

Josephine Moate

Reconceptualising Teacherhood through the Lens of Foreign- Language Mediation



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Foreign-language Mediation

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Teaching is highly responsible work. Teachers are held to the strictest standards. And none of us is perfectly qualified. We get it wrong nearly every time we open our mouths. If you could find someone whose speech was perfectly true, you'd have a perfect person, in perfect control of life.

*A bit in the mouth of a horse controls the whole horse. A small rudder on a huge ship in the hands of a skilled captain sets a course in the face of the strongest winds. A word out of your mouth may seem of no account, but it can accomplish nearly anything –
or destroy it!*

James 3:1-2, The Message

ABSTRACT

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Diss.

This research reconceptualises teacherhood as a complex, dynamic relational dimension of selfhood that is sensitive to and responsible for others as well as self. Teacherhood is deeply embedded socially and deeply felt personally. The relationship between language and teacherhood is similarly complex. A dialogic perspective suggests that language is more than the instantiation of cultural knowledge or cognition, it is the semiotic realization of self linking the personal with the social, the individual with the cultural. This research seeks to better understand the increased pedagogic responsibility and altered linguistic repertoire of foreign-language mediated teacherhood. Drawing on Bakhtinian dialogic theory, this research offers a number of conceptual tools and a dialogic approach to analysis to support the reflexive understanding and more holistic interpretation of teacherhood within education and educational research as an ongoing endeavour. The particular contribution of this research, however, is to indicate in what specific ways the foreign-language mediation of teacherhood is demanding, and how dialogic theory can support the conceptualisation of these experiences in order to respond to these challenges.

Keywords: dialogic theory, teacherhood, foreign-language mediation

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PREFACE

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Josephine Moate

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1 INTRODUCTION

This doctoral research seeks a better understanding of teacherhood mediated through a foreign language (FL). The foreign-language mediation (FLM) of teacherhood is an expanding phenomenon in European education as a result of continued interest in content and language integrated learning (CLIL) (Dalton-Puffer 2011). CLIL is recognised as a flexible, dual-focussed approach that involves the learning of curricular content through a FL. This approach has much in common with other language-led initiatives such as immersion education, content-based instruction, language across the curriculum, and English for special purposes (Tedick & Cammarata 2012). CLIL is also increasingly drawing on learning theories focussing on the negotiation of meaning (Dalton-Puffer 2011). A defining feature of European CLIL, however, is the non-native speaking teacher working through a FL who is responsible for pupils also working through a FL. In much CLIL literature, the altered linguistic repertoire of the FL is partnered by methodological innovation (e.g. Marsh 2002; Mehisto, Frigols & Marsh 2008). In recent years, however, the benefit of teachers having to reconsider pedagogical decisions has come to light (e.g. Coonan 2007; Coyle 2007; Article 1). The complex relationship between teacherhood and language, however, and the way in which FLM affects teacherhood is little understood (Curtis 2012; Banegas 2012).

Much of the challenge associated with educational research on teacherhood is related to the complexity and the accessibility of the phenomenon. Teacherhood is deeply embedded within the person and practice of the teacher and encompassed within a well-established educational system. As such, teacherhood appears to be challenging to verbalise (Yilmaz 2008), complicated to theorise (Leach & Moon 2008), awkward to observe and yet experienced as something deeply personal and professional (Day, Kington, Stobart & Sammons 2006). Educational researchers have chosen a wide variety of different methods to approach teacherhood, from interviews (Lasky 2005), narrative approaches (Kelchtermans 2005), interventions (Guskey 2002) and case-studies (Troman 2000). In contrast, research on teacher talk in first language (L1) classrooms is relatively straightforward with increasingly sophisticated recording equipment

available and explicit endeavours to generate appropriate methodologies to complement learning theory, such as Mercer's sociocultural approach to discourse analysis (2004). It is notable, however, that these two fundamental dimensions of education – teacherhood and teacher talk – are rarely handled as a holistic unit in research (see Hayes & Matusov (2005) for an exception).

This dissertation approaches this problem through research carried out with a community of teachers in Central Finland. This teacher community includes early education, class, subject and language teachers. The community includes both the length and breadth of pre-tertiary education. It has been my privilege to get to know these teachers initially as a teacher myself and later as an educational researcher. My interest in FLM education stems, however, from personal as well as professional interests. As a non-native speaker of Finnish much of my life is foreign-language mediated. As anyone who has tried living through a FL will know, living through a foreign-language has significant implications for who you are, how you are and with whom you are. In other words, am I the same “me” when I speak Finnish? How can I enact “me” through a more restricted repertoire? How should I, and can I, relate to the community around me? The same questions, I would suggest, are relevant in academic and pedagogic contexts as much as in personal life.

It is professional interests that have led to the realisation of this dissertation, although my personal experiences no doubt have some bearing on my interest in the phenomenon critically considered here (van Manen 1990, p.46). The dissertation begins by introducing FLM education as a research context and presenting what is known about teacher responses to and experiences of FLM to date (1.1), followed by an introduction to the key overarching conceptual notions of this dissertation: teacherhood (1.2) and talk in education (1.3). Section 2 provides the theoretical framework for the dissertation using dialogic theory to present three key dimensions of teacherhood in more detail and the way in which teacherhood is realised through talk. The methodological section provides the background to the data collection, theoretical tools, analytical approaches, and the relationships between the articles. The findings with regard to FLM teacherhood and its relationship with talk are then introduced, before moving on to the final discussion and implications of this research.

1.1 Foreign-language mediated education and teachers

FLM education is the learning of a curricular subject through a FL. This approach was first mentioned as a means of improving FL learning in schools across Europe in 1978 (Coyle, Hood & Marsh 2010) and has been recommended in several European Commission White Papers (1995, 2003, 2007). From a political perspective, this approach has been seen as a key means of meeting the *1plus2* ideal of each European citizen speaking two languages in addition to their mother tongue. Although the provision of foreign-language mediated learning is widespread across Europe (Eurydice 2006), the form of provision

varies greatly across the continent. In Finland, schools first began to offer FLM education in the early 1990s. Although there appears to have been a steady stream of teachers interested FLM education since the 1990s, the number of schools offering FLM education was significantly lower in 2005 in comparison to 1996 as the table below indicates:

TABLE 1 FLM education in Finland 1996-2005 (based on Lehti, Järvinen & Suomela-Salmi 2006)

School level	1996	2005
Lower comprehensive school	8.4%	3.6%
Upper comprehensive school	14%	9%
Combined comprehensive school	9.7%	4.7%
Upper secondary school	23.6%	11%

These results came from a questionnaire administered to ascertain an up-to-date picture of FLM education in Finland. This research found that teachers had been interested in this approach as a means to enhance the FL learning of pupils, as well as being an attractive innovation for teachers. Particularly at the lower comprehensive level, parents were interested in this innovative approach (Lehti, Järvinen & Suomela-Salmi 2006). Over time, however, the challenges with regard to teacher education and recruitment, finding suitable resources, the need for administrative support and the lack of collaboration were cited as reasons for the demise of FLM in previously pioneering schools.

From a FL learning perspective, this approach is considered beneficial in that it draws on an authentic context for the use and development of FLs. From a learning perspective, this approach is said to enhance pupil perseverance, strategy use, creativity, confidence and flexibility (Baetens-Beardsmore 2008; Dalton-Puffer 2011). These are quite ambitious claims for CLIL considering that the initial hope was for the additional exposure to and use of the FL to enrich FL learning without hampering subject learning (Masih 1999). The EU mandate for this approach has not been adopted as comprehensively by national boards of education, although many teachers have been ready to take up the CLIL challenge (Dalton-Puffer 2011; Nikula 2005) and the FLM of tertiary-level education is exponentially spreading (The Observatory on Borderless Higher Education 2007). CLIL is now recognised, however, as representative of major educational reform (Tedick & Cammarata 2012). Subsection 1.1.1 provides an overview of CLIL research to date and subsection 1.1.2 introduces what is known about the effect of foreign-language mediation on teachers in general.

1.1.1 Content and language integrated learning as an innovation

Various overviews of CLIL are available, including the Eurydice report on CLIL in School in Europe (2006). Mehisto et al.'s 2008 publication on CLIL provides a comprehensive teachers' guide to CLIL, and Coyle et al.'s 2010 CLIL publication provides a more theoretical overview of CLIL to date. A growing body of research has indicated the perhaps unanticipated success of this

approach not only in terms of FL learning, but also with regard to mother tongue literacy development (Merisuo-Storm 2007), communicative competence in the classroom (Nikula 2007a), motivation for FL learning (Coyle 2006), and reasonably successful subject learning (Jäppinen 2005).

A number of research reviews usefully map the trends and tendencies of CLIL. Dalton-Puffer and Smit's 2007 review categorises CLIL research along macro-micro and product-process axes. The macro-micro dimension is defined by whether an outside or inside view is taken by the researcher regarding the implementation or experience of CLIL. The product dimension is concerned with, most commonly, language attainment as well as subject attainment in CLIL, whereas the process dimension focuses more on the "unfolding" and enactment of CLIL. A matrix based on Dalton-Puffer and Smit's categorisation is provided below (Figure 1), including examples of the kind of research within each quadrant. This 2007 review is complemented by an up-to-date review of CLIL research from a CLIL perspective in 2011 (Dalton-Puffer 2011) and a comprehensive review of content and language integrated learning in K-12 contexts, including CLIL along with other FL/L2 approaches in 2012 (Tedick and Cammarata 2012).

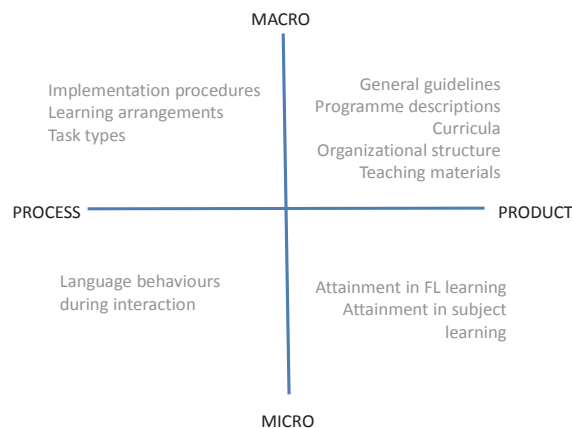


FIGURE 1 Research perspectives on CLIL (Dalton-Puffer & Smit 2007, p.14, modifications by Moate)

Whereas the 2007 review appears to be balanced in favour of the macro quadrants, the 2011 review appears to reflect a more even balance between macro and micro approaches. This perhaps in part counters Graddol's (2005) concern that the pedagogical implications of this approach are yet to be addressed. The intervening period (2007-2011) has produced a significant amount of research particularly interested in FL learning outcomes (e.g. Lasagabaster 2008) and the use of language within the CLIL classroom context (e.g. Dalton-Puffer, Nikula

& Smit 2010). Tedick and Cammarata (2012) commend Dalton-Puffer's research (2007) in particular as providing important pedagogical insights into FLM environments:

... in-depth discourse analysis ... revealed that initiation-response-follow-up (IRF) frames dominated CLIL classroom discourse and that students were not provided with sufficiently rich linguistic input because teacher utterances were far too short and lacked syntactic complexity. Display questions were the norm, and both students and teachers emphasized facts over explanations, reasons, and opinions, which led to minimal student use of English overall in CLIL classrooms. Moreover, neither teachers nor students engaged in sustained, extended discourse. Dalton-Puffer concluded that CLIL is not reaching its language learning potential and that CLIL pedagogy needs more attention.¹

That CLIL is "not reaching its language learning potential" is somewhat disconcerting considering how widespread this initiative is across Europe (Eurydice 2006) and perhaps more disconcerting considering that the FL learning dimension of CLIL is most fully represented in CLIL research and literature. Dalton-Puffer (2011) explains the absence of research on subject learning outcomes as a result of "relatively few countries conduct[ing] standardized testing in science and social studies subjects. Thus ready-made constructs of subject-specific competence in a particular area are hard to come by" (ibid. p. 188), although sample PISA questions (OECD 2006), for example, are available for science.

CLIL researchers, nevertheless, have been calling for a more comprehensive, pedagogical conceptualisation of CLIL (e.g. Gajo 2007; Lorenzo 2007; Coyle 2008). Coyle (1999 & 2007) has worked to develop the 4Cs curriculum planning tool foregrounding the different aspects of Content, Cognition, Communication and Culture/Community within FLM education complemented by a tripartite division of language into language *for*, *of* and *through* learning (ibid. 2007). This interesting division highlights the complex relationship between language and learning. A current Academy of Finland project, conCLIL, led by Professor Nikula is seeking to develop to a conceptual framework for CLIL by problematising key CLIL concepts including integration itself.

Tedick and Cammarata (2012) contend that the difference between CLIL and other FL/L2 innovations is not as significant as some scholars have tended to suggest. They suggest that CLIL would benefit from what is known in and about other content and language integrated innovations. It might feasibly be that CLIL would also benefit from drawing more on educational research on subject pedagogies and language in education. A comprehensive study of 40 CLIL classrooms (Dalton-Puffer 2007a), for example, discusses topics such as the construction of content knowledge and the influence of questions much explored in first language (L1) classroom research (e.g., Osborne & Chin 2010; Mercer & Howe 2012).

¹ Tedick & Cammarata 2012, p. 540

Discussions between CLIL and mainstream educational research could also potentially benefit from the disjuncture identified in CLIL (Mehisto 2008). Disjuncture here refers to an uneasy sense of a gap between that which is and that which perhaps should be (Jarvis 2006). FLM arguably creates disjuncture by slowing down tasks, activities and talk often automatically instigated in L1 education as well as rebalancing relationships between teachers and pupils (Nikula 2007b). Disjuncture, therefore, brings often hidden aspects of education into the spotlight for reconsideration. This disjuncture also challenges assumptions about the relationship between CLIL and mainstream L1 schools. Mainstream L1 schools have been described as a familiar, reassuring context for FL-based innovation (Dalton-Puffer 2011, p.195). Although this seems like a reasonable suggestion, the way in which CLIL steps away from culturally familiar models can intimidate some learners (Skinnari 2010) as well as disorient teachers (Article 4).

The disjuncture of CLIL is not necessarily negative, however, as the positive “wash-back” effect of CLIL (Coyle 2007; Infante, Benvenuto & Lastrucci 2009; Article 1) highlights. The positive wash-back effect is when FLM teachers begin to employ practices developed in FLM contexts to develop L1 teaching and learning. A group of Italian teachers, for example, became more critical of L1 textbook material having had to select textual material themselves for CLIL students (Coonan 2007). Nevertheless, for a more critical reconsideration of CLIL to take place, more voices need to enter the CLIL debate. In addition to research on CLIL classroom processes and outcomes, other educational stakeholders should be included, such as learning and pedagogical theories even going beyond “general learning theories based on ideas of discursiveness and performativity” (Dalton-Puffer 2011, p.196). Furthermore, the voices of teacher practitioners need to be more clearly heard (Curtis 2012) and the challenge of the teacher role with implications for teacher development need to be recognised (Banegas 2012). Integrating these voices into research would allow the needs of FLM teachers to be better served and the wealth of knowledge teachers’ possess, positioned as they are at the heart of education, to become a resource for the wider development of content and language integrated learning, whether FLM or otherwise.

1.1.2 Foreign-language mediation and teachers

As mentioned above, a defining feature of CLIL is the presence of both teacher and learners working through a FL, thus differentiating CLIL from other FL and L2 innovations (Dalton-Puffer 2011; Coyle 2006). In practice, this means that FLM teachers in CLIL classrooms are responsible for the development of learners’ FL and subject knowledge. This is not to say that subject teachers replace FL teachers in CLIL, but subject teachers have the responsibility to teach subject specific language to their pupils in both L1 and FLM contexts. In FLM contexts, however, teachers have to contend with their own altered linguistic repertoire (Nikula 2010; de Graaff, Koopman, Anikina & Westerhoff 2007) in addition to the altered repertoire of pupils.

The effect of FLM on teachers is not widely understood in the areas of L2 or foreign language acquisition (Johnson 2006), immersion (Fortune, Tedick & Walker 2008) or FLM education (Nikula 2010). In contrast to the affective dimension of FL learning for learners (e.g. Arnold 1999; Pihko 2010), the affective experiences of teachers are largely absent, although teacher cognitions, that is, the reasoning behind teachers' attitudes, decisions and behaviours in English as a second/foreign language contexts, have been explored (e.g. Borg 2003). Walker and Tedick (2000) have worked to develop this area with regard to immersion education by studying key issues facing L1 and FLM teachers in immersion classrooms at the micro level. This study addressed the concerns teachers faced related to the balance between language and content, assessment, language development, and teacher proficiency. In one discussion, the L1 teachers expressed some concern over the language of the FLM teachers, but this issue was not further addressed.

A recent case study by Fortune, et al. (2008) with six immersion teachers, again with a mix of both L1 and FLM teachers, returns to the teachers' different relationships with the target language. The study prioritised the questions of the teachers themselves, with the finding that the teacher participants, both L1 and FLM, were keenly aware of their language. The researchers comment that, "Consistent across the reflections was an awareness of the pressure these teachers feel as language models for their students. And for the non-native speakers there was an awareness of the additional cognitive energy expended on consciously producing accurate Spanish" (ibid, p.83). The L1 teachers commented on how "unnatural" their Spanish sounded as they adapted their speech for learners (ibid). The FLM teachers, however, identified multiple occasions when they were unsure of what grammatical form or word to use, but nevertheless the lesson had to continue. It was rare that these instances were acted on following the lesson; the FLM teachers rarely asked L1 colleagues for correct forms, despite the apparently positive collegial relationships they enjoyed. The study also noted the extra time required to prepare immersion lessons with the multiple layers of content and language considerations, although the "delivery" timeframe was the same as in an L1 context.

These extra demands have similarly been identified in CLIL research and there has been a significant amount of interest in the different methodological approaches teachers employ in CLIL. Methodological changes found in CLIL include awareness-raising with regard to meta-skills, employing different interactive arrangements, developing different materials and activities, and improved planning (Infante, Benvenuto & Lastrucci 2009). In this sense, the extra work required to prepare for and act in FLM contexts contributes to improved overall practice. It could be argued that this broader development "reflects van Lier's belief that awareness-raising collaboration turns the classroom from 'a field of activity into a subject of enquiry [which] can promote deep and lasting changes in educational practice'" (1996 p.69, as quoted in Coyle et al. 2010, p.70).

