we just teach them grammar and put the focus on that we are at the university and we all know that the teachers there are not so qualified with the really young learners.*

**5.40 Rita:** *It is not considered important, the same as at school. There are also not many lessons, but in relation to the primary school teacher training. Primary school teachers have to teach every subject. The quantity of English lessons is low at the teaching university but it is not possible for more ...*

(Source: PH teacher/academics interviews)

Extract 5.41

**Researcher:** How far is the curriculum designed to accommodate teacher training for English integration into primary school?

**5.41 Debi:** *I am responsible for the education, the timetable but mainly for the specialist teachers. I am responsible for the timetable but not how the content of each subject is taught. The PHs is not responsible for what is happening in the classrooms.*

(Source: PH deputy director interview)

Extract 5.42

**Researcher:** What is the university policy for the training of primary school teachers?

**5.42 Debi:** *We have a competence organised curriculum and the teachers are required to ensure that the student teachers achieve the*
necessary competence, but I cannot tell them how to do this. We do not have a specific system.

(Source: PH deputy director interview)

Extract 5.43

Researcher: How is the English competence evaluation of the student teachers upon graduation undertaken?

5.43 Debi: We have a competence evaluation system which is undertaken by the research department. It is not possible to investigate every one of the 1400 students competence in every subject. One subject or module is chosen and then examination of the student teachers’ competence is undertaken. At the moment research competence is under investigation. Therefore I cannot tell you anything about the English competence of the students.

(Source: PH deputy director interview)

Extract 5.44

Researcher: What are your perceptions of foreign or second language learning in primary schools?

5.44 Debi: A foreign language learning concept for primary schools would be good. Children are learning singular words e.g. apple, bed, ball but there is no language learning concept. Of course it would be better for them to learn from a specialised language teacher. But there is never enough time for any of the subjects at the end of the teaching training programme.

(Source: PH deputy director interview)
## Appendix H
Teacher Matrix: Integration, English skills and competence, and teaching experience

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>A: Integration</th>
<th>B: English skills and competence</th>
<th>C: Teaching experience</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1: Gabi</td>
<td>Integration = Music, General Knowledge (GK)</td>
<td>Considers they are sufficient but perceives/believes she lacks vocabulary and verbal practise.</td>
<td>14 years</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>English skills and competence = Sufficient</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teaching experience = 14 years</td>
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<tr>
<td>2: Karin</td>
<td>Integration = all subjects</td>
<td>Considers they are sufficient for school and educates self as does not receive enough vocabulary and speaking practise.</td>
<td>17 years</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>English skills and competence = Good</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Teaching experience = 17–22 years</td>
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<td>3: Selina</td>
<td>Integration = Music, GK, between lessons</td>
<td>Sufficient. Matura level (English A-level standard). Through private interests has acquired skills and competence.</td>
<td>30 years</td>
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<tr>
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<td>English skills and competence = Sufficient</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Teaching experience = 30–40 years</td>
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<tr>
<td>4: Steve</td>
<td>Integration = Music, GK, Maths, P.E., between lessons</td>
<td>Believes to have good English skills and has undertaken a course at the teaching university and visited UK for two weeks.</td>
<td>35 years</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>English skills and competence = Good</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Teaching experience = 30–40 years</td>
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<td>5: Helen</td>
<td>Integration = Music, Maths, P.E., reading and writing</td>
<td>Considers they are sufficient for school but lacks the vocabulary sometimes.</td>
<td>13 years</td>
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<td></td>
<td>English skills and competence = Sufficient</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Teaching experience = 10–15 years</td>
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<td>6: Ursula</td>
<td>Integration = Separate lessons in GK</td>
<td>Sufficient. Skills regress with lack of use. Visits courses when offered. Speaks English with husband at home.</td>
<td>13 years</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>English skills and competence = Sufficient</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Teaching experience = 10–15 years</td>
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<tr>
<td>7: Edith</td>
<td>Integration = Music, between lessons</td>
<td>Sufficient. Some extra courses undertaken. Matura level (English A-level standard)</td>
<td>3 years</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>English skills and competence = Sufficient</td>
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<td>Teaching experience = 1–5 years</td>
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<td>8: Babsi</td>
<td>Integration = Separate lessons, between lessons, music</td>
<td>Lacks vocabulary sometimes. But sufficient for school. Extra self-acquired English skills.</td>
<td>22 years</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>English skills and competence = Sufficient</td>
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<td>Teaching experience = 17–22 years</td>
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<td>9: Clara</td>
<td>Integration = Between lessons, at end of lessons and GK</td>
<td>Sufficient for school. But lacks vocabulary for private use. Shyness: does not need it, does not like using it.</td>
<td>13 years</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>English skills and competence = Sufficient</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Teaching experience = 10–15 years</td>
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</table>
| 10: Mary | Integration = Music  
English skills and competence =  
Sufficient  
Teaching experience = 17–22 years | Sufficient for school.  
Speaking practise required. | 17 years |
Appendix J