Two interesting projects in Italy in recent years draw on teacher experiences to better understand the challenges of CLIL. Infante et al. (2009) turned to

experienced FLM teachers to “fully understand what renders CLIL successful and what the basic devices are that bring about a balance between language and content” (ibid. 2009, p.157). Through questionnaires and interviews the researchers found that the teachers developed sophisticated formulations of CLIL and appropriate practice. This understanding being the “consequence of a series of obstacles and restrictions that they had to face during their daily CLIL practice” (ibid. 2009, p.159). A different approach has been used with cohorts of colleagues developing FLM courses together within the same school. This work has led to the development of a professional development model for CLIL specifically addressing the challenges of talking together within this context (Lucietto 2009). This model recognizes the challenging relationships FLM can create between colleagues:

“subject teachers are on the one hand increasingly more resentful, as they see FL colleagues invading their “professional territory” without feeling entitled to intervene, and end up complaining in the staffroom as they consider their status and posts in jeopardy. On the other, even when they are convinced they should be involved, they do not often dare to step forward, as they usually have insufficient FL competence – or feel they do, convinced as most are that CLIL teaching means giving lectures in a foreign language, which they often lack the confidence to do.²

CLIL research in Finland has paid attention to teachers’ different interactional patterns in FLM classrooms in comparison to traditional EFL classrooms (Nikula 2005 & 2007b). In one published case study, a secondary science teacher working through both his mother tongue and a FL was recorded, thus providing comparative data on the same teacher working through different languages. Although in the accompanying interview the teacher reported no difference or stress in FLM teaching (Nikula 2010), according to Nikula’s analysis of the videos, the teacher’s style was nevertheless more dialogic in the FLM context. This research has led to the suggestion that the different language repertoire imposed by FLM teaching has significant implications for the kinds of relationships forged within the classroom (Nikula 2007b & 2008).

When CLIL began to become popular in the 1990s, despite EU level policy documentation, in many European countries CLIL was a movement spread by teacher enthusiasm, rather than by formal introduction by educational authorities (Nikula 2005). The current educational landscape is changing, however, as

... within the classroom, more teachers are now being required to operate using more than one language or a language which is not their first language, often without specialized training. As CLIL develops and expands, it is inextricably linked to educational evolution which is accompanying these changes, bringing with it both opportunities and ‘threats’ to practices which have been used to date.³

Poor quality CLIL could in turn “contribute to a “lost generation” of young people’s learning” (Coyle, Hood & Marsh 2010, p.161) – a horrifying proposi-

² Lucietto 2009, p.118

³ Coyle, Hood & Marsh 2010, p.154

tion. The need to address the demands of FLM education appear to be greater as the FLM of education continues to spread and non-volunteer teachers are increasingly required “to move out of a traditional “comfort zone” and enter into a more complex and less secure space” (ibid. p.162), exacerbating the possibility of negative outcomes.

As FLM education in Europe specifically recognises the presence of FLM teachers as a central feature of this approach, the implications of this should be more clearly grasped at different levels in order to offer appropriate support and development opportunities. CLIL publications provide reassurance for teachers working through a FL that native or near-native language skills are not required if teachers have the methodological expertise to manage learning in FLM contexts (Marsh & Marsland 1999; Marsh 2002; Mehisto et al. 2008). The methodological competences listed in Marsh (2002) include the ability to identify linguistic difficulties, employ enriched communication strategies to support learner communication, use communicative or interactive methods to support meaning-making, use strategies for correction and modelling of good language use, identify and use dual-focussed activities to support language and subject learning (Marsh 2002, pp.79-80). Whilst methodological expertise is undoubtedly important, reducing the person and practice of teachers to strategies and activities severely curtails the notion of teacherhood (see Section 2). It is, perhaps, more reasonable to suggest that FLM as brings opportunities and threats it requires methodological innovation that recognizes the broader implications of moving teachers into “more complex and less secure” spaces. In other words, there is a need to understand how teachers experience FLM education in order to better support both teachers and learners working within this context. The following section approaches this need by turning to more mainstream educational research to find a more complex understanding of the “person in the professional” (Day & Gu 2010), that is the teacherhood of teachers.

1.2 The notion of teacherhood

Educational research readily refers to teachers, the work of teachers, the roles and responsibilities of teachers, even the characteristics of good teachers (e.g. McBer, 2000). What it means to *be* a teacher, however, is more often assumed than explicated (van Manen 1990). In order to better understand the “person in the professional” this present research opens by exploring different ways in which teacherhood is understood. Sub-section 1.2.1 opens with the term “teacherhood” itself and by drawing on recognised aspects of teacherhood. This is followed by a critical consideration of the use of metaphors in educational research (1.2.2) and the pedagogic relationships central to teacherhood (1.2.3).

1.2.1 Aspects of teacherhood

The term “teacherhood” is used here to indicate a dynamic, yet deep, personal identification of teachers with their pedagogic position, responsibilities and practice. The suffix “-hood” is understood to denote a state, condition, character or nature (see OED 2012). “-hood” is applicable on the individual level as well as designating a stage (Aronoff & Cho 2001). In comparison to internship, which is a stage rather than an enduring identity, *teacherhood* is personally identified with and often lasting.

Different aspects of teacherhood have been highlighted in educational research and literature. Teacherhood can be understood as a form of teacher presence, “... an evolving entity, continuously constructed and reconstructed in relationship to the contexts, experiences and people with which the self lives and functions...” (Rodgers & Raider-Roth 2006, p.271). In other words, whilst teacherhood is a personal identification and a recognised way of being, teacherhood is always related to others, whether pupils, parents, colleagues or administration. As an essentially relational way of being, teacherhood is sensitive to contextual and organisational change (Day et al. 2006; Troman, Jeffrey & Raggi 2007; Hoy & Woolfolk 1993), and as an identity teacherhood changes with place and time, experience and relationships.

The dynamic nature of teacherhood is reflected in the motivational histories (Day & Gu 2010) and emotional geographies (Hargreaves 2001) of teachers, the intellectual trajectories (Rodgers & Raider-Roth 2006) and confidence (Guskey 2002) of teachers. Each of these aspects dynamically change in response to both personal and professional experiences within and beyond the classroom (Palmer 2007). This variability in teacher confidence and motivation across teaching careers arguably reflects the flux and fluidity of modern society (Edwards 2000, p. 198) played out at a personal level, highlighting the complex nature of teacherhood (Hargreaves 2001; Day & Leitch 2001).

Educational research, however, has a tendency to separate the *who* of teaching from the *how* of teaching, even though:

Experience and research ... suggest that a dichotomy between promoting technical competence and personal growth in professional learning is false, and that ignoring the contribution of teachers’ sense of emotional wellbeing to their capacities to teach to their best is foolish.⁴

Although the reasons for this dichotomy go beyond the scope of this research, arguably the different metaphors used to frame and inform educational research have significant implications for the different ways of relating to teacher knowledge and practice, developmental possibilities and appropriate resources (Carr & Kemmis 1986; Cochran-Smith & Lytle 1999). These different ways vary from technical-rationalistic models of teacherhood to more personal and improvisational (Sawyer 2004). The choice of metaphor associated with different

⁴ Day & Gu 2010, p.38

ways of viewing education has significant implications for the way in which the person and practice of teachers, as well as learners, are understood.

1.2.2 Metaphors in educational research

The choice of metaphor and accompanying theory are indicative of the values influencing the possibilities and potentialities assigned to learners, research contexts, and teachers (van Manen 1990; Apple 2012). The original Greek “pedagogue” refers to a slave of the household walking alongside the pupil to deliver him to the place of learning (van Manen 1991, p.37). Whilst this metaphor is unsatisfactory if the teacher is seen as the equivalent to a slave, there is something attractive about the notion of the teacher bringing the pupil to the place of learning – and even stepping in through the door to explore a “new” world with a pupil. The word explore is deliberately used here to imply mutuality within a pedagogic relationship. To explore together is intended to imply an opportunity to look with fresh eyes, enriching what is already known, as well as encountering something new. In this sense, the teacher and pupil create a good partnership, the genuinely fresh eyes of pupils helping the teacher see in a new light, and the existing understanding of the teacher providing the pupil with established cultural understandings of this new “world”.

In contrast, however, if learning is seen as transmission, then teachers are conduits for knowledge; if learning is discovery, teachers are guides; if learning is knowledge construction, teachers are facilitators; if learning is apprenticeship, teachers are experts. The theory of learning behind these metaphors implies how teachers should be prepared for the classroom – whether trained or educated, whether professional development is continued, continuous or non-existent, and even the kind of language to be used in the classroom. Theories of learning also implicate the nature of relationships between teacher colleagues, whether a resource to be encouraged, ignored or coerced (Carr & Kemmis 1986; Hargreaves & Dawe 1990). In effect, conceptualisations of pedagogy have fundamental implications for the way in which the relationships between teacher-pupil(s), pupil-pupil, teacher-teacher are understood.

Leach and Moon (2008) compare pedagogy and architecture:

Pedagogy is to teaching as architecture is to building. We need to know about the strength and properties of materials, we must understand the way different forces can impact in different settings and, above all, we need to know how a new configuration of resources, perhaps a new pattern of known ideas, can creatively offer and illuminate starkly new possibilities.⁵

In this description, pedagogy is an important dimension going beyond technique or even strategic action. Pedagogy is informed anticipation, supportive of positive development and change, creating something new from what is. Unlike

⁵ Leach & Moon 2008, pp.172-173

architecture, however, pedagogy cannot exactly know or predetermine the result, because each participant within a pedagogical setting is human.

Human. This somewhat obvious point perhaps needs to be made, as education seems too often beholden to metaphors and theory that describe elements of pedagogy that are unable to capture the profundity of pedagogical relations and actions; whether “black-box” or information processing models of cognitive development, behaviourist training models or techniques. Ken Robinson argues for a rethink of the whole educational paradigm based on industrial models of production (1999) in which children are bundled into cohorts according to age – and often “potential” – on the conveyor belt of curriculum. This is not to suggest that the use of metaphors is not of value, but metaphors, like theory, only capture a dimension of complex phenomenon such as pedagogy or teacherhood over-laden with value judgements.

Sociocultural theories, for example, often draw on metaphors of community (e.g. Lave & Wenger 1991). Although this metaphor has supported a lot of research around the roles of teachers and learners, there is little room to accommodate participants, who do not fit with the conventional model, whether teachers (Hodges 1998) or learners (Hicks 2002). The experience of individuals are similarly lost in sociocultural theories of mediation (e.g. Wertsch & Rupert 1993) and only exceptionally included in cultural-historical overviews of activity systems (e.g. Roth & Lee 2007). In contrast, dialogic theories are more inclined to recognise the moral agency of individuals within a broader cultural system, as well as the relational orientation and feltness of teacherhood. Dialogic theory requires that the researcher is both sensitive and responsive to a phenomenon not as an object, but as a human other (Marková 1997; Sullivan & McCarthy 2005). The theoretical implications of dialogic theory are addressed more fully in Section 2, however, the relational dimension of teacherhood is introduced below.

1.2.3 Pedagogic relationships and teacherhood

A pedagogic relationship between a teacher and pupil, according to van Manen (1991), is similar to parenthood in that it is an acknowledged relationship of investment, sharing and development. From this perspective, teacherhood is a finely-tuned way of being, anticipating and investing in the “being and becoming” of learners (ibid. 1991, p.69). With regard to the school context, it is perhaps more appropriate to define pedagogy as a recognised, formal relationship committed to learners and learning. This is a relationship with significant ontological and epistemological implications: the future is born out of the present (Palmer 2007; Hargreaves 2007). In other words, how we relate to the world, to others, to our selves, to the future, to authority, to possibilities, to difference, is born out of our experiences in the present. This is not intended to over-emphasize formal schooling over other relations and learning contexts, but to point out that the minimum nine years of schooling within the Finnish context specifically intend to socialise learners into particular ways of being, knowing

and relating in the world (FNBE 2004, p.12), as do other educational systems (Bayliss & Dillon 2007).

The notion of “being and becoming” is a particular characteristic in a pedagogic relationship (van Manen 1991). Rather as a parent delights in their child as a newborn, a five year old, a ten year old, and so on, so a teacher accepts, even approves of, a pupil as they are when they come to the place of learning. This approval of the present is not, however, intended to forfeit the future. In this sense “becoming” is a natural part of “being”. This legitimization of *who* a pupil is in the present is also significant as it suggests pupils have something to offer. Palmer (1997, 2007) and van Manen (1991, 2008) offer broader conceptualisations of pedagogic relationships, recognising that teacherhood is based on the teacher-self existing in-relation to self and other. An intrinsic feature of teacherhood is the concept of pedagogical tact as the essentially sensitive, responsible, responsive nature of teacherhood. Pedagogical tact emphasizes the “active” nature of knowing – that to pedagogically know is to act, and a separation of the two is potentially misleading.

Teachers need to actively understand ... situations. This kind of practical understanding lies at the very heart of teaching – it is pedagogical sensitivity. Pedagogy is the ability of actively distinguishing what is “good” from what is not good, what is appropriate from what is less appropriate in interacting with children or young people.⁶

This active knowing indicates something of the complexity of teacherhood and the way in which teachers “possess a capacity for connectedness” (Palmer 2007, p.11). This connectedness is also present in the relations teachers create with learners and subjects:

Good teachers ... are able to weave a complex web of connections among themselves, their subjects, and their students ... The connections made by good teachers are held not in their methods but in their hearts – meaning heart in its ancient sense, as the place where intellect and emotion and spirit and will converge in the human self.⁷

In contrast to a traditional, hierarchical view of classroom-based learning, Palmer offers the notion of a “community of truth” meeting around a subject (see Figure 2). Whereas the traditional view suggests a one-way flow of knowledge, Palmer’s community of truth suggests multidirectional engagement without authoritatively prioritising any member of the community. This model values learner-learner interactions, as well as learner-subject interactions with the teacher placed alongside as the learners.

⁶ van Manen 2008, p.4

⁷ Palmer 2007, p.11

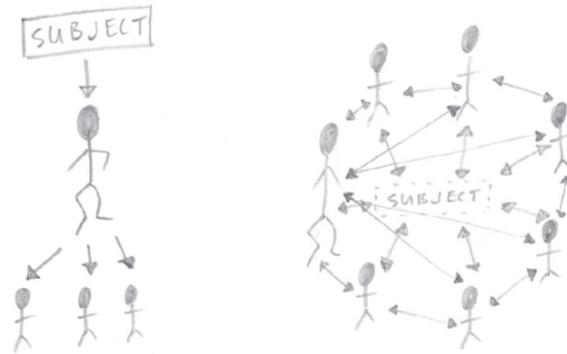


FIGURE 2 Multidirectional engagement based on Palmer's community of truth (2007)

A broader view of teachers' pedagogical relationships, however, needs to go beyond the boundaries of the classroom to address the contextual setting of classrooms. In *Culture and Pedagogy*, Alexander (2001) includes a comprehensive overview of the socio-historical development of the five educational cultures he investigates. Another way of contextualising teacherhood is to consider the pedagogic community framing individual classroom contexts (see Figure 3).

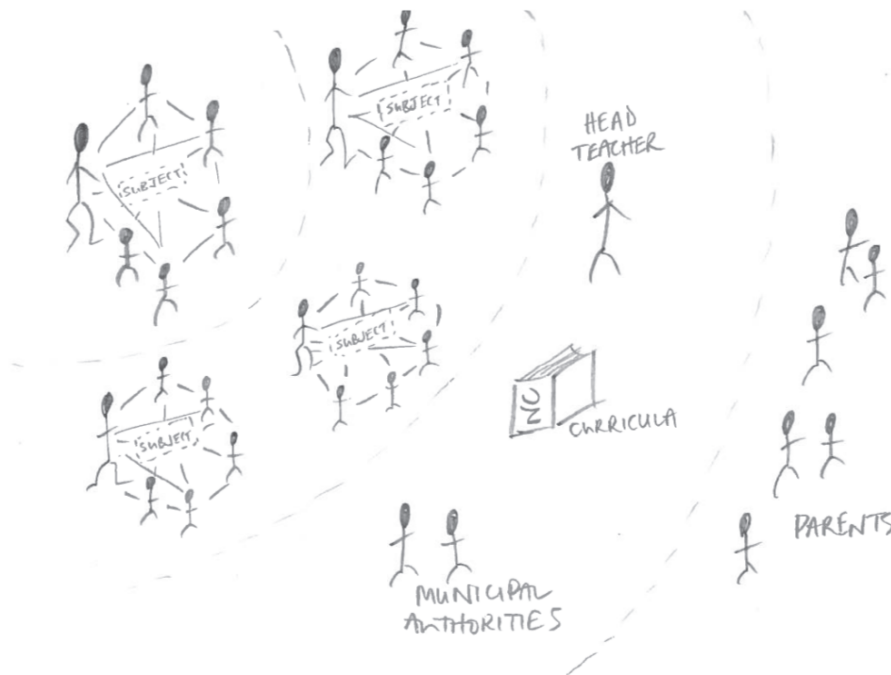


FIGURE 3 Communities of truth embedded within the wider pedagogical community

This broader view prioritises not only teacher-learner relationships within the immediate classroom, but also acknowledges the educational pathway learners

follow in education. This pathway mapped by the curriculum has fundamental implications for classroom contexts, outlining where the pupils have come from and where they are heading to within a known, rather than futuristic, timeframe. In addition to the longitudinal dimension of this pathway, the simultaneous pathways and relationships between different subjects and classes are also implicated. This broader view also recognises relationships between teacher-colleagues, not just those within the same physical school building, but along the pathway as colleagues engaged in the same educational enterprise, albeit at different junctures along the pathway (see Figure 3). This raises the question, however, as to what kind of theoretical basis can accommodate this depiction of teacherhood as something dynamic, lived and relational.

A potential problem with Figure 3 is that this “snapshot” presents teacherhood as embedded and relational and static, even though that is not the intention. Just as a photograph creates a “still picture” of a dynamic event, so does the above illustration. The relationships above are under continual negotiation and a dialogic understanding of the tension between static and dynamic forces is provided in Section 2. Suffice to say at this point, however, that change from one moment to the next may or may not be dramatic, but it is always present. Incremental change can be identified, for example, by comparing two snapshots from significantly different time intervals, whereas dramatic change can be more readily identifiable in key moments of change. A key moment might be the introduction of a new policy, a result of changing pupil demographics, or a pedagogical initiative. This research uses the pedagogical innovation of FLM as a key moment of change in reconceptualising teacherhood as an intrinsically language-based phenomenon.

In the above review as well as in this research, teacherhood is recognised as a complex, dynamic phenomenon keenly felt and deeply experienced. To recognise teacherhood as a phenomenon “felt and experienced” frames it as a truth that is lived, rather than as an abstract notion (Bakhtin 1993; Sullivan 2012). One dimension of teacherhood is having a positive orientation to others, to learners, and a readiness to be invested in and responsible for the “being and becoming” of learners. This positive orientation of teacherhood is active and partnered by the enacted dimension of teacherhood, also sensitive and responsive to learners materially and immaterially. Furthermore, teacherhood is embedded within the wider context of institutional education, obligated to certain expectations and related to collegial stances. Each dimension of teacherhood is, however, realised through language. As such, language is not only a tool to be skilfully handled by teachers, but a place of encounter and self-/other-realisation. Through talk, teachers author their pedagogical relationship with pupils, build connections between different classroom participants, and share themselves with pupils. Research on talk in education is the focus of Section 1.4.

1.3 Talk in education

The central role of talk in the teacher toolkit has received a significant amount of attention in educational research, primarily in first language (L1) contexts (e.g., Bruner 1960; Edwards & Westgate 1994; Edwards & Mercer 1987; Mercer 1995; Christie 2000). The fundamental, ubiquitous role of language in the teaching-learning process (Mercer & Littleton 2007) has been explored from different perspectives: the demystification and dissemination of knowledge (Fenstermacher 1994), the presence of ontological and epistemological assumptions (Driver, Asoko, Leach, Scott & Mortimer 1994), the orchestration of learning through the joint construction of knowledge (Mercer 1995), and the apprenticing of learners in appropriate subject language (Lemke 1989; 1990). Lemke writes of teachers being responsible for translating expert talk into accessible language for students, as well as translating student talk into expert expressions. This is indicative of the pedagogical expertise and sensitivity demanded of teacher talk. Cazden's (2001) extensive exploration of classroom discourse further underlines the complexity of talk in classrooms, the challenge of building relationships and leading development across the broad range of cultures found in majority language classrooms. In my first article I comment as follows:

Classroom language reaches into all spheres of practice: establishing relationships, managing the learning environment, handling subject matter, as well as apprenticing students into the subject community ... Language in the classroom is the vehicle for both the expression and realisation of teaching and learning.⁸

This was my attempt to sum-up the enormous responsibility of teacher-talk in classroom contexts. Educational research continues to explore different aspects of language use, from the use of questions and argumentation (e.g. Chin 2007), to organizational structures for talk (e.g. Nystrand 2006) and principles for the development of different pedagogical uses of talk (e.g. Alexander 2004; Lefstein 2006). Specific subject pedagogies have also been used to frame the development of talk in teaching-learning contexts, such as Mortimer and Scott's Communicative Approach in science education (ibid. 2003), Pierce and Gilles (2008) in language arts classrooms, or Soloman and Black (2008) in mathematics classrooms. These approaches have aimed to make the role of the teacher, based on the pedagogical demands of the subject, tangible and to coordinate this role with language in learning.

Much of the educational research that examines talk draws on Vygotsky's sociocultural theories of development. From this perspective, both teacher-talk and learner-talk are important and research in this area points to the significance of the relationship between teacher-talk and learner-talk. *The Guided Construction of Knowledge* (Mercer 1995) specifically explores the use of language in the classroom by both the teacher and learners, noting that there are few con-

⁸ Article 1, p. 343

texts beyond the classroom where one person (i.e. the teacher) is responsible for extending the thinking of multiple subjects simultaneously, often treating the group as an individual. Mercer has carefully mapped the kind of talk teachers use to draw and build connections across different temporal frames, to build common knowledge within the class as a resource for learning. In addition, the type of talk found in peer interaction has been classified into different instances as cumulative, disputational and exploratory talk. Cumulative talk is defined as surface-level agreement between peers often avoiding conflict; disputational talk as competitive and more invested in saving face than learning; and exploratory talk as setting aside friendship and competition as learners collaboratively explore and construct understanding. Each of these different talk-types can be identified by the kind of language employed by the learners, whether, for example, reasoning terms are included in learner talk and the length of utterances (Mercer, Dawes, Wegerif & Sams 2004).

Dialogue and the Development of Children's Thinking (Mercer & Littleton 2007) also points to the vital relationship between teacher talk, learner talk and learning. In addition to including extracts of pupils talk, Mercer and Littleton include extracts of teachers preparing classes to use exploratory talk in small groups. One teacher asked the pupils to, "Share one of the things I might hear you say," (ibid. pp.125-126). Model words and phrases are collected by the teacher and pupils, with specific attention paid to particularly useful expressions such as: "What do you think?" "Why do you think that?" The pupils then used the words, phrases and ground rules of exploratory talk as scaffolds for their own participation and evidence suggests that this kind of talk-based practice advances the cognitive development of pupils.

In the extracts cited above, the teacher-talk creates a meta-level of awareness that supports the use of talk as a learning tool within a classroom community. In *Talking Science*, Lemke (1990) highlights the importance of teacher talk enriching the meta-awareness of pupils in order to sensitize them to particular features of scientific language. In the educational research referred to here, teacher-talk orchestrates learning talk, models expert talk, and sensitively responds to and mediates the development of learner talk and understanding (Lemke 1989). These examples are indicative of the complex way in which talk reaches out into different spheres of pedagogic activity and the relationship between language and learning.

Two case studies with second language learners bring the relationship between language and learning into sharper focus. In one case study (Mercer & Littleton 2007, pp.98-100) a second language (L2) pupil is a group member. Initially, this pupil appears very hesitant to actively participate, even appearing physically removed from the group. Returning to this group after a number of lessons, however, the L2 pupil has become an active, productive member of the group. This finding contrasts with Robinson's exploration of vocabulary acquisition with L2 students in content classrooms. Robinson (2005) found that overly-structured vocabulary teaching actually restricted pupil language development, limiting creativity and flexibility in pupils' language use. A key differ-

ence between the two case studies is whether the vocabulary items were seen as tools to mediate further learning, or as ends in themselves. In the first case study, the vocabulary and phrases generated by the teacher and pupils provided the means for pupil participation whether through a first or second language. In the second case study, the vocabulary items were formally introduced to pupils and rather than mediating entry into a new subject area, the vocabulary items appeared to remain beyond the pupils reiterating the belief that “there is a difference [however] between talking about a practice from outside and talking within it” (Lave & Wenger 1999, p.29).

Socioculturally informed English as a Second Language (ESL) research emphasizes resourced participation, as modelled by the first case study. From a sociocultural perspective, language use is understood to mediate language learning: “it is cognitive activity and it is social activity” (Swain 2000, p.97). Emphasising language as “a resource for participation” (Zuengler & Miller 2006, p. 37) offers “an opportunity to create yet more tools and new ways of meaning through collaborative activity with other users of the target second language” (Thorne 2000, p.200). Language is not only a tool, however, and “in cases when young immigrants experience a great social and emotional distance between themselves and speakers of a target language, their learning is likely to be inhibited by a sense of passivity or alienation” (John-Steiner 1985, p.368). The implication here is that language use and learning connect with a fundamental dimension of being, and being-in-relation with self and others. As Leach and Moon (2008) observe:

Whatever our home language, it is a symbolic tool: a system of sounds, meaning and structures, with which we make sense of the world. It also functions... as a tool of thought, as a means of social organization, as the repository and means of transmitting knowledge and as the raw material of literature. It is the creator, sustainer, and destroyer of human relationships.⁹

From a FLM perspective, the complexity of talk in education as a tool and an area of engagement between self and other is arguably magnified. In the above cases the L2 pupils lived within the majority language context and the teacher was working through an L1. In most European FLM contexts, both pupils and teacher work through the FL without regular exposure to the foreign language within the home community. In that case, what are the implications for the role of teacher-talk in FLM contexts? How are teachers able to acknowledge and meet this challenge? It was this question that my initial research aimed to address, not through the evaluation of teacher-talk in the classroom, but rather by providing teachers with the opportunity to talk about, reflect on and to share their experiences (Article 1).

⁹ Leach & Moon 2008, p.154

1.4 Motivation for the research

The above sections introduce FLM education as a contemporary phenomenon in Europe. The FLM of education remains a priority in language policy at a European level (e.g. Council of Europe 2007; European Commission 2003) and an increasingly wide-spread reality as classroom populations diversify through different forms of internationalisation. A key aim of the national Strategy for the Internationalisation of Higher Education Institutions in Finland 2009–2015 is to improve the quality of foreign-language teaching (Ministry of Education, Finland 2009:23, p.54). A significant amount of research conducted on and in FLM classrooms during the last decade indicates the value and potential of this approach to education. Existing CLIL research also suggests, however, that the FLM of education has fundamental implications for the person and practice of teachers (Lucietto 2009; Article A). These implications need to be more clearly understood in order to provide appropriate teacher education and support.

Engaging in wider dialogue with other areas of existing expertise (e.g. Tedick & Cammarata 2012) should help address the challenges faced by FLM teachers. Research on teacherhood (e.g. Day & Gu 2010; Cochran-Smith & Lytle 1999), for example, offers a richer conceptualisation of teachers and teaching, and research on talk in education should anchor classroom-based discourse within the value-laden endeavour of education. On the other hand, CLIL research has also drawn attention to deficits in L1 educational contexts, including the absence of academic discourse (Dalton-Puffer 2007b) or the uncritical selection of materials (Coonan 2007). This suggests that CLIL research draws attention to aspects of education that can easily be overlooked in L1 contexts. The possibility of dialogue with and between educational and CLIL research suggests a potentially rich exchange of understanding and insights.

Seeking wider dialogue between these three areas is, however, no small undertaking. Research on teacherhood rarely refers to research on talk in education nor does FLM education generally refer to educational research beyond general learning theories (Dalton-Puffer 2011, p.196). In addition to the need for dialogue between these areas, a wider theoretical framework is required to make sense of the different interests and demands of these areas and the relationships between these areas. The theoretical choices made in this dissertation are outlined in the following section. The theoretical framework opens by introducing dialogic theory as an approach to human science (2.1). Section 2.2 introduces the pedagogically-oriented ontology of dialogism (2.2), focussing explicitly on teacherhood using the tripartite relationships of “I-for-me”, “I-for-others” and “others-for-me”. The third section (2.3) concentrates on language as the primary instantiation of teacherhood and prepares the ground for a critical consideration of teacherhood mediated through a foreign-language. The specific questions this research seeks to answer are then presented in Section 2.4.

2 BUILDING A THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The theoretical section of this dissertation firstly outlines why dialogic theory has been used as an approach to education as a human science and introduces four key dialogic notions: zones, education as a dialogic genre, chronotope and outsideness. This is followed by a more detailed explanation of the pedagogic orientation of dialogic theory with particular reference to the three ontological relationships at the heart of Bakhtinian thought. This section concludes by addressing the relationship between language and teacherhood.

2.1 Dialogic theory as an approach to education as a human science

In my initial explorations of the impact of foreign-language mediation on teachers' sense of integrity (Article 1), I used sociocultural views of language as a primary tool in teaching and learning to legitimise my focus on the apparent disjuncture created by FLM education. Wertsch's definition of agency as an "individual*plus*", that is plus a mediational tool such as language, highlights the intimacy of the connection between the individual and, for example, language. What I found to be lacking, however, was the framework to then explore the significance of this disjuncture. If the pedagogical agency of a teacher does "have an individual psychological dimension" (Wertsch 1998, p.23), how can this be understood for the individual, and not just as "a moment of action" (ibid p.23)? What were the consequences for the *who* of teaching (Parker 2007)? A possible answer to these questions is provided in Vygotsky's recommendation to resist dividing complex wholes into elemental units, properties rather than constituents. Vygotsky states that an appropriate unit of analysis "retains all the basic properties of the whole and which cannot be further divided without losing them" (Vygotsky 1970, p.4). The functional and instrumental framework of contemporary sociocultural research (Matusov 2011a, p.111), however, leaves little room for the personally-significant *feltness* of everyday experience (Sulli-

van & McCarthy 2004, p.291) and the axiological, that is value-laden, nature of education as a pedagogical relationship and responsibility.

The term *feltness* is understood here to refer to a deeper sense of being and experience. A dialogical approach to agency, for example, requires that emotions, feelings and values are recognised as a significant part of lived experience (Sullivan & McCarthy 2004). Agency is more than action, indeed more than intentional action, it is also something that is experienced and the felt experience is significant for the individual and for an abstract conceptualisation of the phenomenon. In an interview at the beginning of this study, a teacher described his experience of FLM education in the following way, "I'm a better teacher when working through Finnish. . . I feel more comfortable when teaching in Finnish... it has become weaker in a way, but deeply in my heart I feel I'm not I'm not a native speaker. . . [however]. . . I do master my subject and that's more most important thing, and feel like I can teach it through English as well" (Article 1, p.341). To attempt to measure "deeply in my heart" would demean the experience of this teacher whereas setting aside this dimension would be like viewing the world through black and white lens, when Technicolor is available. "In our efforts to make sense of our lived experiences with theories and hypothesizing frameworks we are forgetting that it is living human beings who bring schemata and frameworks into being and not the reverse" (van Manen 1990, p.45).

Dialogic theory offers an important distinction between truth as lived experience (*pravda*) and truth as abstract (*instina*) (Bakhtin 1993; Sidorkin 2004). These two notions can be understood as different aspects of the same idea (Sullivan 2012, p.3), and as such, "Bakhtin's theories for studies of learning could be more broadly cast, ... suggestive of a focus on selfhood" (Hicks 1996a, p.108). With this epistemological frame, dialogic theory is able to recognise, for example, that teaching is highly personal, as well as social, activity; embedded and dynamic. The vocational call of teachers (Day & Gu 2010) is not only an idealised conceptualisation, but characteristic of teacherhood. From a dialogic perspective, the lived experience of teachers is not the inconvenient reality of a rationalistic-technocratic system (van Manen 2008), but rather the messy reality of existential being. This human orientation to education accords with calls for educational research (Carr & Kemmis 1986, p.99) and education itself (Palmer 1987) to address the particular nature of education.

As an epistemology of human sciences, a dialogic approach cognizes people and their products through understanding and interpretation explicitly based on language and complementarity or relational wholes (Bakhtin 1981, p.254; Markova 1997). Furthermore, a dialogic epistemology pays specific attention to the value-laden nature of being and the essential self-other relations instantiated through texts. It is the relational basis of dialogic theory that is able to acknowledge the nature of pedagogic relationships, the moral accountability of teacherhood and the centrality of language in the realisation of self. The interest in language in dialogic theory goes beyond the social semiotic structure of language to words "as the semiotic material of inner life of consciousness" (Vo-

loshinov 1973, p.14) within a “web of relationships” (Hicks 1996a, p.116). As such, Bakhtin’s dialogic theory provides a significantly expanded frame of reference to address language as the instantiation of self and a form of consciousness (Holquist 1983), not just cultural knowledge or a mediating tool.

In addition to the pedagogical sensibility of dialogic theory and the axiological basis of dialogic thought, Bakhtin’s texts are rich in concepts appropriate to education and useful in educational research as a human science. A number of these concepts particularly drawn on within this dissertation are introduced in Section 2.1, before focussing more specifically on teacherhood and the relationship between teacherhood and language.

2.1.1 Zones

In educational theory, the Zone of Proximal Development is perhaps the most commonly referred to zone. In Bakhtinian texts “zones” are commonly encountered and understood as as “a territory and a sphere of influence” (Holquist & Emerson 1981, p.434). When we engage with others we create “zones of dialogical contact” (Bakhtin 1981, p.45). A zone of dialogical contact is a temporally-framed zone that links to the past and anticipates the future, while existing in the present. A zone of dialogical content is more than a moment in the unfolding of time in a linear manner, indeed a zone of dialogical contact can surpass temporal boundaries allowing Masters of the past to “speak” with and mutually enrich those living in the present (Bakhtin 1986; Morson 2011).

Within the classroom, learners can enter zones of dialogical contact as they begin to question what they already know and begin to consider different perspectives. Within dialogic zones, learners go beyond identification with self (Wegerif 2011) and begin to identify with the space of possibility. The process of education within this space involves the responsiveness of learners to new ideas, the reappraisal of existing understanding, and the creation of new ideas. The notion of “dialogic space” as a pedagogical approach offers interesting possibilities as “more of a dynamic continuous emergence of meaning than a static ‘space’” (Wegerif 2011, p.180). Dialogic space shares some characteristics with Mercer’s intermental development zone (IDZ), the sensitive, continual renegotiation of intermental space between the teacher and learner within a teaching-and-learning event (ibid. 2000, p.141). Dialogic principles, however, do not allow the teacher to predetermine the exact outcome of dialogical contact.

This research uses the notion of “zones of disjuncture” to categorise and respond to the participant-teachers’ experiences of FLM education. This phrase is intended to signify dynamic zones with potential for development and worthy of attention: “A zone is a locus for hearing a voice...” (Holquist & Emerson 1986, p.434). As a key finding in the research presented here, zones of disjuncture are indicative of areas arguably deserving more attention in CLIL research.

2.1.2 Education as a dialogic genre

Bakhtin's texts frequently contrast dialogue with monologic or dialectic ways of being. Education can be viewed as either a monologic or dialogic genre (see 2.3.1 for a more detailed explanation of genre). As a monologic genre, the curriculum represents cultural knowledge and the internalization of cultural knowledge is the purpose of education. The *who* of education, in terms of learners or teachers, is relatively incidental, as long as the mediational means are effective. From a dialogic perspective, the *who* of education is significant in terms of what it means to be human, i.e. relationally, morally and culturally. Expert cultural knowledge is a context to meet around (see Figure 2), and the purpose of education goes beyond the internalization of knowledge, to the appropriation of knowledge through authentic, necessary self-other engagement.

Bruner (1999) has pointed out that the view teachers have of learners has a significant effect on the pedagogical practice of the teacher, as well as the roles and relationships of teachers and learners. Teacher views and values are evident in the structure of a lesson, the physical space of a classroom and the way in which children are introduced to topics (Matusov 2009) as well as in the pedagogical discourse and evaluations of teachers (Cazden 2001). Educational views and values are also fundamentally present in theories of education. The well-known Zone of Proximal Development (Vygotsky, 1978) positively anticipates the development of pupil understanding, but leaves little room to rejoice over student work becoming "more vivid, more concrete, and emotional, and, most important, ... to reveal the personality of the writers, so that their own living individual intonation could be heard..." (Bakhtin 2004, p.23).