An example of a classification sheet displaying the attribute assigned to each teacher interview participant from the categories ‘Integration’ and ‘Teaching experience’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher</th>
<th>High integration</th>
<th>Low integration</th>
<th>No integration</th>
<th>Partial integration</th>
<th>10-15 years</th>
<th>15 years</th>
<th>17-22 years</th>
<th>30-40 years</th>
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<td>3: Edith</td>
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<td>4: Gabi</td>
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<td>5: Helen</td>
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<td>6: Karin</td>
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<td>7: Mary</td>
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<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8: Selina</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9: Steve</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10: Ursula</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Appendix K

Coding of classroom observations and examples from the coded categories

1. **Category: Interactions**

#### Sub-categories
- Questions
- Pupil responses
- Spontaneous talk
- Prompting

T=Teacher,  P = Pupil, C= Class, Ps = Pupils

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub-categories: Examples</th>
<th>Classroom of CST1</th>
<th>Classroom of CST2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Questions</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T: What number one Stefan?</td>
<td>silence</td>
<td>T and C: <em>very loud</em> What´s this? what's this? what's this? Paul above other pupils. A pullover!!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P: silence</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T: What colour are your trousers, es ist wie deine Hosen... gr...gr..</td>
<td>Grau</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P: Grau</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T: nein... gr</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T: Wer weiß (to class)</td>
<td>silence</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Class: silence</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T: grapes like Grau grapes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pupil responses</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T: What this? (pointing to jeans)</td>
<td></td>
<td>T and C: Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday, (pause)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P: It´s blue</td>
<td></td>
<td>Ps: Thursday</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T: Very good what´s this? (pointing to pullover)</td>
<td>red</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P: red</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Spontaneous talk</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CST2 and children during the P.E lesson While explaining how they have to feel the soft balls under their feet and toes at one piece of P.E equipment one child spontaneously calls out:</td>
<td></td>
<td>P: stinky toes!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## 2. Category: Language use

**Sub-categories**
- L1: directives
- L2: directives
- L1: praise
- L2: praise

**Explanations and translations**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub-categories: Examples</th>
<th>Classroom of CST1</th>
<th>Classroom of CST2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **L1 (German) directives** | T: * Nehmt eure Englischbücher zur Hand. page 51, 51 no 62, 62 and 63, found it, ganz genau*  
So! Bevor wir uns die Geschichte anhören, vergleichen wir die und kleben die fehlenden Bilder bitte ein. Es ist die letzte Seite im Arbeitsbuch. Da steht Christmas und Bilder suchen. Klebts die in den richtigen Platz, okay? | Teacher explains in German how the equipment is to be used in the P.E. lesson. |
| **L2 (English) directives** | T: *Soo take a seat and take out your English book, page eleven.*  
*Teacher moves back to the front of the class and puts a CD in the recorder.*  
*T: You need an orange, a green, what else... orange, green, red and pink pencil*  
What are you doing? (to a pupil) | T: *Just the movements once again, listen carefully.* |
| **Explanations and translations** | T: *Sorry I'm in a hurry das heißt "keine Zeit" sorry I'm in a hurry*  
T: *Okay*  
T: *Noch einmal probieren wir noch einmal auf Englisch okay.* | |
| **L1 Praise** | T: *What peach in German?*  
P: *says wrong word* | |


### 3. Category: Pedagogy

**Sub-categories**
- Classroom Layout
- Movement
- Gestures
- Tools
- Teacher feedback
- Pronunciation
- Prompting
- Spontaneous talk
- End of lesson
- Lesson content and aims