Education as a dialogic genre is able to accommodate and balance the dialectic dynamic of cultural development, whereas education as a monologic genre aims to remove dialogic tendencies. Two key quotes from Bakhtin iterate this point. On the one hand, "dialectics were born of dialogue so as to return again to dialogue on a higher level..." (Bakhtin 1986, p.162) implying that coming together in shared understanding creates the potential for the further development of understanding, for the creation of something new. However, if you take a dialogue and remove the voices (the partitioning of voices), remove the intonations (emotional and individualizing ones), carve out abstract concepts and judgments from living words and responses, cram everything into one abstract consciousness and that's how you get dialectics.¹⁰

The open-endedness of a dialogic genre recognizes the potential of learners to resource learning, whereas a monologic genre anticipates minimal learner contribution beyond a basic willingness to learn. Education as a dialogic genre also suggests that teachers are resources for learning and the wider development of education. If learners have unique perspectives to offer as learning resources, so teachers have unique, expert perspectives to offer as developmental resources complementing recent research in cognitive development and neuro-

¹⁰ Bakhtin, 1986, p. 147

science that views thinking as “an aspect of relationships in context” (Wegerif 2011, p.189).

Although there is a danger of over-magnifying the role of teachers at the expense of other educational partners, whether materially or contextually, teachers carry the responsibility for deciding and enacting the *how* of many classroom practices, often the *when* of classroom activities, and helping pupils understand the *why* of educational purposes. Regardless of the socio-political context of education, a teacher is always the final mediating point for the curriculum (Bruner 1996; Alexander 2001). In this research framing education as a dialogic genre recognises the centrality of teachers as key participants in education both in terms of practice as well as providing a particular view on the experience of education.

2.1.3 Chronotope

Bakhtin frequently referred to locations in time and space as a unified concept. The notion of a zone above (2.1.1), for example, is both temporally and spatially defined. This unified conceptualization of time-space, the chronotope, allowed Bakhtin to map events and contexts and to address the axiological, that is value-laden, significance of an event (Matusov 2009). Bakhtin first encountered this notion in biology through the work of Ukhtomsky (Holquist 1983). In biology the chronotope provides a different conceptualisation of relationships between and within systems. Rather than modelling a stimulus-response relationship, a chronotopic view perceives a system as constantly “listening” and monitoring rhythms in the surrounding environment. By carefully listening, a system is then able to “answer” fluctuations in a more sophisticated manner (Holquist 1983).

Applying the notion of chronotope to education supports a more complex perception of relationships between events, activities and intentions in the classroom. The temporal dimension of a classroom, for example, does not have to be viewed as something which only “moves forward”. As teachers and learners, for example, build “common knowledge” together (Edwards & Mercer 1987), revisiting understanding casts what was known in a different light. In this activity, teachers and learners step back in time to extend or enrich the existing “space” of understanding. The chronotope also offers a way of conceptualising the different levels of intensity in teaching-learning contexts. The assigned minutes of a lesson, for example, can be conceived as a wave moving along a spring (Figure 4), where the compressed coils represent meaningful moments of intense engagement and the relaxed coils run-of-the-mill activity. Each lesson has the same number of minutes, yet the experience of time can be significantly different.



FIGURE 4 A longitudinal wave moving along a spring

The chronotope can also be used to understand the different temporal frames of Vygotsky's Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) and Mercer's IDZ. Although both notions are invested in the development of learner thought, the ZPD's temporal frame extends over a greater period of time than the IDZ. Metaphorically, this is comparable to the daily rotation of the earth as it annually circumnavigates the sun. A teacher needs to be able to view the long-term changes in the ZPD, but also needs to be able to work within the IDZ on a moment-by-moment basis.

In this research the notion of chronotope is used to frame and theorise the changing relationships between teachers, as well as between teachers and the temporal-spatial contexts of pedagogic being and pedagogic doing. A chronotopic view supports the conceptualisation of teacherhood as a phenomenon linking the personal with the social, the individual with the cultural.

2.1.4 Outsideness

In contrast to other approaches to human science that emphasize identification or draw on positivistic, objective stances that resist engagement with the phenomenon under investigation, dialogic theory explicitly draws on outsideness as a resource for understanding and as an important feature of education:

Outsideness is a most powerful factor in understanding. It is only in the eyes of another culture that foreign culture reveals itself fully and profoundly... We raise new questions for a foreign culture, ones that it did not raise itself; we seek answers to our own questions in it; and the new culture responds to us by revealing to us its new aspects and new semantic depths... Such a dialogic encounter of two cultures does not result in merging or mixing. Each retains its own unity and open totality, but they are mutually enriched.¹¹

This notion challenges educational approaches that assume learners come to classrooms with either little to contribute, or with misunderstandings to be corrected. Young children come to school full of questions (Hicks 1996b), and yet one of the first lessons they learn is how to be quiet. In a complete reversal from "real life", the one who knows the answers (teachers) start to ask the questions of those who might well not know the answers (learners). In this role-reversal, the questioning curiosity of children would appear to slowly reduce along with the confidence of the children as valid participants (Hayes & Matusov 2005).

¹¹ Bakhtin, 1986, p. 7

From a dialogic perspective, non-expert questions do not only betray misunderstanding, rather they give cultural experts the opportunity to look again at their assumptions, assumed ways of being, knowing and behaving. Non-expert questions offer cultural insiders the chance to reorient themselves, to momentarily step outside what is “known”. Learner questions create access points into established cultures, whether classroom-based, subject-based or indeed in foreign countries, and offer insiders the opportunity to see in a new light. This is not to suggest that pupils in science classes are likely to construct a new scientific theory, but they might pose questions that open new dimensions of a topic for a teacher enriching the understanding of all the classroom participants.

Teacher communities are commonly built around “insideness”. Mentor-mentee teacher relationships (e.g. Hargreaves & Dawe 1990) are based around the notion of one modelling the future of the other. Teachers of different subjects are rarely mixed in professional development settings, and when they are, significant difficulties can arise due to subject loyalties and different epistemologies (e.g. Creese 2002; Grossman, Wineburg & Woolworth 2001). The teacher community at the heart of this research is somewhat unusual in that it crosses the age and subject boundaries imposed by institutional education. Although the shared interest of the community is the FLM of education, it is the “mutual outsidership” rather than “insideness” that enriches the community.

This section introduced four notions based on dialogic theory (zones, education as a dialogic genre, chronotope and outsidership) as flexible means to approach education as a human science. These four notions are referred to at several points in this dissertation; however, it is the broader pedagogic sensibility of Bakhtin’s theory and his keen focus on language that even more persuasively offer dialogic theory as a theoretical framework to explore the nature of FLM teacherhood. Section 2.2 presents the pedagogic orientation of dialogic theory in more detail. Section 2.3 addresses language as the most commonly realised form of teacherhood.

2.2 The pedagogic orientation of dialogic theory

The pedagogic sensibility of Bakhtin’s work (1981, 1986, 1990, 1993) readily incorporates a broader, relational view of teacherhood, recognizing the value of “no individual without cultural, personal without social, self without other” (Sullivan & McCarthy 2004, p.292). Bakhtin’s dialogic theory is based on three essential relations: I-for-me, others-for-me and me-for-others (Bakhtin 1993). The “I-for-me” relationship is the somewhat chaotic sense of self of each individual. For Bakhtin, each individual, occupying a unique place in space and time, has a sense of self emanating from an inside-out view of “me”: I know what it *feels* like to be me, but I don’t know what it *looks like* to be me. The others-for-me relationship furnishes my sense of self with a more contextualised image. As you look upon me, you also see the horizon that surrounds me – just

as I see the horizon that surrounds you. The others-for-me and me-for-others relationships should enrich personal understandings of self, although the possibility of impoverishing the other remains (Hicks 2000, p.232). At the heart of dialogic theory, however, is the notion that for the individual to be whole, she or he is intrinsically needy of the other. This essential incompleteness (Emerson 1996, p.109) adds a sense of moral responsibility expressed as *oughtness* by Bakhtin (1993, p.16), an essentially pedagogic orientation to the other in that I invest in you, and you in me.

Bakhtin acknowledges that it is demanding to stand in dialogic relation to others, and in his earlier work he writes that only mothers and artists are able to truly linger over the other in this way (1993, p.64). Bakhtin describes both mother-child and artist-creation relationships as forms of authorship. This is not, however, a depiction of domination, but mutuality and reciprocity. The benefit of this dialogic view of teacherhood is that the person of the teacher remains a central consideration; teachers are seen as individuals within a wider community engaged in the enterprise of education. Teacherhood, from this perspective, is positive orientation to and active engagement with others through value-laden authorship located within complex “webs of human relationships” (Hicks 1996a, p.116). As such, a dialogic view recognises that being, doing and relating (see below 2.2.1, 2.2.2, 2.2.3) are intrinsic parts of teacherhood instantiated through language (see 2.3). The division of teacherhood into being, doing and relating draws on the tripartite relationships outlined above. The division, however, is not intended to draw definite boundary lines between these different aspects of teacherhood but to provide a more holistic depiction of teacherhood.

2.2.1 Pedagogic being

In *The Courage to Teach*, Palmer (2007) shares his experience of finding a personal metaphor reflecting his sense of self, allowing him to enact his teacherhood with integrity. Palmer argues for teachers to be free to teach in a manner true to their self, as they invest in students and develop collegial relations. It is this essential integrity between self and professional persona that allow teachers to teach from their strengths (Rodgers & Raider-Roth 2006, p.272), signing their name against their acts (Emerson 1996, p.116). Along similar lines, Palmer (2003) argues for the recognition of different seasons in the ongoing development of self, allowing for seasons when it appears that our “seeds of possibility ... appear to be dead and gone” (ibid, p.381) before spring appears to bring forth new growth. Palmer draws on this apparent paradox (new life from death) to metaphorically draw attention to the many paradoxes teachers “must embrace ... to do their work well” (ibid.).

Pedagogic being, however, is a multifaceted concept including the formalized notion of teacher professional identity, “how teachers define themselves to themselves and to others” (Lasky 2005, p.901). Pedagogic being can be understood as the “I-for-me” position: who I am, who I have the potential to be, that which I will sign my name against to avoid being a “pretender” (Emerson 1996).

Pedagogic being includes “professional values and norms ... [as] an intrinsic part of self” (Kelchtermans 2005, p.1001) and an identified site of struggle (MacLure 1993) and risk. The risk is in part born out of a teacher’s willingness to be available to others, without assurance of the result or response (Kelchtermans 2005). Indeed, this vulnerability to others refracts light back on to the teacher-self: “a slow motion awareness and wide open acceptance of the learner...” simultaneously providing “... the windows to our own self-knowledge” (Rodgers & Raider-Roth 2006, p.271). In this sense, “I-for-me” is closely related to “others-for-me” as well as “I-for-others”.

The complexity and proximity of I-for-me and I-for-others is reflected in Guskey’s (2002) research on teacher confidence. This research proposed that the successful adoption of a new methodology would strengthen teacher confidence. Guskey found, however, that the successful adoption of a new methodology could actually lead to a drop in confidence as teachers recognised the inadequacy of earlier methods. In one sense, the new approach encouraged the teachers to step outside of themselves (Bakhtin 1986, p.137) and to view the classroom from a different perspective. This witness position in dialogic theory allows for change and development. At the same time, however, the new approach was like a dialogic word that “awakens new and independent words, ... [and furthermore] enters into an intense interaction, a struggle...” (ibid. 1981, pp.345-346); dynamic change and dialogic being are not easy.

For a teacher, new possibilities question what has been and need to be considered in the light of what should be according to one’s values (Matusov & von Duyke 2010). This suggests that teacherhood draws on a broad timescale – not only anticipatory or forward-looking, but also retrospective. Van Manen (1991; 2008) offers three different forms of reflection: contemporaneous or “in-the-moment” reflection, anticipatory, and retrospective. Each of these reflective forms requires the teacher to either sign their name against these acts or to shoulder the responsibility for change. These essentially similar acts, however, are played out in significantly different time-space contexts. Contemporaneous reflection in a classroom full of pupils requires a seemingly instantaneous response – a follow-on activity, a reprimand, intervention. Anticipatory reflection is preparatory and prior to the actual moment, whereas retrospective reflection knows what was and perhaps what should have been. The different time-space contexts represent different chronotopes essentially present in teacherhood.

The practical or active *how* of pedagogy is in many ways an extension of the pedagogic *who*. Pedagogic identity is, however, a more fundamentally ontological position of teacherhood. This ontological position is expressed in teachers’ positive orientation and availability to the other. Before pedagogically doing or relating, a teacher has to aspire to be connected, to be prepared to shoulder responsibility, and to be present for learners and the subject. “To be present as a teacher is to be wide-awake to one’s self, to one’s students and to their learning...” (Rodgers & Raider-Roth 2006, p.284). This pedagogical sensibility of teachers could be likened to runners standing in anticipation of the starting pistol. The race itself, the timed action, does not start before the shot is

fired, but nevertheless, in that pre-emptive moment the runners are tuned, ready for the race.

Pedagogic being from a dialogic perspective aims to acknowledge the individual sense of self belonging to each teacher without implying that a correct “form” of identity exists. Nevertheless, teachers would not be teachers without learners, nor without a recognised pedagogical relationship and the means to enact this relationship. A race requires action. The active, practical dimension of teacherhood is the focus of the next section.

2.2.2 Pedagogic doing

Pedagogic doing intends to acknowledge the relational, practical dimension of teacherhood, intrinsically connected to pedagogic being, yet “I-for-others” rather than “I-for-me”. In these descriptions, who teachers are fundamentally affects how teachers relate, the words they speak and the actions they embody. If “a rich individual consciousness is a responsive one” (Hicks 2000, p.239), then within a pedagogical context material as well as immaterial responses are required. Whilst sociocultural theorists have focussed on the mediated nature of educational activity, a dialogic perspective acknowledges the feltness of agency (Sullivan & McCarthy 2004), the essentially moral, concrete answerability (Hicks 2000) of I-for-others. In this sense, a dialogic view of agency goes beyond notions of mediated agency to agency as moral, relational action (Hicks 2000), particularly relevant to teacherhood.

Before lessons, teachers often gather and prepare materials, tasks and assignments, select choice examples and identify appropriate terms and expressions. These pedagogic decisions and preparations – examples of pedagogic doing – draw on the established professional knowledge of teachers (Banks, Leach & Moon 1999) and pedagogic anticipation (van Manen 2008). Although teachers cannot fully anticipate how a lesson will be realised, experience and pedagogic understanding often help teachers to appropriately frame and prepare resources. Furthermore, the physical layout of a classroom and the institutional structuring of time (Matusov 2009), as well as the wider culture of the learning community (Alexander 2001), also contribute to the realisation of pedagogic doing.

Pedagogic doing draws on a number of different repertoires (Alexander 2004), that is, a range of options available to teachers and learners in terms of how they speak, act and respond within the classroom context. Alexander’s organisational repertoire addresses the way in which the learning environment is managed and refers particularly to the organization of interaction, for example, whole class teaching or collaborative group work. I would suggest, however, that the organisational repertoire of the teacher also includes resource management, whether material or immaterial, spatial or temporal. Material resources refer to the texts and physical artefacts available to the teacher, and immaterial resources to, for example, the values of the classroom and resources available within students.

The teaching and learning repertoires, on the other hand, highlight the central role of talk in education. Alexander (2004) recommends that the basic repertoire of teaching talk should be extended from rote, recitative and instruction/exposition models to include discussion and dialogue. This extension would encourage the exchange of information and understandings and the cumulative development of shared understanding. The learning repertoire relates to the different options of learners, including productive activities, such as asking different kinds of questions, and receptive activities, such as being open to different points of view. The denotation of learning repertoire should not, however, hide the responsibility of the teacher to make this repertoire explicitly available to learners and to develop each repertoire in order to develop the best possible learning environment.

It is arguably talk, however, that provides the most fundamental instantiation of pedagogic doing. Teacher talk, in particular, serves multiple purposes: giving instructions, presenting scientific concepts, and probing student understanding (Mortimer & Scott 2003, p.22). Teacher talk aims to bridge everyday and expert views of the world (Lemke 1989), expanding the condensed meaning of scientific language to clarify complex concepts (*ibid.*). From sociocultural and dialogic perspectives, teacher talk works to build understanding and relationships between pupils and subjects drawing on expert and social discourses to create shared spaces of engagement (Mercer 2000; Wegerif 2007). It is through their talk that teachers help pupils to step outside of their established ideas, whether through well-constructed questions or sensitive responses to pupil contributions; and, it is through talk that teachers help learners respond. As teachers use talk in this multiplicity of ways, multiple types of talk enter the classroom environment. In teaching science, for example, a teacher probing the existing ideas of learners would use more everyday expressions than in a formal review at the end of a topic. The everyday expressions represent one form of talk-type or discourse, and the formal expression represents another. Teachers have to decide which talk-type is appropriate when and for what purpose and how to support learner appropriation of different talk-types.

With pupils learning through foreign or second languages, teacher responsibility for the use and development of talk increases. From a dialogic perspective, however, the development of learner language is not only concerned with "how we relate to the words of others", it is also "an ethical prescription ... of how to relate to others" (Sullivan & McCarthy 2007, p.300). In other words, teachers are not only responsible for "instilling" new language or talk in learners, but for ensuring that learners dialogically experience talk as something to be responded to and responded with. The study on second language learners in geography classrooms referred to in Section 1.3 found that the pupils were able to reproduce terms as used by the teacher, but were unable to vary the grammatical form provided in the original presentation (P. Robinson 2005). The pupils were unable to populate the terms with their own understanding, the words literally remained "foreign" in the mouths of the pupils.

Section 2.3 critically considers in more detail dialogic notions of language and the implications of this for teacherhood. At this point, however, it should be noted that pedagogic doing as a key dimension of teacherhood is inextricably caught up in the moral or ethical prescription of pedagogy. Classrooms that leave little space for pupil contributions beyond predetermined answers are often identifiable not only by the talk of the teacher, but also in the way the teacher manages the material and immaterial resources available in the classroom (Matusov 2009). From a dialogic perspective, the practical, relational nature of pedagogic doing stems from the pedagogic values behind the practice. These pedagogic values, however, are not only relevant to classroom contexts. Just as a race abides by certain traditions and prescriptions of the wider community, so classrooms are embedded within wider communities. This wider community includes teacher colleagues, educational administration, parents as educational stakeholders, and educational researchers as key instigators in educational development. This community represents the “others-for-me” relationship, which is explored in detail in the following section.

2.2.3 Pedagogic relating

A key feature of education outlined above (1.1) is the way in which teachers are intrinsic members of larger entities. Bakhtin emphasized that, “As long as the organism lives, it resists a fusion with the environment, but if it is torn out of its environment, it dies” (ibid. 1981, p.254). This suggests, then, that in a study of teacherhood, the “organism” should not be studied within a single context or removed from its “natural environment”. On this basis, the third dimension of teacherhood introduced here focuses on the web of relationships between different educational stakeholders intertwining the personal with the social. This web of relationships can be dynamically viewed as unfolding moment-by-moment or as more stable relationships largely held in place by education as a cultural institution. As such, pedagogic relating is the enactment of “I-for-others” without being confined to the walls of the classroom, and the acknowledgement of “others-for-me” is a willingness to receive from others. The term *pedagogic* is used here to suggest the idea of teachers invested in and committed to the development of self and others with the ultimate aim of benefiting pupils. This conceptualisation places learning at the heart of teacherhood as something sought for the teacher-self, as well as appreciated for pupils. The term *relating* suggests going beyond functional interactions, for example, who will teach which topic and when, instead pedagogic relationships between teachers fundamentally contribute to something more. The notion of pedagogic community as a means to support teacher development is well-established (Borko 2004); however, this research draws particularly on pedagogic relating between colleagues to provide a more holistic view of teacherhood.

A broad variety of pedagogic community models exist and although arguably no one form can be deemed “correct”, the underlying values for the form, purpose and outcome of the community are significant. Hargreaves and Dawe (1990) emphasize that true collegiality can only occur when trusting rela-

tionships are first established between colleagues – a process that can take a considerable amount of time and cannot be guaranteed. Hargreaves and Dawe (1990) particularly criticise models of “contrived collegiality” in which externally imposed agendas insist that experienced teachers share expertise with less experienced teachers. This approach acknowledges knowledge-*in*-practice as locating knowledge within teachers, rather than knowledge-*of*-practice locating knowledge within research rather than school contexts (Cochran-Smith & Lytle 1999). The dialogic potential for relationships between teachers to create something more than what already exists and to mutually benefit one another is, however, little valued.

This mismatch between dialogic potential and monologic practice appears to have given rise to a number of serious tensions with regard to pedagogic relating. One tension is the difference between development-for-self and development-for-pupils (Grossman, et al. 2001), as though the two were irreconcilably incompatible rather than different routes to similar ends. Another characteristic feature of research on professional relationships is the presence of negative tensions between different subject specialists (e.g. Creese 2002 & 2005; Arkoudis 2006; Grossman et al. 2001). Whether this is the result of relational dynamics between these teachers, or the wider institutional context framing the relationship in this way, is unclear. It is peculiar, however, that education as a shared, relational endeavour can be divided on so many levels:

Depending on grade level, subject area, prior education, and type of student served, teachers vary in their understanding of the goals of teaching, the purposes of education, the structure of the curriculum, the role of testing, and just about anything that has to do with teaching ... a shared language of norms and values, practically every significant question in education remains contentious.¹²

These divisions appear to overlook teaching as “a deeply moral craft, laden with values in its purpose and implications” (Hargreaves & Dawe 1990, p.235), to disregard shared interests, and to deny potential value when encountering difference. From a dialogic perspective, teacher communities that use difference to negate discussions between colleagues not only miss valuable developmental opportunities, but also set a narrow precedent for pedagogical relationships with pupils.

The wider educational system within which teachers are embedded can edify and enrich or challenge and reduce teacherhood (e.g. Alexander 2008; Carr & Kemmis 1986). A system based on standardised tests tends to result in teaching being more narrowly defined to meet test requirements than the curriculum suggests (Matusov 2011b). Tests that are externally marked are rarely returned within a pedagogically useful timeframe (Guskey 2003). In these examples teacherhood is part of a system, not morally responsive (Hargreaves & Dawe 1990). The problem with framing teacherhood in such a way is that it bypasses the pedagogical foundation of teacherhood, the possibility that peda-

¹² Grossman, Wineburg, & Woolworth 2001, p.9

gogy itself can provide a cornerstone for the ways of being, doing and relating that are intrinsic to teacherhood.

The voluntary teacher communities based on Palmer's simple guidelines of "No fixing, no saving, no advising, no setting straight" (ibid. 2003, p.382) are strikingly different bases for pedagogic relating. In these communities, teachers are encouraged to only ask open, honest questions, to take talk deeper, and to use "third objects", such as poems or seasonal metaphors, to support reflection. These communities appear to explicitly value personal understanding as a resource for community development. Rather than locating knowledge outside of teacher communities, this approach recognises teacher understanding as personal and publically relevant. Within these contexts the emphasis is not on findings - something concrete, identifiable and transferable - but on the generation of further questions and fundamental change through "rich conversations" (Cochran-Smith & Lytle 1999, pp.274, 279). Furthermore, "implicit in the knowledge-of-practice conception of teacher learning is an image of professional practice as encompassing teachers' work within but also beyond immediate classroom action" (Cochran-Smith & Lytle 1999, p.276).

This broader conceptualisation of teacher learning in community values contributions from both experienced and less experienced teachers and supports development across-the-life-span, suggesting that there is always something more whilst appreciating what has been already. This is not to suggest that the development of community is without struggle or conflict. It is perhaps, however, the way in which conflict is framed that is significant. If a healthy community is defined as a place that "... includes conflict at its very heart, checking and correcting and enlarging the knowledge of individuals by drawing on the knowledge of the group" (Parker 1987, p.25) then conflict can be positively anticipated and can lead to further growth for the whole community (ibid, p.24). Sociocultural theorists acknowledge learning at the boundary as an important site of development (Wenger 1998). Bakhtinian thought goes further by explicitly acknowledging outsidersness (Bakhtin 1986, p.7) as a resource. Different subject backgrounds, different classroom contexts, different points along the educational pathway provide different orientations. Different orientations allow underlying assumptions to be identified and reconsidered and allow new questions to be raised, creating the possibility of enriched understanding.

The notion of outsidersness legitimates difference without suggesting that all participants should think and act the same. Valuing outsidersness reiterates the belief that it is beneficial for teachers to move away from "dependence on habits and traditions by providing ... skills and resources ... to reflect upon and examine critically the inadequacies of different conceptions of educational practice" (Carr & Kemmis 1986, p.123). This corresponds with the notion of a dialogic struggle (Article 5), wrestling with ideas alone and with others, acknowledging that this is "...terribly difficult work for which we are not well prepared..." (Palmer 1987, p.20). Including outsidersness as a key feature of pedagogic relating is intended to counter the tendency of education and educational research to be a monologic imposition of predetermined outcomes. Pedagogic relating is not

only intended to support the “being and becoming” of the other, but also anticipates that this relationship will be beneficial to the self. From a dialogic perspective, these values should be no different within the classroom context.

With regard to educational research, recognising that teachers are dynamically located in a web of relationships provides a far broader conceptualisation of teacherhood. The theory has so far drawn on a variety of Bakhtinian notions, in particular the tripartite ontology of I-for-self, I-for-others and others-for-me. What remains to be addressed, however, is the fundamental relationship between teacherhood and language.

2.3 Language and teacherhood

The extensive presence of talk in education (Mercer & Littleton 2007) suggests that not only does “classroom talk constitute a critical part, and the most exposed edge of the enacted curriculum” (Cazden 2001, p.145), but teacherhood is most commonly realised through the talk of teachers. It is striking in a lot of contemporary educational research how essential talk is creating the social plane for encounter and mastery, leading learning and development, supporting qualitative changes for higher psychological functioning (Vygotsky 1978). For teachers, talk provides access to “thought-in-action” and the means to support academic and cognitive development (Vygotsky 1970, p.125; Mercer 2004; Roth & Lee 2007). These foci particularly reflect Vygotsky’s interests as a developmental psychologist. Bakhtin, on the other hand, was a philosopher of human development (Emerson 2000, p.19) and viewed language as the semiotic realisation of consciousness (Voloshinov 1973, p.14), encompassing and going beyond cognition.

The following section aims to address this much broader conceptualisation of language with particular regard to the notion of teacherhood. Until this point, teacherhood has been defined according to the tripartite relationships of dialogic theory. These relationships are instantiated through a variety of different texts (Markova 1997), the most predominant text being the talk of the teacher. A simple way of modelling this would be to add language as another layer over the identified features of teacherhood. This, however, does not capture the complexity of language from a dialogic perspective. This section begins by drawing on the notion of genre to understand the dynamics Bakhtin associated with language, before moving on to the more ontological and epistemological implications of this view. It should be noted from the outset, however, that Bakhtin used language and literary notions as metaphorical expressions of his dialogic, moral philosophy (Emerson 1996) and these notions should be understood as complementary aspects of a broader conceptualisation of language.

2.3.1 Genre

A key feature of Bakhtin's dialogic theory is indeed the notion of speech genres. The notion of genre refers to the "typical forms of utterances" (1986, p.63) belonging to a particular sphere of life, whether formal or informal, social or academic. Bakhtin used genres to explain how people share understanding, "If speech genres did not exist ..., if we had to originate them during the speech process and construct each utterance at will for the first time, speech communication would be almost impossible" (Bakhtin 1986, p.79). It is this acknowledgement of conventional expression that complements the sociocultural view of language as a cultural construct with languages instantiating different forms of cultural development. It is also conventional expression that means life is shared.

Anchoring speech genres to established expertise is problematic if it overlooks Bakhtin's emphasis on the dynamic nature of speech genres. Genres for Bakhtin should be shared and shareable, but not closed. Indeed much of Bakhtin's critique of literary genres, other than the novel, is based around the completeness of the genre, the predictability, for example, of the ageless hero overcoming timeless feats in his vainglorious striving to win his love. The criticism is the same in self-other relationships; if you anticipate that there is nothing more to know about me, then I am consummated, finished, in effect, dead (1990, p.13). For Bakhtin, whilst genres provide a platform for sharing understanding, this is a beginning, not an end.

Bakhtin's conceptualisation of speech genres draws on notions of centripetal and centrifugal forces holding each other in tension. Speech genres provide a shared framework, but it is dialogic engagement within a generic frame that sustains the potential to develop and change. Speech genres are stable and mutable, just as life is shared, but they also develop through the unique contributions of each individual. This suggests a complicated relationship between the dialectically-inclined centripetal dynamic and the dialogically-motivated centrifugal dynamic. As mentioned previously (Section 2.1.2), prioritising the dialectic dynamic reduces rather than enriches the dialogue and the dialogic potential of the participants. Within education, if it is not anticipated that pupils will have anything to offer, they will not be used as resources (Bruner 1999). Similarly, if teachers are not seen as resourceful participants, the institutional context will limit the potential for change (e.g. Lefstein 2006). From a dialogic perspective, the submission of dialogue to dialectic forces not only reduces the resources available to develop education within and beyond the classroom. Denying pupils and teachers the opportunity to contribute their own unique perspective contravenes individual obligations and impoverishes the shared environment.

2.3.2 Meaning

It is in part this moral obligation to contribute from one's unique perspective in space and time that fills the world with meaning. Bakhtin sought to "under-

stand the relation between the world of signs and the world of things" (Holquist 1983, p.318). He recognised that consciousness reacted with its environment in a similar way to the body, but it remained a distinctly human responsibility "to reveal potential words and tones, to transform it into a semantic context for the thinking, speaking and acting (including creating) person, to turn it into a word" (Bakhtin, *Estetika*, p.367 as cited in Holquist 1983, p.318). Unlike the cry of an animal, a word must signify (Voloshinov 1973, p.22).

Through the creation of shared meaning, the individual inside connects with the social outside. This is not a simple relationship, however, as within different social contexts the same word can signify different meanings. In Bakhtinian thought, the struggle to populate the meaning of a word sustains the life of the word. As a result of this, however, "language is not a neutral medium that passes freely and easily into the private property of the speaker's intentions; it is populated - overpopulated - with the intentions of others" (ibid 1981, p.294). In the classroom, the words teachers use are "preloaded" with alternative meanings and significations. This requires teachers to consider which are the most appropriate terms and expressions to use with learners. Furthermore, when teachers select words they do not only consider the "baggage" accompanying a word, but also the learners who are being addressed (Voloshinov 1973, p.86).

Particularly within a pedagogical context, utterances should be framed anticipating the response of others, for "a word is a bridge thrown between myself and another" (ibid.). When we speak, the other, whom we address, is already on the inside of our words (Voloshinov 1973, p.86). In a similar manner, learner responses also have an addressee whether it is the teacher, peers, a possible future audience, or the learner-self. As a learner responds, s/he has the opportunity to witness his/her response and to respond again. The witness position contributes to the openedness of dialogue, as dialogic words give rise to new questions, rearranging existing thought, and challenging assumptions (Bakhtin 1981; Wegerif 2010). In this way meaning is built, shared and developed; however, this is not only a linguistic process. Dialogic thought goes beyond the presence of the other "inside" an utterance to create meaning. In Bakhtin's dialogic thinking we actively author each other and ourselves through our language.

2.3.3 Authorship

The use of the term "authorship" is significant first and foremost as pointing to the work of a writer as a creative act. For Bakhtin, authorship required identification with the other, as well as being able to stand back to appreciate the other against their own horizon (ibid. 1990, p.25). Bakhtin praised Dostoevsky for succeeding "in creating an effect of rich dialogue with his characters through allowing them to speak and being surprised by what they had to say" (Sullivan & McCarthy 2007, p.300). Through rich dialogue, Dostoevsky allowed characters to author themselves without encountering limiting boundaries imposed by another. In a way similar to an author creating a microcosm of a world

(Bakhtin 1986, p.43), teachers are responsible for recognising and opting to value the different positions and potentials of learners in relation to each other and curricular knowledge (Hicks 1996a; Palmer 1997; van Manen 1991).

Extreme interpretations of dialogic theory over-emphasize the right of individuals to self-authorship. Alexander (2001) witnessed one example of this, where each pupil in a mathematics class suggested a different answer without evaluation or final resolution of the correct answer. This interpretation is problematic for a number of reasons, not least because it dissociates pupils from the struggle of being themselves in relation to others, including cultural knowledge. As such, this would be “an injustice to the hard – the very hard and particularized-work required of each of us to achieve a responsible position in the world” (Emerson 1996, p.109).

Instantiated in language, however, the “self becomes an object of its own thought” (Marková 1997, p.227), that is, the chaotic sense of self becomes self-conscious, a subject of one’s own thought. Self-authorship is complemented by other-authorship as well, however, as one cannot pull oneself up by one’s own hair (Bakhtin 1990, p.55). Furthermore, when people use language, it is “not as machines sending and then receiving codes but as two consciousnesses engaged in active understanding: the speaker listens and the listener speaks” (Holquist 1983, p.311). This is the mutuality and reciprocity of authorship, the relational and volitional basis of dialogic theory, and the open-endedness of being. Neither self nor the other are responsible for predetermining the final outcome of our lived endeavours, but we are obliged to be responsive to both self and other.

Within a pedagogical context, a teacher is responsible for self-authorship as a pedagogue and fundamentally responsible for the other-authorships of learners. If a dialogic view of language is taken, then moving out of the “traditional comfort zone” of one’s mother tongue in the public forum of the classroom is no small undertaking. From a dialogic perspective, a word as a site of struggle is all the more significant within the pedagogical context of the classroom. Teachers have to select words, frame them in anticipation of the actual learners who will respond to them and support the learners in their appropriation of appropriate language. Whilst this is the same for all teachers working through any language, when a teacher is working through a foreign language, by definition, their language repertoire is altered. This raises the question as to how a teacher can author him or herself, as well as the learners, with integrity if their relationship with the language is different. Although this question in its entirety goes beyond the scope of this dissertation, a FLM environment is an interesting context for this research, as language cannot be assumed to the same degree as in L1 contexts (Marková 1997). It is this imposed gap between assumed teacherhood and FLM teacherhood that provides the context for this research.

2.4 Research Questions

From a dialogic perspective, a complex relationship exists between teachers, education as a value-laden endeavour and talk in education. Previous research suggests that the FLM of education has an impact on teachers in a number of significant ways: with regard to the use of language (Nikula 2010), the relationship between teachers and learners (Nikula 2007b), relationships between colleagues (Lucietto 2009), and the critical use of materials (Coonan 2007). The impact of FLM education has been described as a form of disjuncture (Mehisto 2008), that is an uneasy gap between that which is and that which could be. As FLM teachers are often experienced L1 teachers the disjuncture CLIL teachers experience can perhaps be framed as a gap between that which *usually* is and that which can be *through the FL*. As such, the disjuncture of FLM education is sensitive to that which is conventionally assumed or “automatic” in L1 contexts and unexpectedly comes into view in FLM education.

Existing educational research highlights the sensitive nature of teacherhood (Kelchtermans 2005), the dynamic change that takes place in teacherhood over time (Day & Gu 2010) and the significance of the web of relationships around pedagogic relationships (Hicks 1996a & 2000). Educational research that concentrates on talk in education has drawn attention to the prevalence and significance of talk in education (e.g. Mercer & Littleton 2007; Cazden 2001), the range of talk-based repertoires required in education (Alexander 2004) and the way in which talk is used indicating the values and purposes of education (e.g. Matusov 2009). These two areas of educational research fundamentally link with the demands faced by FLM teachers in terms of person and practice. In turn, FLM education brings into view aspects of education less visible and little explored in L1 contexts.

This research uses the disjuncture of FLM education to explore teacher experiences. Dialogic theory has been used as a comprehensive theoretical framework able to accommodate notions of teacherhood, education and the nature of talk in L1 and FLM contexts. The research questions underpinning this research are:

1. In what ways is FLM education demanding for teachers?
2. How are the demands of FLM education experienced by teachers?
3. How can these demands and experiences support a reconceptualisation of teacherhood?

Section 3 introduces the methodological approaches used in this research to gather, analyse and respond to the data. The methodology section also introduces the five articles compiled in this dissertation and explains the relationships between the articles and the data itself.

3 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The third section of this dissertation concentrates on the methodological approach to this research, starting with the data collection process, the thematic and dialogic approaches to the analysis, and the way in which the five appended articles form a whole. This section, nevertheless, fundamentally links with the dialogic theory underlying this research:

“Methodology” refers to the philosophic framework, the fundamental assumptions and characteristics of a human science perspective. It includes the general orientation to life, the view of knowledge, and the sense of what it means to be human which is associated with or implied by a certain research method.¹³

3.1 Data collection

My initial involvement in FLM education was as a subject teacher-cum-language teacher. On several occasions I found myself in the privileged, challenging position of meeting expert teachers willing to teach through a FL in order to offer their pupils and students something qualitatively beneficial beyond the standard curriculum. In these circumstances my personal experience of beginning to live a FLM life had a significant impact on my curiosity. How did experienced teachers respond to the required “reorientation”, whether through choice or circumstance, of the FL on who and how they were in the classroom? Although research suggests that teachers and pupils often find FLM education motivating (Coyle 2006) and benefit from the reduced authority of the teacher as all classroom participants share their FL resources (Nikula 2007b), the classroom still appeared to be an extremely public forum to experience the FLM of self.