#### Sub-categories: Examples

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Classroom Layout</th>
<th>Classroom of CST1</th>
<th>Classroom of CST2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Blackboard and teacher desk are at the front of the classroom. Pupils desks are in rows facing the Blackboard.</td>
<td>Blackboard and teacher’s desk are at opposite ends of the classroom. Pupils desks face the Blackboard in a semi circle. The teachers desk is behind the pupils.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Movement</th>
<th>T: Okay, now close your eyes.... close your eyes, (removes one flashcard from the blackboard) T: Open your eyes</th>
<th>T and C: sing with CD (Playway) loud and clearly and with fingers: one, two, three, four, five, six, seven eight, nine, ten, hello again (all moving through the classroom and suddenly jump at hello again) one, two, three, four, five, six,</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

#### L2 Praise

| T: Very good. What this (pointing to girls blouse) P: It hell red | T: What’s this? P: Head T: Very good! |

#### Grammar

| T: Summer which clothes do we dress in summer? | |
| Gestures | T: What's this?  
  P: TV  
  T: Yes another name  
  P: Fernseher  
  T: In English *(she gestures with hands to eyes)*  
  T: Ines. Where is Ines? Ines where are you? *(teacher seeks Ines holding her hands over eyes as she looks through the classroom. Ines has hidden under a blanket in the classroom where the teacher finds her).*  
  T: Hello Ines I'm sleeping... so tired *(yawning)*  
  Ps: I'm tired. I'm sleeping *(all yawn and lie down)* | T: Gestures  
  T: What's this?  
  P: TV  
  T: Yes another name  
  P: Fernseher  
  T: In English *(she gestures with hands to eyes)*  
  T: Ines. Where is Ines? Ines where are you? *(teacher seeks Ines holding her hands over eyes as she looks through the classroom. Ines has hidden under a blanket in the classroom where the teacher finds her).*  
  T: Hello Ines I'm sleeping... so tired *(yawning)*  
  Ps: I'm tired. I'm sleeping *(all yawn and lie down)* |
|---|---|
| Tools | Pupils busy searching in *Playway* exercise books for correct page while the teacher goes to prepare and turn on the CD player. *Playway* flashcards are used for questioning. | T: Gestures  
  T: What's this?  
  P: TV  
  T: Yes another name  
  P: Fernseher  
  T: In English *(she gestures with hands to eyes)*  
  T: Ines. Where is Ines? Ines where are you? *(teacher seeks Ines holding her hands over eyes as she looks through the classroom. Ines has hidden under a blanket in the classroom where the teacher finds her).*  
  T: Hello Ines I'm sleeping... so tired *(yawning)*  
  Ps: I'm tired. I'm sleeping *(all yawn and lie down)* |
| Teacher feedback | Second viewing of DVD the teacher repeats text on DVD  
  T: No presents  
  P: Geschenke  
  T: Kein Geschenke | T: Gestures  
  T: What's this?  
  P: TV  
  T: Yes another name  
  P: Fernseher  
  T: In English *(she gestures with hands to eyes)*  
  T: Ines. Where is Ines? Ines where are you? *(teacher seeks Ines holding her hands over eyes as she looks through the classroom. Ines has hidden under a blanket in the classroom where the teacher finds her).*  
  T: Hello Ines I'm sleeping... so tired *(yawning)*  
  Ps: I'm tired. I'm sleeping *(all yawn and lie down)* |
| Pronunciation | T: Five red? Okay so, wer sagt jetzt die Rechnung? Susanne?  
  P: One *ploos* two *ploos* five *ist*.. | T: Gestures  
  T: What's this?  
  P: TV  
  T: Yes another name  
  P: Fernseher  
  T: In English *(she gestures with hands to eyes)*  
  T: Ines. Where is Ines? Ines where are you? *(teacher seeks Ines holding her hands over eyes as she looks through the classroom. Ines has hidden under a blanket in the classroom where the teacher finds her).*  
  T: Hello Ines I'm sleeping... so tired *(yawning)*  
  Ps: I'm tired. I'm sleeping *(all yawn and lie down)* |
| Prompting | T: *Prompts Pull*  
  P: Pull  
  P: Pullover! | T: Gestures  
  T: What's this?  
  P: TV  
  T: Yes another name  
  P: Fernseher  
  T: In English *(she gestures with hands to eyes)*  
  T: Ines. Where is Ines? Ines where are you? *(teacher seeks Ines holding her hands over eyes as she looks through the classroom. Ines has hidden under a blanket in the classroom where the teacher finds her).*  
  T: Hello Ines I'm sleeping... so tired *(yawning)*  
  Ps: I'm tired. I'm sleeping *(all yawn and lie down)* |