This initial question was explored in semi-structured interviews with six upper secondary school teachers with various years of experience and different

¹³ van Manen 1990, p.27

subject backgrounds. The interviews were intended to offer the teachers a place to reflect aloud on their experiences. Although interviews are in many ways constructions (Kvale 1994), the final themes were significantly different to the orientating questions (Article 1). Through this initial research I understood more about the challenges FLM teachers faced within a particular context, and I was surprised that this issue was not addressed more comprehensively in published literature. The emphasis on methodological adaptation (e.g. Marsh 2002), clearly important from the perspective of both FLM teachers and learners, did not appear to fully address the fundamental changes FLM education implied. I began to wonder whether FLM was actually a pedagogical rather than methodological innovation. By pedagogical I mean that FLM affected the qualitative relationships of education.

While attending the CLIL Fusion Conference in Tallinn 2008 I met two teachers from a local lower comprehensive school in Central Finland. The teachers expressed dismay that the upper comprehensive school no longer continued with FLM courses. After the six years of regular FLM in the lower school, it seemed a shame that this area of development was no longer attended to. According to CLIL literature, the development of collaborative teacher initiatives has been and will increasingly be an important part of the development of FLM education:

As linguistic diversity increases and has to be factored into regular classroom learning, teachers coming from different professional backgrounds with different specialisms are being brought together. In the future, this collaboration will need to be more clearly defined. Curriculum design needs to involve language teachers and subject specialists, or class teachers with dual roles, in an understanding of the different contributions they make to more holistic CLIL experiences. Currently, collaborative planning and cross-disciplinary delivery of the curriculum, especially in secondary schools, is often left to chance or is dependent on the 'goodwill' of head teachers or senior management teams.¹⁴

In a similar spirit, I considered the possibility of inviting teachers from both schools, as well as the local kindergarten offering FLM and the upper secondary school in the locality, to increase contact with each other to strengthen the individual efforts of different partners. I visited the schools and the head teachers agreed that this was a valuable venture. The municipal head of education also gave his permission. Along with two CLIL experts, the first meeting of the community took place in March 2009 with representatives from each of the four educational partners, plus myself. The development of this community is shared in Article 4 appended to this dissertation.

As far as I am aware, the novelty of this teacher community is the extent to which it crosses the boundaries often established by institutionalised education according to the age of learners, whether subject or class or early education teachers, whether novice or experienced teachers. From a research perspective, the teacher community offered a rich opportunity to gather the views and expe-

¹⁴ Coyle et al. 2010, p. 159

riences of a diverse variety of teachers. The notes made by teacher-participant groups in the community discussions provided written records of key issues, questions, concerns and experiences. Combining these records provided a historical record of community discussions from the perspectives of the teacher-participants complemented by my own research diary notes.

As the upper comprehensive partner was the most recent partner to launch FLM courses, focus group discussions were held in the school with teachers particularly interested in FLM education. This school already housed international classes and some of the teachers were experienced in working with international groups of students. In this context, however, although the teacher was working through a FL, the students were often working through their L1 or with an extremely high proficiency of English as a FL. This created a different context to FLM classes in which both teacher and pupils are working through a FL. As one of teacher remarked when teaching international students "I can just concentrate on chemistry," whereas

in CLIL teaching, ... there are so many students that they don't know English very well, so ... I feel like a kind of language teacher, ... I need to figure out how they would understand me. ... It is sometimes difficult ... searching out what is the level that I can start (Article 5)

Drawing on the teachers' experiences with international classes, on their anticipated experiences with FLM classes, and comments on a developing pedagogical model reconceptualising talk in FLM contexts, these focus groups were another source of rich data. Two of six meetings were digitally recorded and transcribed, providing a record of the participants' talk not only as a product (as with the teacher-written community notes), but also as a process. Article 5 particularly draws on this notion of talk as a process through the analysis of two focus group discussions with teachers.

As my collegial relationship with the teacher-participants developed, I had the opportunity to observe different classes and to act as a participant-observer in two seventh grade FLM science lessons. This opportunity to step into the classroom as an observer enriched my understanding of the issues the teachers shared in the community discussions. Working alongside the teacher in the science FLM courses provided the opportunity for me to also experience to a certain degree the stress of pedagogical decisions that had to be made in the moment with reduced pedagogic and learning repertoires to draw on. These experiences are drawn on in Article 2 alongside data from the focus group conversations and community discussions. The community data was collected over a one and a half year period.

Initially, the teacher community was not intended as a focal point of the research. Following the publication of Article 1, I planned to map the development of learner language in CLIL classrooms. An initial goal of the community, however, was to write a report informing the municipal authorities of the teachers' hopes for, interests in and experiences of CLIL (Moate & Marsh 2009). It was on this basis that in each community meeting session teachers from dif-

ferent partners formed to discuss and share questions and experiences. One teacher within each group acted as a secretary. These notes were gathered to write the initial report, and a certain way of being, doing and relating began to take shape within the community.

During this period the focus of my research shifted to the experiences of the teachers (Article 2) and my desire to better understand these experiences grew. I sought permission from the teacher members to use the data gathered from the community meetings, and I shared the texts that I wrote with the teachers, inviting comments and feedback. This was particularly important for the narrative account of the teacher community (Article 4), as a goal of this paper was to recognise the polyphonic voice of the community. Before presenting any findings publically I shared my presentations (Moate 2010) with representatives from the community and I was invited by one of the community partners to publically present my model reconceptualising talk in FLM education (Article 3) in a CLIL seminar (Moate 2011d).

I asked for permission to record the focus group discussions before the recordings took place. The aim of recording the discussions was to capture the real-time responses of the teachers to the model and the ensuing talk around the model. This data was then specifically drawn on for Article 5 and this text was also sent to all of the teacher-participants along with transcriptions of the conversations. I have sought to maintain the anonymity of the teacher-participants, without depersonalising their contributions. I have also avoided any kind of evaluative assessment of the teachers, seeking instead to understand and to responsibly respond to their experiences.

3.2 Data analysis

In recent decades as talk in education has increasingly come under the spotlight (e.g. Barnes & Todd 1977; Cazden 2001, Mercer & Hodgkinson 2008), so the role of talk in educational research appears to have expanded. Discourse-oriented approaches to classroom interaction (Wells & Arauz 2006) and the professional development of teachers (Cohen 2008) have been augmented with or gradually replaced by methodologies more consciously drawing on sociocultural theories of learning. One approach is Mercer's sociocultural discourse analysis (2004) in which education is understood "as a dialogic process, with students and teachers working within settings which reflect the values and social practices of schools as cultural institutions" (ibid, p.139) and "communication, thinking and learning as related processes" (ibid, p.138) with talk "used to enable joint intellectual activity" (ibid, p.140). Also drawing on sociocultural and sociocognitive learning theories, Kumpulainen and Wray (2010) have worked to develop a methodology providing a "more holistic analysis of classroom interaction" (ibid. p.2) striving to recognise learning as a complex interactional process using language as well as other tools.

As my understanding of pedagogy and educational research developed, I increasingly took on the role of “bricoleur”, meaning that I viewed “research methods actively rather than passively” (Kincheloe & McLaren 2005: 317) recognising that the resulting “bricolage constructs a far more active role for humans both in shaping reality and in creating the research process and narratives that represent it” (ibid). Key notions from sociocultural research launched my research interest and process, dialogic ontology and epistemology further enriched these key notions, my approach and presentation. Furthermore, critical approaches to education including action research (Kemmis & Carr 1986) and architectures of practice (Kemmis & Gootenboer 2008) framed my understanding of and relations with the research participants and community activities (Articles 3 & 4). In other words, I anticipated that the teachers would have important contributions to my thinking and to the development of the community and FLM education within and beyond the classroom.

3.2.1 Thematic analysis

The construction of my bricolage, especially with regard to the analytical dimension of the research, required a selection of key notions to work with and around. The sociocultural view of language as a primary tool in teaching and learning legitimised my focus on the apparent disjuncture of FLM teaching. As some of my data set was notated talk rather than transcribed or video-recorded data, a sociocultural discourse analysis (Mercer 2004) approach could not be used. Nevertheless, sociocultural notions of talk (Mercer 1995; Lemke 1990), teaching-learning processes (Vygotsky 1970 & 1978; Mortimer & Scott 2003) and mediated agency (Wertsch 1998) were primary considerations. Mercer’s framing of talk as a product and process, and the notion of certain types of talk being cognition (2004, p.141) provided a particularly useful starting point for re-considering the ways in which talk was significant with regard to the research participants and the interests of my study.

These theoretical notions were applied through the thematic analysis of the data. “Through its theoretical freedom, thematic analysis provides a flexible and useful research tool, which can potentially provide a rich and detailed, yet complex, account of data” (Braun & Clarke 2006, p.78). Thematic analysis allows for either a data-driven or theoretically-driven approach to analysis. In practice, although this means that the theoretical framework influences the significance of a theme, the researcher is free to choose whether to draw themes from the data in accordance with a pre-determined coding scheme or not. My initial exploration of the impact of FLM teaching on teachers’ sense of integrity used a data-driven approach (Article 1). The themes identified in this initial research, as well as a keener interest in the impact of FLM at different levels of educational activity, led to a more theory-driven approach in the second article (Article 2).

3.2.2 From empirical to theoretical

My initial findings suggested that FLM teachers would benefit from a more explicit depiction of talk in teaching-learning contexts. Educational research is replete with different examples of teacher talk, how it is and how it perhaps should be. The research, however, often addresses particular aspects of talk, such as the role of questions, or dimensions of educational responsibility, for example the joint construction of knowledge, rather than holistically addressing teaching-learning talk. Drawing on my initial findings, my experiences with the teachers and understanding of talk as framed in educational research, I sought to develop a pedagogical model for talk in FLM contexts (Article 3).

As a theoretical rather than empirical article, this represents an important phase in my thinking as I strove to combine sociocultural and dialogic conceptualisations of talk. As such, my reconceptualisation of talk in FLM education seeks to accommodate both dialectic and dialogic priorities of education (Wegerif 2011): “it is worth noting that participation in a democratic, knowledge-based society is not possible without grasping basic scientific concepts and it is equally difficult to participate in discussions without recognising one’s own voice” (Article 3, p.20). Furthermore, the model seeks to recognise the particular challenges of FLM education by offering the notion of a “transitional dynamic” sensitive to different educational contexts and participant voices. I was beginning to become concerned, however, that the sociocultural interests of my research were narrowing, rather than deepening and widening the dialogical contact I sought with my research.

The problem, perhaps, was that a sociocultural lens focussed on talk, leaving little room for the personally significant *feltness* of everyday experience (Sullivan & McCarthy 2004). The personal-professional investment of teachers in the “being and becoming” of pupils was contextual, rather than fundamentally meaningful. This seemed problematic as it is often a response to a pedagogic “calling” (Day & Gu 2010), a moral craft (Hargreaves & Dawe 1990), rather than the opportunity to talk that keeps teachers as teachers. My attention was also being drawn to the significance of relationships between teachers as means of developing education, not just developing teachers. I wondered why educational research seemed to reiterate the finding that teachers struggled to adopt new approaches to talk, why the initiate-response-feedback chain appeared to be dominant, and why teachers did not seek dialogues with pupils (e.g. Alexander 2004). I began to question why research was so much done *on* teachers, rather than *with* teachers. On this basis I decided to return to the data that I had gathered to see whether the products – notes and models – of the community discussions were indicative of the value of relationships between teachers and in what way.

3.2.3 Using a narrative approach

As a more conventional approach to the construction of reality (Bruner 1991), the narrative account of a teacher community (Article 4) was, in part, a response

to the theoretical orientation of my earlier articles. With this narrative account, I hoped to “retain the different voices and developing voice of the community and to evoke the nature of this community” (Heikkinen, Huttunen & Syrjälä 2007, cited in Article 4). Adopting a narrative approach was a challenging experience. Whilst on the one hand I hoped the text would be accessible to the teacher-participants, that they would recognize themselves in the “story”, on the other hand theorization is an intrinsic part of writing up research (van Manen 1990). During the writing process, I was self-consciously aware that this text was for me, as well as for the teacher-participants and, perhaps ultimately, an academic audience. Nevertheless, in this paper, as I applied a narrative approach I strove to keep the community as the subject rather than object of the research.

I was struck by how many boundaries the community crossed and the broad range of expertise and experience represented by the community. Bakhtin writes that only a mother or artist has time to linger over the other (1993). I would perhaps like to add “researcher” to this list! Nevertheless, as I “lingered over” the collected material, it occurred to me that the strength of the community appeared to lie in the difference, rather than similarity of the community members. Whilst the unifying interest was in FLM education, the heart of the community was rather based on the “mutual pedagogical relationship” (Article 4) shared by the teachers. Standing in mutual pedagogical relationship when sharing different understandings, questions and concerns appeared to enrich the understanding of all without any notions of superiority or inferiority. This relationship appeared to me to reflect van Manen’s notion of pedagogy as “being and becoming” albeit between teachers outside the classroom context. This notion was also supported by the relational ontology of Bakhtin’s dialogic theory. On this basis I turned even more directly to Bakhtin’s dialogic theory for the final paper included in this dissertation (Article 5).

3.2.4 Developing a dialogic approach

For the final article appended to the dissertation (Article 5), I explicitly turned to Bakhtin’s dialogic theory and sought examples of educational research working within this theoretical paradigm. In *Creative Thinking for Primary Education* Wegerif comments on his change of mind with regard to the reasons for successful thinking in groups. Rather than interpreting pupil learning as reliant on “cognitive strategies,” he notes that it is the “quality of their relationships” (ibid. 2010, p.18) that made the most significant difference. Wegerif’s expanded notion of dialogic space and the importance of learner identification with the space of dialogue provided an important example of how a dialogic perspective can enrich existing sociocultural understandings. Alexander’s (2001) comprehensive five nations review of primary education is another example of educational research drawing on broader socio-political contexts for education and the way in which values are played out in the classroom. In addition, the educational research of Hicks (e.g. 1996a) explicitly goes beyond conceptualisations of individuals within “mediated systems of social action and discourse,” to recog-

nise individuals as constructing “histories that are ethically particular and attuned to moral ends” (ibid. 2000, p.227) situated within “webs of human relationships” (ibid. 1996a, p.116).

Bakhtin’s dialogic theory has been used to develop pedagogically-astute concepts. The educational chronotope, for example, has been used to explore the didactics and ontology of monologic classrooms (Matusov 2009). Using the notion of *chronotope* highlights the intrinsic relationship between space, time and axiology (that is, value judgements) from Bakhtin’s earlier writings (1990). The educational chronotope illustrates how the use of time and arrangement of space within classrooms are intrinsically related to the pedagogic values underpinning practice. Bakhtin himself used the notion of chronotopicity in different contexts with reference to experience (e.g. 1986) and literary genres (1981). The significance of the chronotope, however, is its potential to materialize time in space (ibid. 1981, p.250), to concretize representation (ibid.), through reaction rather than, for example, description. Bakhtin’s notion of *internally persuasive discourse* has also been used (Matusov & van Dyke 2010) in teacher education as a means of helping students to reflect *ahead*; that is, to project how they might behave in the future and to then critically consider why. In an earlier paper, Matusov (2001) also shares his stressful experience of being a teacher in a community of engaged, active young learners. These papers exemplified for me an important way of both theorising understanding whilst still acknowledging the *feltness* of experience.

Turning to Bakhtin’s dialogic theory significantly expanded my frame of reference from language as tool, to language as the material expression of thought (Holquist 1983) and place of encounter (Bakhtin 1981, pp.345-346). The closer I looked into Bakhtin’s dialogic theory, the richer it appeared to be in ontological and epistemological insights appropriate to pedagogy and educational research. For my part, in turning to Bakhtin I wanted to better understand the notion of dialogue, not as a discourse genre, but as an experience. With reference to speech genres, Bakhtin states that if they “did not exist ..., if we had to originate them during the speech process and construct each utterance at will for the first time, speech communication would be almost impossible” (Bakhtin 1986, p.79). As a cultural convention, then, genres are extremely useful. Bakhtin goes on to say that “genres must be fully mastered in order to be freely manipulated” (ibid. 1986, p.80), suggesting that existing genres are not intended to be prescriptive, rather to be understood and developed. Encouraged by the example of Matusov (2009), I began to see institutional education as a genre, a cultural convention, still open to development.

With regard to dialogic discourse, Bakhtin describes it as, “a word awakens new and independent words, ... It is not so much interpreted by us as it is... freely developed, applied to new material, new conditions... More than that, it enters into an intense interaction, a struggle...” (1981, pp.345-346). It was this notion of a struggle that particularly caught my attention and seemed to be apt as a description of an important aspect of the focus groups. The transcribed data from the focus group conversations appeared to capture recurrent struggles

experienced by the participants. After many re-readings of the discussions, I firstly mapped the discussions to set my “navigational compass” to know what was said when during the discussions. I then traced all the struggles, that is, dilemmas or contradictions, that appeared in the data. I found struggles that were shared by different participants and struggles that recurred within the voice of individual participants. In article 5, I focus on the shared dilemmas of the participants. Drawing on the Bakhtinian quotation above, I understand a dialogic struggle as “reflections and reconsiderations often expressed as contradictions and dilemmas”. In this conceptualisation, dialogic struggle is an important aspect of learning leading to further questions, again drawing on Bakhtin (1986, p.147).

This final paper then represents a significant development in both my theoretical and methodological development. In this paper, I have moved away from notions of talk as a mediating tool, to the notion of talk as a zone for encounter. Although sociocultural theory also acknowledges talk as a process, the analytical lens of dialogic theory allows this process to be open-ended, an ongoing dialogue. I consider this to be a dialogic rather than thematic form of analysis as I have striven to keep the themes of the research and the voices of the teachers connected to the teacher-participants as human others (Bakhtin 1990). I try to avoid objectifying the teachers and to maintain the sense of an ongoing dialogue.

For me as an educational researcher, participating in and then analysing these dialogues helped me to recognise the struggles as being neither negative nor deficient, but important and valid forms of response and engagement. I would suggest that this concept is an equally valid pedagogical concept whether within or beyond the walls of the classroom.

3.3 The relationships between the articles

The first article in this dissertation (Article 1) explicitly sought to understand how FLM affects teachers’ sense of integrity through interviews with individual teachers. The findings from this research suggested that FLM affects teacherhood in a variety of different ways, included in the findings in Section 3. This article provided the backdrop for a wider exploration of teacher experiences of FLM drawing on a much wider dataset, including teacher-written community notes, transcribed focus group discussions and participant-observation notes (Article 2). These findings are also presented in detail in Section 3, and can be described as dialogic words that awaken “new and independent words” and enter “into an intense interaction, a struggle...” (Bakhtin 1981, pp.345-346).

My response to these findings was two-fold. My first response was to suggest a reconceptualisation of talk for FLM education (Article 3). This response seeks to create a bridge between the experiences of FLM teachers and educational research on talk. My second response was to return to the data from the teacher community and focus group conversations to explore the talk between

teachers as both a product (Article 4) and a process (Article 5) from a dialogic perspective. Hopefully, neither of these responses is “final” but will lead to further dialogue. The relationships between the articles is modelled in Figure 6.

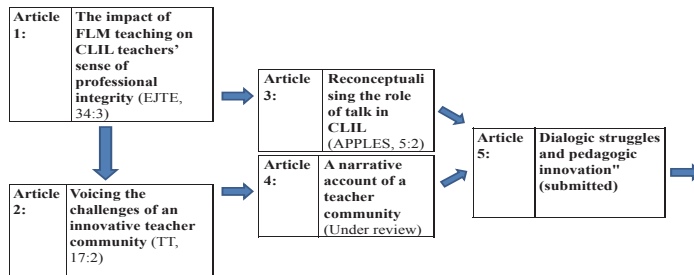


FIGURE 5 Mapping the relationships between the articles

The data used in this dissertation includes interviews with teachers, teacher-written notes from community meetings, transcribed focus group discussions between teachers and participant-observation notes. The data drawn on for each of the articles is presented in Figure 6 below. The next section of the dissertation introduces the main findings of the research.

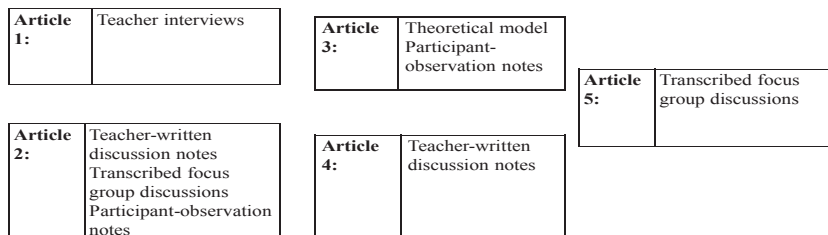


FIGURE 6 The articles and data

4 FINDINGS

The findings presented here are based on the combined articles included in this dissertation and seek to answer the questions:

1. In what ways is FLM education demanding for teachers?
2. How are the demands of FLM education experienced by teachers?
3. How can these demands and experiences support a reconceptualisation of teacherhood?

The research process began by inviting teachers to share their experiences. This initial phase was of an exploratory nature drawing on data from the interviews, community notes, focus group discussions, participant-observation notes and my research journal. As the teacher community continued to meet, the researcher actively sought teacher responses in the development of a pedagogical model for FLM. The data used to further explore and theorise the implications of FLM from a pedagogical perspective came from: a) the talk around the model, b) continuing to share FLM experiences and questions, and c) intentionally working with the notion of an educational pathway for FLM within the locality provided.

The findings section follows the order of the research questions, first presenting the findings related to the actual disjunctures FLM education can create. These detailed findings are followed by a critical consideration of the pedagogical significance of these disjunctures. Key concepts from Bakhtin's dialogic theory have then been used to suggest a theoretical understanding of the disjunctures. The initial findings from the teacher-interview and the focus group data resonated with the notion of disjuncture, a gap between the familiar way in which self is realised and a less familiar form of self-realisation. Indeed, FLM-teaching appeared to create a multiplicity of disjunctures for the teacher-participants, and not just as "gaps" but as "zones" where something was happening (Holquist & Emerson 1981). In order to make sense of the multiplicity of disjunctures both sociocultural and dialogic conceptualizations of pedagogy were considered. The sociocultural emphasis on agency as mediated and shaped by, as well as shaping, the contextual system supported a closer consid-

eration of teacherhood within a larger activity system. Dialogic theory enlarges this view by drawing attention to the feltness of the experience, the oughtness of relations, and the dynamic development of and within the system.

The broader view of dialogic theory was used to provide a more holistic view of the teacher experiences using the three relational positions intrinsic to dialogic ontology: *pedagogic being*, that is, the innermost identity of the teacher-professional, the chaotic sense of self particularly addressed in the I-for-me relationship; *pedagogic doing*, the practical realisation of the teacher-self, the enactment and instantiation of the I-for-others relationship; and, *pedagogic community*, the relations between individual teachers and their community context addressing the others-for-me, as well as the I-for-others relationships. The multiplicity of disjunctures were categorized according to these three dimensions, presented in turn below, along with the theorizations in my later articles (Articles 3, 4 & 5).

4.1 Foreign-language mediation and pedagogic being

Pedagogic being draws on and goes beyond the notion of teacher professional identity, “how teachers define themselves to themselves and to others” (Lasky 2005, p.901). Pedagogic being includes the notion of the teacher-self, but as noted above, teacherhood only exists in-relation. Van Manen’s (1991) notion of pedagogical tact emphasizes the essentially sensitive, responsibly responsive nature of teacherhood underlying the “active” nature of knowing – that to pedagogically know is to act, and a separation of the two is somewhat artificial. Nevertheless, three different relational positions are used here to indicate the greater emphasis on one particular relationship, rather than to imply the absence of the other two relational positions. Each subsection includes a table presenting the zones of disjuncture and detailed findings associated with each relational position.

4.1.1 Encounter with the FLM-classroom

In both the interview and focus group data the teachers referred to the extra demands of FLM teaching, although this acknowledgement was often paired with how rewarding the teachers perceive this approach to be for themselves and their pupils. Infante et al. (2009) similarly found that teacher-belief in this approach was an important motivator in persevering through the significant challenges of FLM. The interviews more explicitly addressed initial encounters with this context through comparisons with L1 teaching experiences. The teachers shared how FLM teaching was more traumatic than initial L1 teaching experiences, despite the fact that four of the six teachers entered the FLM classroom with extensive experience in L1 subject teaching.

TABLE 2 Detailed findings for pedagogic being

Dimension of teacherhood	Zone of disjuncture	Details
1. Pedagogic being	1. Encounter with FLM-classroom	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • more awful • required extra input • exhausting • nervous tension • extra adjustment • stressful
	2. Sense of integrity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • destabilised • reconciliation over time • relationship with the FL as self-expression • language personalised over time • non-essential development
	3. Persona	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • feeling distant • lack of humour • smaller scale of self • lack of professional richness • need for support
	4. Pedagogic sensitivity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • heart-based • intuitive activity • feedback from students less easily discernible
	5. Commitment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Established ways of being, doing and relating can conflict with the desire to be innovative

That this change upsets teachers' sense of self resonates with a significant amount of teacher identity research that has found that methodological change (Guskey 1984), organizational change (Hoy & Woolfolk 1993), political reform (Day, Elliot & Kington 2005) and performative measures (Troman et al. 2007) can be experienced as personal impositions, as outlined in Section 1. What is interesting, however, is that the same sense of imbalance is found despite the fact that the teacher-participants in the present study voluntarily undertook FLM teaching believing in its intrinsic value. This approach was not being imposed, and yet the reactions and dynamic sense of teacherhood appear to be similar. With regard to the development of FLM-pedagogy, it should perhaps be noted that entering this environment is no small undertaking and that teachers need to anticipate and be prepared for the demands of this context. What these demands are is further explored in the sections below.

4.1.2 Sense of integrity

The notion of integrity identified in the data related to both the teachers' personal sense of integrity, that is, whether they felt themselves to appropriately

carry out their pedagogic responsibilities, as well as the criteria by which the teachers judged the quality of their work. The initial shock of FLM teaching was accompanied by reduced confidence, as though their sense of self was destabilised (Day et al. 2005), suggesting that the FLM teachers struggled to teach from their strengths (Rodgers & Raider-Roth 2006). Over time, however, the teachers' sense of integrity was restored as they witnessed the effectiveness of their subject teaching and the appropriate way in which they felt they could handle their subject matter with their pupils. The restoration of integrity following the initial sense of disjuncture perhaps explains why teachers become increasingly committed to this approach (Infante et al. 2009), as recovering from the struggle strengthens their personal level of commitment. This dynamic experience, the heightened consciousness and required intentionality resulting from the initial disjuncture may also explain why teachers then draw on experiences in FLM contexts to develop teaching in L1 classrooms (Article 1; Coyle 2007; Coonan 2007).

Indeed, this disjuncture in a teacher's sense of integrity can perhaps be viewed as an important opportunity often missing in teacher development. Hargreaves and Dawe (1990), as well as others, write critically of contrived collegiality and attempts to cajole teacher development. Guskey (2002) argues that teachers are more likely to retain and repeat improved practice when they see the benefits of change, implying that altered practice without conviction is generally abandoned. FLM inadvertently requires teachers to use different approaches creating a genuine rather than contrived need for pedagogical development. Whether this is perceived positively as the "support coupled with pressure ... essential for continuing educational improvement." (Guskey 2002, p.388) or, rather, as an opportunity to reconsider established practice, is perhaps less important than the acknowledgement that "learning to be proficient at something new or finding meaning in a new way of doing things is difficult and sometimes painful" (Guskey 2002, p.388).

In FL literature the relationship with the FL as the mediation of self-expression is little explored. Harder's research (1980) paints a rather depressing picture of the reduced personality of the FL speaker unable to keep up with the pace and humour of native speakers. Harder suggests that for the FL speaker in this position silence is a legitimate option. Within the classroom context, Fortune et al.'s recent research (2008) provided a different picture of FLM teachers contemporaneously reflecting on FL use, wondering exactly which form or term to use, but nevertheless maintaining the pace of the lesson. Interestingly, the FLM teachers in the Fortune et al. (ibid.) study noted that although they constantly faced these language-related questions, they rarely remembered to consult with L1 colleagues about them after the lesson.

In a similar manner, this research found the teachers' relationship with the FL to be dynamic and subject to existing priorities. In the midst of the initial crisis and with good intentions, the teacher-participants intended to improve their own FL. However, there was little time during this crisis period for the teachers to improve their personal language skills. As a sense of balance was

regained the teachers felt that the integrity of their teaching was restored and the felt need for personal improvement passed as the FL was increasingly personalised. Personalised does not necessarily mean the correct language is used, rather that the teachers recognized themselves in the language they used (Article 1). This suggests that the “window of opportunity” for professional development created by the disjunctures of FLM does not remain open indefinitely. It remains an interesting question, however, how the initial good intentions for language development can be realized and whether these intentions can be re-kindled once the relationship between self and FL has been reconciled.

To fully capitalise on this experience, however, arguably requires intentional activity rather than the incidental benefits so far identified. Teachers’ sense of integrity was restored as teachers witnessed the effectiveness and intactness of their subject teaching. The opportunity to explore and refine this criterion within a pedagogic community might well support both the restoration of integrity and create a shared basis for pedagogic development. Existing literature suggests that quality criteria are important in supporting effective FLM practice (Coyle et al. 2010). This research adds to that recommendation by suggesting that quality criteria may also help teachers witness and develop pedagogic practice, thus benefitting both sensed and enacted teacherhood.

4.1.3 Persona

Persona can be understood as the intrinsic sense of self within the pedagogic context of the classroom. Palmer’s (2007) dis-ease when trying to imitate one of his favourite teachers is only reconciled when he dares to set aside the dominant lecturer model he had admired as a learner and yet struggled to emulate as a teacher. Rather than promoting any model of effective teaching, Palmer argues for authenticity in education – education that honestly connects with learners’ and teachers’ hearts and lives, with knowing and acting responsibility and responsively (ibid. 1993). This conceptualisation connects with the ontology of Bakhtin’s dialogic theory. The point here, however, is that each teacher as an individual has the right, even responsibility, to teach through who they are. The challenge with FLM teaching is that the reduced linguistic repertoire of teachers has direct implications for the realisation of self in the public forum of the classroom (Article 1).

The teacher-participants shared the reduced sense of self both in quantitative and qualitative terms: feeling distant, the lack of humour, the smaller scale of self and lack of personal richness compensated with an increase in the amount of lecturing, transparencies pre-empting classroom dialogue and notebook. While the literature targeting FLM teachers addresses the challenge of FLM with methodological innovation, it remains unclear as to whether compensatory methodologies fully compensate for the personal presence of the teacher. Nikula’s findings (2008 & 2010) attributed the development of a dialogic teaching style to the reduced authority and altered repertoire of the FLM teacher. It would seem inappropriate to suggest, however, that the enforced qualitative reduction of a teacher-self automatically leads to an enriched learn-

ing environment. A more reasonable proposition may perhaps be that the qualitative reduction of a teacher through a FL risks impoverishing the learning environment unless purposeful support is provided.

Recognising the significance of persona as part of pedagogic being may complement the methodological developments often promoted in FLM education. From a dialogic perspective, recognizing this significance would place FLM teachers in a more dialogic relationship with methodologies as genres to be mastered and managed in a way appropriate to oneself. This reorientation and recognition of persona suggest that FLM education is indeed a pedagogical innovation, rather than an alternative methodology alone.

4.1.4 Pedagogical sensitivity

Van Manen defines pedagogical sensitivity as practical, active understanding (ibid. 2008, p.4) responding to learners within the moment with pedagogical decisions as to what is appropriate within a particular moment in time. The FLM of teaching appears to challenge the pedagogical sensitivity of teachers as learner feedback and contributions become less easily discernible and intuitive, in-the-moment responses are less reliable, and expert formulations are less readily found. In this sense, the connectedness and pedagogical awareness of FLM teachers appear to be compromised as “automatic” activities in L1 classrooms come under the auspices of conscious activity in FLM contexts.

Although some of the teacher-participants adopted different methods for developing learner language, one teacher frankly shared how, in his heart, he knew he was not the same teacher through the FL (Article 1). This “confession” can be seen as indicative of the depth of awareness linking pedagogical sensitivity with the teacher persona and the overall sense of pedagogic being, as well as the depth of the disjuncture created by FLM.

4.1.5 Commitment

The teacher interviews and community discussions can be described as retrospective forms of reflection regarding FLM experiences and understanding. The transcribed focus group discussions, however, offer a more contemporaneous form of reflection, and it was within this context that the notion of dialogic struggle was developed. In the contemporaneous reflections of the teacher-participants, dilemmas and contradictions recurrently arose in the talk. The teachers expressed interest in different approaches and contexts. This interest, however, appeared curtailed by existing practices and loyalties (Article 5). One teacher shared how in the classroom pupils caught hold of an example she used and started to discuss together. Whilst the teacher said she knew this was good, her reaction was to silence the pupils, to get their attention back on her. The teachers shared several stories of innovative initiatives being negatively affected by pupil reactions, institutional requirements and collegial reactions. Drawing on Bakhtin’s notion of monologic and dialogic genres, the over-riding impression was that institutional education as an understood, shared way of being

permitted little innovation – even when this was in the best interest of learners and, presumably, the ultimate aim of institutional education. This struggle appeared to be intrinsically connected to the pedagogic being of the teacher-participants, as they shared who they are as subject-teachers within a wider system.

The imposed and recommended changes of FLM would seem to intensify the dialogic struggle experienced by teachers within FLM contexts. Whilst on the one hand established ways of being a teacher need to be recognised as constituent parts of pedagogic being, qualitatively different ways of being come to the fore. To suggest that the reconciliation of *what was* with *what is* is only a matter of methodological adaptation would appear to disregard the depth of feeling associated with teacherhood, FLM or otherwise. On the other hand, the dialogic struggle that can result from FLM education does appear to create an opportunity for the reconsideration of *what is* and *what could be*. This reconsideration frames education as a dialogic endeavour without a predetermined outcome, complementing the vulnerability and fundamental orientation of teacherhood. With regard to the spreading innovation of FLM education, this also provides an important indicator of what is being asked of teachers. Moreover, recognizing and legitimating dialogic struggles as indicators of development, that is, signs of encounter enriching existing understanding, suggests a notion applicable to professional development as well as classroom contexts.

4.1.6 Summary of foreign-language mediation and pedagogic being

The zones of disjuncture identified so far indicate that the FLM of teaching has significant implications for the pedagogic being of teachers. These implications include teachers' recognisable sense of self as they anticipate, encounter and relate in FLM classrooms. Core constituents of pedagogic being include teachers' sense of integrity, persona and pedagogical sensitivity, all dynamically charged in relation to the language of mediation. Mainstream educational research clearly underlines the significance of the teacher with regard to learning outcomes (Darling-Hammond 2000; Timperley & Alton-Lee 2008). This raises the question as to whether methodological changes can sufficiently compensate the felt qualitative and quantitative reduction of pedagogic self as CLIL literature has suggested to date. From a sociocultural perspective, the question would be whether methodological changes sufficiently compensate as tools of mediation. From a dialogic perspective, FLM increases the chaotic sense of self without necessarily providing the others-for-me to stabilise and enrich the sense of self.

4.2 Foreign-language mediation and pedagogic doing

Pedagogic doing refers to the relational, practical dimension of teacherhood. From a dialogic perspective, pedagogic doing can be defined as the "I-for-others". "A rich individual consciousness is a responsive one" (Hicks 2000,

p.239) and within a pedagogical context this requires material as well as immaterial responses, suggesting a complex view of pedagogic doing from a dialogic perspective. If framed by sociocultural theory, pedagogic doing might rather be defined as a form of agency, a dimension of teacherhood shaping and shaped by the wider context (Lasky 2005) drawing on mediational tools (Wertsch & Rupert 1993). The *feltness* of pedagogic doing called for from a dialogic perspective (Sullivan & McCarthy 2004), however, goes beyond a situated, mediated view of agency.

TABLE 3 Detailed findings for pedagogic doing

Dimension of teacherhood	Zone of disjuncture	Detailed findings
2. Pedagogic doing	1. Responsiveness to learner language development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • more extensive prep (terms and tenor) • assumed development over time • mode of delivery • responsible extension of existing teacher repertoire • anticipating need to extend learner repertoires • awareness of existing “norms”
	2. Management of resources	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • recognising existing repertoires of learners • using repertoires as resources • using routine as a resource • engaging new language partner: which language when • recognizing complexity of multiple, often simultaneous language-based activities • seeking pupil acquiescence • anticipating participation of all • anticipating continuity throughout school
	3. Real-time realisation of self through FL	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • awkward pronunciation • non-option of silence • absence of shared L1 • simultaneous responsibility to teach language and content • paralysis of brain • “smaller scale” of self • distanced from pupils
	4. Conceptualisation of talk	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • seven different talk-types relating to different pedagogical considerations • notion of a transitional dynamic

4.2.1 Responsiveness to learner language development

Whether pupils are working through their native tongue or a FL, vocabulary development is a vital part of the education (Vygotsky 1970; Mortimer & Scott 2003). Pupils need to learn specific meanings and applications of key terms and expressions, as well as how to use language to support learning itself (Mercer & Littleton 2007). The nature of FLM education is such that learners come to the classroom with a narrower range of vocabulary in quantitative terms – they know less terms and expressions, and also qualitatively – terms and expressions are often not associated with as many possible meanings.