---

seven, eight, nine, ten, hello again *(all moving again through the classroom and jump at hello again).*
**Spontaneous talk**

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>T. Okay now let’s do let’s start with the month okay! with the month okay! T: Mon T and one pupil: day T and C: Tuesday One pupil shouts: Nein!!! while Tuesday is being spoken T. What was wrong? (quietly)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**End of lesson**

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>T: Moves abruptly to next subject at end of all the English lessons with no warning. I am always taken by surprise!</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At the closure of the lessons the CST2 always tells her pupils that English is finished and moves on to the next subject. T: Okay we finish now</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Lesson content and aims**

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The main focus is on the learning of vocabulary - fruits and vegetables.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The main focus of the lesson is on learning vocabulary in the P.E. lesson from previous lessons. The vocabulary consists of fruits, body parts and clothes on flashcards.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

**Main coded categories and sub-categories from the teacher interviews**

1. **Category: Pedagogy**
   - **Sub-categories**
     - Tools
     - Learning aims
     - Code switching
     - Interaction
     - Timetable
     - Subject content
     - Subject choice
     - L2 Preparation
     - Projects
     - Timetable
     - Integration
2. Category: CLIL and language theories

3. Category: Perceptions
   Sub-categories
   Teacher motivation
   Pupil motivation
   Native speakers

4. Category: Teacher training
   Sub-categories
   Teacher motivation
   L2 skills
   Evaluation
   Enjoyment
   Training and courses
   Teacher policy
   Teaching experience

Main coded categories and sub-categories from the school director interviews

1. Category: Language theories
   Sub-categories
   CLIL
   Bilingual

2. Category: Pedagogy
   Sub-categories
   Tools
   Time factors
   Subject choice
   Evaluation
   Projects

3. Category: Perceptions
   Sub-categories
   Training
   Parental influence
   External teacher
   Teaching experience
   Training and courses

4. Category: School policy
   Sub-categories
   Learning aims
   Priorities
   Integration
Main coded categories and sub-categories from the university teachers'/academics' interviews

1. Category: Teaching experience
   Sub-categories
   Teacher training
   Qualifications
   Language skills

2. Category: Teaching University Policy
   Sub-categories
   Teaching perceptions
   Integration
   Curriculum timetable
   Curriculum content
   Curriculum aims

3. Category: Pedagogy
   Sub-categories
   Student evaluation
   Student competence
   Methodology
   Language use
   Evaluation aspects
   Curriculum tools

4. Category: CLIL policy
   Sub-categories
   CLIL experience
   Integration

Main coded categories and sub-categories from the university deputy director interview

1. Category: Teacher Training
   Sub-categories
   Student Problems
   Curriculum

2. Category: Teaching University Policy
   Sub-categories
   Teaching University autonomy
   Student Evaluation
   Student Competence
3. Category: Perceptions
Sub-categories
Responsibilities
Recommendations
CLIL

Main coded categories and sub-categories pupils' drawings 'Set one'

1. Category: Ideational
Sub-categories
Analytical
Objects
Carrier
Attributes
Location/Situation
Lesson content
Narrative
Vectors
Movement
Visual
Multimodality

2. Category: Interpersonal
Sub-categories
Distance
Gaze
Interactions

3. Category: Textual
Sub-categories
Size relationships
Colour
Multimodality
Positioning

4. Category: Clarification
Sub-categories
Objects
Venue
Action

5. Category: Language theories
Main coded categories and sub-categories pupils' drawings 'Set two'

1. Category: Ideational
   Sub-categories
   Analytical
   Objects
   Carrier
   Attributes
   Location/Situation
   Narrative
   Vectors
   Movement
   Visual
   Multimodality

2. Category: Interpersonal
   Sub-categories
   Distance
   Gaze
   Interactions

3. Category: Textual
   Sub-categories
   Size relationships
   Colour
   Multimodality
   Positioning

4. Category: Clarification
   Sub-categories
   Objects
   Venue
   Action
Appendix L

Semi-structured case study teachers’ interview protocol (English)

1. How long have you been teaching in primary school?

2. What type of training have you had for teaching English at primary school level?

3. How do you perceive your own English skills for teaching? Reasons?

4. How did you learn English at school? Teaching University? Influences on own teaching style?

5. How do you integrate English into the curriculum?
   Choice of curricular areas? Specific content? Reasons? Time factors?

6. What type of teaching tools are in use? Resources: where do they come from? What do you think of them?

7. What type of teaching methods do you use? How do you correct the children? What type of language is used during the lessons? L1 and L2 features.

8. What do you think about integrated English at this level of schooling? What priority do you give it in the classroom?

9. What priority do you give peer English interaction during the lesson? How do you motivate the children to use English with one another?

10. How important is grammar at this school level?

11. How enjoyable are the lessons? Pupils? Teacher?

12. Have you heard about Content and Language Integrated Learning CLIL or any other language learning theories?

13. Teacher questions to this study?

14. Thank-you!
Teilstrukturiertes Interview (Lehrer)

1. Wie lange unterrichtet der Lehrer in der VS?


8. Was sind ihre Vorstellungen in Bezug auf integrierten Englischunterricht für Taferlklassler? Lernziele? Integrierte Englischunterrichtsprioritäten?

9. Welche Priorität hat interaktives Lernen während des Unterrichtes? Wie werden die Kinder motiviert miteinander Englisch zu reden verwenden?

10. Wie wichtig ist der korrekte Gebrauch der Grammatik während der Stunde?


12. Kennt der Lehrer das CLIL Konzept oder andere Sprachunterrichtsmethoden/-theorien?

13. Fragen?

14. Danke für das Gespräch!
Appendix M

Case study school director semi-structured interview protocol (English)

1. How long has she been the director of the school?

2. What priority does English have in the school in regard to other curriculum subjects?

3. What is the school policy in regard to English learning for the first and second year pupils? What are the teaching aims for English in the school?

4. How does the director feel about the extra time required for English?

5. How would she feel about extra time allocation for English and why?

6. What type of teaching tools are in use in the school? Why?

7. What does she think about adopting the concept of a CLIL type approach for learning at this school level?

8. How does she think parents perceive English learning for their children at this stage of schooling?

9. Is pupils' English learning evaluated? Why?

10. Questions? and Thank-you!

Protokol (Deutsch)

1. Wie lange ist Sie die Direktorin in der VS?

2. Welchen Stellenwert hat Englisch-Integration gegenüber anderen Fächern in der 1. und 2. Klasse?

3. Wie ist die Schulpolitik in Bezug auf Englischlernen für die Erst- und Zweitklassler? Wie sind die Schulregeln?

4. Wie würden Sie die Extrazeit für die Unterrichtsstunden bemessen?

5. Wie würden Sie Zusatzstunden für den Unterricht beurteilen? Warum?

6. Welche Art von Hilfsmitteln werden in der Schule verwendet? Warum?

7. Wie beurteilen Sie das Konzept von CLIL im Unterricht für die Erst- und Zweitklassler?

8. Wie nehmen Sie die Auffassung der Eltern zu Englischlernen in diesem Stadium wahr?

9. Wird eine Evaluierung in Bezug auf das integrierte Englisch vorgenommen? Warum?

10. Danke und Fragen
Appendix N

Teacher training university (PH) teachers'/academics' semi structured interview protocol (English)

1. How long has she been teaching in the PH?
2. Previous experience?
3. Own personal English competence?
4. How sufficient are students skills and competence for English teaching? On entrance? On graduation?
6. Do you teach language learning theories?
7. What are your teaching aims?
8. What is the University policy toward English for primary school teacher training?
9. How far is the curriculum designed to meet the needs of future primary school teachers and their pupils?
10. How do you evaluate students knowledge and competence?
11. Questions and Thank-you!

Protokol (Deutsch)

1. Wie lange unterrichten Sie an der PH?
2. Unterrichtserfahrung?
3. Wie empfinden Sie das eigene Englischwissen und Skills? Privat? PH?
4. Wie würden Sie die Englischfähigkeiten der Studenten bewerten, wenn sie an die Universität kommen?
5. Wie, was und warum unterrichten Sie? Methoden? Strategien? Werkzeuge?
6. Unterrichten Sie Sprachunterrichtsmethoden/-theorien?
7. Was sind die Lernziele/Bildungsziele?
8. Wie ist die Hochschulpolitik in Bezug auf Englischlernen für die VS Lehrer?
9. Wie ist der Lehrplaninhalt gestaltet um die Lehrerausbildung für die Integration von Englisch in der Volksschule (VS) unterzubringen?

10. Wie werden die Englischfähigkeiten der Studenten bewertet, wenn sie graduieren?

11. Danke und Fragen?
Appendix O

University deputy director semi-structured interview protocol (English)

1. How long have you been the deputy director of the teaching university?

2. Previous experience?

3. What priority does English have in the primary school teacher training programme?

4. What are the teaching aims?

5. How far is the curriculum designed to accommodate teacher training for English integration into primary school?

6. What is the teaching university policy for English in the training of primary school teachers?

7. How sufficient is the teaching programme in regard to government educational policy?

8. How is this evaluated?

9. How sufficient are students English skills on University entrance?

10. What about older/later students with lack of English skills?

11. Who decides what is taught, how it is taught and why?

12. What are your perceptions of foreign language or second language learning in primary schools?

13. How is evaluation of students English competence made upon graduation?

14. Questions and Thank-you!

Protokol (Deutsch)

12. Wie lange sind Sie Direktorin an der PH?

13. Erfahrung?

14. Welche Priorität hat Englisch in der Volksschullehrerausbildung an der PH?

15. Was sind die Lernziele/Bildungsziele?
16. Wie ist das Curriculum gestaltet um die Lehrerausbildung für die Integration von Englisch in der Volksschule (VS) unterzubringen?

17. Wie ist die Hochschulpolitik in Bezug auf Englischlernen für die VS Lehrer?

18. Wieweit erfüllt die Lehrerausbildung die nationale Bildungspolitik?

19. Wie wird es evaluiert?

20. Wie würden Sie die Englischfähigkeiten der Studenten bewerten, wenn sie an die Universität kommen?

21. Wie ist es wenn ältere Studenten mit weniger Englischfähigkeiten an die Universität kommen?

22. Wer entscheidet wie, was und warum unterrichtet wird? Methoden? Strategien? Werkzeuge?

23. Was sind ihre Erkenntnisse von Fremdsprachen- oder Zweitsprachelernen in Volksschulen?

24. Wie werden die Englischfähigkeiten der Studenten bewertet, wenn sie graduieren?

25. Danke und Fragen?
Appendix X

Abbreviations and acronyms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Acronym</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ALEPP:</td>
<td>Austrian Language Education Policy Profile</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CAQDAS:</td>
<td>Computer-Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis Software</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CBI:</td>
<td>Content Based Instruction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CEFR:</td>
<td>Common European Framework of Reference for Languages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CEIL:</td>
<td>Content- and English-Integrated-Learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CGT:</td>
<td>Constructivist grounded theory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLIL:</td>
<td>Content and Language Integrated Learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLT:</td>
<td>Communicative Language Teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CoE:</td>
<td>Council of Europe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CST:</td>
<td>Case study teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EAA:</td>
<td><em>Englisch als Arbeitssprache</em>, English as a working language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ECML:</td>
<td>European Centre for Modern Languages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EdD:</td>
<td>Doctorate in Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFL:</td>
<td>English as a Foreign Language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFLL:</td>
<td>Early Foreign Language Learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ELL:</td>
<td>Early Language Learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ELP:</td>
<td>European Language Portfolio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ESL:</td>
<td>English as a second language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ET:</td>
<td>English translation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FL:</td>
<td>Foreign language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GK:</td>
<td>General knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GT:</td>
<td>Grounded theory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HE:</td>
<td>Higher education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HREC:</td>
<td>Human Research Ethics Committee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acronym</td>
<td>Description</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IRF</td>
<td>Initiated Response Feedback</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IRR</td>
<td>Inter-rating reliability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L1</td>
<td>First language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L2</td>
<td>Second language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LaC</td>
<td>Language across the Curriculum movement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LAD</td>
<td>Language Acquisition Device</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LEPP</td>
<td>Language Education Policy Profile</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LPD</td>
<td>Language Policy Division</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MoE</td>
<td>Ministry for Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OECD</td>
<td>Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ÖSZ</td>
<td>Österreichisches Sprachenkompetenz-Zentrum, Austrian Language Competence Centre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P.E.</td>
<td>Physical education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PH</td>
<td>Pädagogische Hochschule, Teaching university</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PHs</td>
<td>Pädagogische Hochschulen, Teaching universities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PISA</td>
<td>Programme for International Student Assessment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QDA</td>
<td>Qualitative Data Analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S1</td>
<td>Stage one</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S2</td>
<td>Stage two</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SLA</td>
<td>Second Language Acquisition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TBI</td>
<td>Theme Based Instruction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UG</td>
<td>Universal Grammar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ZPD</td>
<td>Zone of Proximal Development</td>
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