Within the classroom context this means that on the one hand teachers have less linguistic resources to draw on with regard to learners, but on the other hand the “histories of words” (Voloshinov 1973; Leach & Scott 2002) may not be as distracting. The scientific terms “force” and “power”, for example, may not be complicated by everyday meanings as in L1 contexts. On the other hand, through the FL learners may not be as easily able to move beyond seemingly authoritative introductions of terms to learn to use terms creatively and personally (P. Robinson 2005). The teacher-participants in the present study, as with Fortune et al. (2008), reported extensive preparation of terminology for their own use as well as with learners, foregrounding this as being the most demanding aspect of FLM education (Article 2). Words, however, are not meaningful alone – meaning comes from the surrounding utterance (Bakhtin, e.g. 1986; Holquist 1983). The reduction in linguistic resources, therefore, has significant consequences for pedagogic doing and material preparation in FLM contexts.

Teachers typically assume that the linguistic proficiency of pupils will support warm-up, orientation activities or the probing of learner understanding (Mortimer & Scott 2003). However, if the linguistic repertoire of the pupils is significantly reduced, the teacher will need to reconsider how to build the common knowledge (Edwards & Mercer 1987) of the classroom, as the pupils will be unable to readily share previous knowledge from within or beyond the classroom. In one science lesson, for example, the conventional warm-up activity of listing the senses (Article 2) required more time and energy than would be required in an L1 environment; however, literature from FLM contexts is keen to emphasize that neither the cognitive load nor the content of lessons should be reduced to address this need (Mehisto et al. 2010).

From a pedagogic perspective, teachers need to be able to anticipate and meet the language demands and needs of FLM education. The extent of teacher responsibility is, however, increased to address the greater distance between learner and subject matter; at the same time the distance between the teacher in relation to learners and subject also increases, creating a much greater gap to be bridged by the pedagogic resources of the teacher. This demand is exacerbated by the lack of materials available for FLM, requiring teachers to develop and adapt materials specific to their contexts (Article 1 & 2; Coonan 2007). In this sense, the demands of the FLM context go beyond the existing professional knowledge (Banks et al. 1999) of teachers, requiring a significant amount of

time for pedagogical knowledge to accumulate again supporting anticipatory reflection (van Manen 2008). In the meantime, however, existing “norms” can come to light – how pupils are conventionally oriented to work with topics or not, and what skills and repertoires are assumed of learners. As awareness of “standard” norms and repertoires are recognized, this creates an opportunity to reconsider what these norms and repertoires are and should be, as well as the values and assumptions behind these standards. Bringing these standards into conscious view also suggests that the assumed links between pedagogic doing and learning can be reconsidered, authenticating the need to develop both teacher and learner repertoires relating directly to the management of resources within the classroom.

4.2.2 Management of resources

As in other educational contexts, teacher management of resources is an important aspect of pedagogic doing. In sociocultural terms, teachers need to recognise matured levels of development, maturing levels of development, and target levels of development. Creativity and critical thinking, however, also need to be recognized (Wegerif 2011). The findings in this research suggest that another qualitative dimension could also be added to this representation by recognizing the existing repertoires of learners to resource whole-class development. Within this research context, for example, some of the seventh grade learners had experience of FLM learning prior to seventh grade (Article 2). The teacher was faced with the dilemma of how to help learners recognize this repertoire and to make it available to others. This raises the pedagogic question of how to share these resources for the benefit of all.

In L1 classrooms, although learner compliance cannot be guaranteed, the language of communication is usually a taken-for-granted feature of the classroom. Within FLM contexts, however, pupil acquiescence can become a consideration: would pupils agree to the change in language, how to sustain the change and how to decide which language to use when? A parallel can be drawn here between young L1 learners who understand little from complex talk, for example, and older FL learners who may also be able to grasp the gist without understanding details (Oxford & Crookall 1989). A significant difference between young and older learners, however, is the anticipation of understanding. Young L1 learners have never experienced the comprehension of complex talk, whereas older learners can become frustrated when comprehension appears to be denied. On this basis, understanding why a FL is being used within the classroom is important. The importance of understanding why was also reiterated in the focus group discussions when the teachers shared experiences of using new approaches with learners. The teacher discussions suggest that established cultural practices of institutional education as part of both pedagogic being and learner expectation have significant implications for the development of pedagogic doing (Article 5). Within the observed science lesson, for example, although learners were hesitant to publically answer questions

aloud in the FL, they were prepared to write the FL on the board, thus changing the use of space and resources within the classroom.

FLM also refracted light on to other “standard features” of classroom life, such as the blackboard or data camera to display text whilst presenting an idea or teacher-led questions. Working through a FL, these multiple, simultaneous forms of language use were less complimentary, raising the question as to how the new language partner could be positively engaged with, that is, seen as a dialogic enrichment rather than a potential reduction. Another standard feature in the observed lessons was the use of routine. The emphasis on socialization in the early years and lower comprehensive partners appeared to more readily recognize routine as a resource for creating a safe, positive learning environment. The challenge of academic learning through a FL suggests that routine needs to also be recognized as an important resource with older learners (Article 5). The dilemma facing teachers of older students, however, is how to use routines to not only create a safe environment, as FLM literature suggests (Infante et al. 2009), but also to support a dynamic sense of development encouraging learners to move forward and to continually develop.

On the basis of these findings, it can be suggested that teachers’ management of resources has to take different timescales into consideration. Teachers have to be aware of where learners have come from, their past experience and established repertoires; where learners are in the present, which repertoires can be directly drawn on and which have to be established and developed; as well as noting the future development of learners, where they are heading in terms of both curricular and personal development. Intriguingly, however, the extended scope of the classroom as a place of FLM not only increases the quantity and quality of required pedagogic and learner repertoires, but also increases the scope for potentially valuable repertoires. Restricted pedagogic repertoires can make space for learners to genuinely contribute (Article 1; Nikula 2007b) and hesitancy to participate orally can restructure the use of space and time in classrooms (Article 2). These changes can be capitalized on by the more conscious enactment of pedagogic doing “imposed” by FLM. Seen in this light, the number of existing repertoires that can contribute to FLM contexts is increasing, rather than decreasing, the dialogic potential of FLM classrooms.

4.2.3 Real-time realisation of self through FL

The real-time realization of self through the FL extends the notion of a relationship with the FL as a form of self-expression (see 4.1.4). Particularly within the interviews, the teachers reported a number of different experiences with regard to the real-time realization of self within the FLM context. In moments of enactment, some of the teachers mentioned the awkwardness of pronunciation, the difficulty of publically sharing words that demonstrate subject expertise through the FL. The teachers mentioned the greater distance between themselves and the students, the feeling of being on a “smaller scale”, a reduced person, yet when facing a class teachers have to speak. This uncomfortable experience was right there in the moment of enactment, going beyond both orienta-

tion to the other and contemporaneous reflection, at the heart of pedagogic doing and intrinsically related to pedagogic being.

It is perhaps not surprising under these circumstances that teachers began to question how to handle the simultaneous responsibility of teaching language and content, whether within the classroom itself (Article 2) or in response to learner tests (Article 1). Although “language across the curriculum” ideals are nothing new, the pressing need to simultaneously use and develop learner language within this situation is one that cannot be ignored. The response, however, is where the pedagogic value of this approach lies. If teachers experience the demand as overwhelming, the response, quite reasonably, would be a reduced repertoire of activities, a narrower conceptualization of curriculum and potential. If, however, teachers experience the demands as a new lens through which to view what is happening, how and why, and an opportunity to explore previously unrecognized resources, then FLM creates an interesting opportunity in the dialogic development of pedagogy.

The need to continue pedagogical development is also highlighted in the finding that teachers felt particularly challenged when they did not share the pupils’ L1 (Article 2). This suggests that the L1 remained as a resource within this FLM context, even though the aim was to maximize the use of the FL. This finding also suggests that the experiences of these teachers could be relevant to mainstream classrooms as pupil demographics continue to change. Increased heterogeneity can reduce the sharedness of the L1 as a resource and the calling on teachers to find other ways to effectively communicate and to support pupil language development. On this basis, greater awareness of how talk is used in classroom contexts can be greatly beneficial as one way of recognizing and building on existing resources.

4.2.4 Conceptualisation of talk

The reconceptualisation of talk in FLM education presented here is an attempt to recognise and respond to the challenges associated with FLM, in particular talk, as a ubiquitous feature of classroom life. This theoretical response draws on sociocultural and dialogic pedagogies, as well as participant observations and dialogue with FLM teachers. This model could be seen as a dialectic moment in an on-going dialogue (Bakhtin 1986, p.162). The different talk-types aim to represent different aspects of pedagogy, recognizing the classroom as a community that exists within the present, as well as being oriented to the future. The model itself is offered as a navigational tool for teachers working within FLM contexts and consists of seven the different talk-types outlined below.

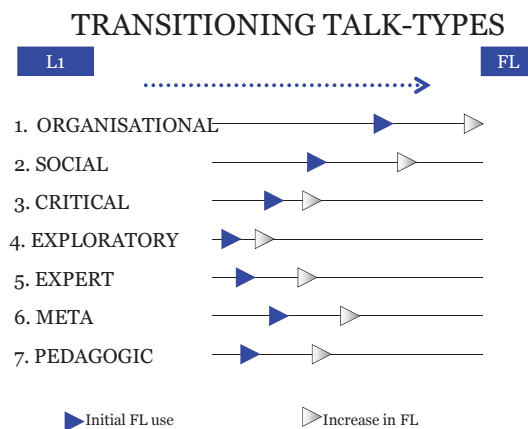


FIGURE 7 Transitioning talk-types in FLM education

Organisational talk represents the practical management of the learning environment, whether making the physical conditions of the classroom pleasant by opening a window, rearranging seating arrangements to have pupils work in groups, or directing learners in working with different materials. Organisational talk is closely related to the material environment and practical activity. The close relationship between organisational talk and the immediate learning context arguably makes this talk-type more readily accessible to learners. *Social* talk initiates and over time instantiates the relationships between learners, opening channels of communication and establishing trust (Pierce & Gilles 2008). In social talk pupils become familiar with the relational dimension of classroom life. In turn, this form of talk is intended to prepare the ground for more abstract and demanding forms of talk, such as critical talk.

Critical talk is intended to instantiate a particular orientation to cultural knowledge as something to engage with through dialogue. In this sense, critical talk represents a key pedagogic value, whether from a sociocultural or dialogic perspective. Within the Vygotskian paradigm, critical talk would represent the active engagement of learners in the educational process. From a Bakhtinian perspective, engaging with dialogue allows the acknowledgement of new perspectives and counters the authoritative tendency of expert cultural knowledge.

Exploratory talk draws directly on the work of Mercer and Littleton (2007), amongst others, as a means for engaging pupils in learning and really exploiting the social plane as the first stage of cognitive development. As learners share and wrestle with ideas in exploratory talk, not only is this an opportunity for the internalization of cultural knowledge being engendered, but also the opportunity to see from different perspectives, witness one's own words and to change one's mind. Exploratory talk supports the notion of peer engagement as a significant resource for individual development, and the freedom to play with ideas.

Expert talk is the more formal representation of cultural knowledge, the precise way of instantiating expert ways of seeing the world. This is the most abstract form of talk in the classroom, representing concepts that are not available to learners through everyday experiences of the world. Whilst the forms of talk already defined prepare the ground for expert talk, meta talk and pedagogic talk more directly relate to expert talk as different forms of scaffold. *Meta* talk addresses the particular forms and types of language used to express expert talk, explaining the symbolic dimension of signification. Meta talk can also be viewed as the guidelines for the way in which talk is used within the learning context, whether as a tool or as a space. *Pedagogic* talk is specifically bridging talk that translates expert notions into everyday equivalents – with all the provisos required, and back again.

In addition to identifying these different types of talk in order to support the FLM teacher in pedagogically navigating the sea of learning, another key notion is presented in the diagram. This is the notion of a *transitional dynamic*. The transitional dynamic partly expresses the positive anticipation of development from learning through the L1, to learning through the FL. This is intended to partially counter the tendency of classroom cultures to become sedimented, rather than dynamic learning contexts. This particularly came to light in the participant observations when the presence of the FL appeared to gradually regress over time. Moreover, this notion allows for the graduated transition of different talk-types in the classroom. The concrete nature of organisational talk, for example, suggests that a teacher can anticipate using a significant amount of this talk-type within a much shorter period of time than more abstract talk-types. This, again, was particularly apt in the participant observations and addressed concerns raised in the teacher community that the increasing academic demands of the curriculum appeared to too quickly raise the threshold for using the FL in the classroom, although the anticipated use of the FL remained an important feature of the CLIL educational pathway.

4.2.5 Summary of foreign-language mediation and pedagogic doing

In the promotional and support literature for FLM education, the need for methodological change and development to account for the reduced linguistic resources of teachers and learners is often mentioned (Marsh 2002; Mehisto et al. 2008). Although methodological change is usually beneficial, broadening teacher and learner repertoires and benefitting learning outcomes (Baetens-Beardsmore 2008), the nature of the challenge FLM presents for pedagogic doing is often overlooked. Lesson plan rubrics and curriculum planning models (Coyle 1999; de Graaff et al. 2007) are both useful and can helpfully steer attention to previously unconsidered aspects of classroom activity, but I would argue on the basis of these findings that pedagogic doing is more than methodology and that the FLM of education requires more than methodological change.

According to these findings, pedagogic doing is based on active responsiveness to learners prior to lessons, within lessons and following lessons. Pedagogic doing involves teachers recognising, actively incorporating and develop-

ing a wide variety of resources, material and immaterial, connected with the classroom environment. Furthermore, the real-time expression of pedagogic doing is often through the FL, creating a qualitative distance between teacher and learners that should be acknowledged and also responded to. Although the significance of this qualitative gap cannot be defined by this research alone, these findings do suggest that more should be understood about this phenomenon. An initial response to these findings is therefore to provide a reconceptualisation of talk within the FLM classroom. This reconceptualisation attempts to recognise different aspects of pedagogic doing and to also acknowledge the intrinsically relational nature of pedagogy. It is the relational aspect of pedagogic community that constitutes the final section of the findings.

4.3 Foreign-language mediation and pedagogic relating

Pedagogic community as a dimension of teacherhood explicitly recognises teachers as part of a wider social entity, suggesting that “others-for-me” relationships play a fundamental role in the formation and on-going development of teacherhood. The zones of disjuncture and detailed findings associated with pedagogic relating are presented in Table 4.

4.3.1 Building a professional community

An explicit aim of the teacher community was to develop an educational pathway from early education and through the comprehensive school with a view to FLM education continuing in the upper secondary school. To support this aim a smaller group of representatives, plus the research partner, met to try to formulate a clearer vision for this pathway (see Article 4). This process began by describing the pedagogic goals of each partner within their particular contexts. These descriptions were then shared on paper with the wider community for any further comments or editions. Play was initially mentioned in the early education partner’s description; however, during the meeting this was added to both comprehensive school partners’ descriptions as well. The theme of this meeting was FL learning, how it was experienced at different stages of the pathway and what the pedagogic priorities were. In the teacher notes motivation across each age group was a priority, suggesting a shared concern even though the contextual settings differed.

As representatives from the different partners were present in both the working group and community discussions, it could be suggested that in these events the educational pathway, usually geographically and ideologically distributed, was being telescoped into a single location. Each partner spoke from his or her particular location within the educational pathway, but they were answered by another partner from a different location. The early education partner spoke of the children’s natural enthusiasm, yet limited resources, whereas by upper comprehensive school the pupils had significant resources

yet their natural enthusiasm seemed to wane. This made the role of the lower comprehensive partner a key link in mediating the development from early education to upper comprehensive school.

TABLE 4 Detailed findings for pedagogic relating

Dimension of teacherhood	Zone of disjuncture	Detailed findings
3. Pedagogic relating	1. Building a professional community	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Investment beyond here-and-now • continuity in playing • motivation across all ages • shared materials • visit classes • develop curricula • develop whole school vision • gain recognition from LA • engage with parents • creative use of existing resources
	2. Mutual pedagogic relationships	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • different placements along educational pathway • enriched understanding from different perspectives
	3. Re-orienting professional relationships	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • reflecting on and communicating pedagogic knowledge • recognizing inadequacy of previous experience and limitations of established professional knowledge • conceptualising possibilities in the light of FLM demands • seeking and using alternative perspectives • framing activities for pupils to create participatory space • appropriately stretching pupils over time
	4. Embedded in institution	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • appropriate/available for who? • beholden to head teacher's decisions • desire support of wider staff

The notion of chronotope (Bakhtin 1981, p.250) is useful here. By coming together as a community across the educational spectrum, the teachers became a concrete representation of the educational pathway that they hoped to develop. This concrete representation then oriented the discussions and became a resource applicable to the classroom context. Rather than upper comprehensive school being a distant future in the view of the early education teachers, the challenge of this age group was becoming part of the immediate present. Furthermore, the shared concerns of the teachers, albeit with contextual differences, cast day-to-day development in the classroom in a different light. Second grade teachers, for example, not only prepare pupils for third grade but this is part of a wider educational pathway that is perhaps easily hidden in the demands of day-to-day pedagogical decision making. As the teachers recognised the conti-

nuity and membership of an extensive educational pathway, rather than the “absence of shared norms and values” (Grossman, et al. 2001) being divisive, the altered educational chronotope appears to confirm shared norms and values at the heart of pedagogic community. Recognising cumulative development within the educational pathway also potentially complements the challenges of pedagogic doing as outlined above (Section 2.2.2) by revealing why the FL is relevant to the classroom for all participants. This cumulative development also supports the reconceptualisation of talk, for example, as the development of social talk in the lower comprehensive school creates an important basis for exploratory and critical talk in academic learning further along the educational pathway (Article 3).

This cumulative dynamic also appeared to be present in the community discussions. As the teachers talked together, a wide variety of suggestions were made as to how to enhance community activities (see Table 4). These suggestions included both material and immaterial ideas, whether sharing material or visiting classes, but the underlying idea went beyond pooling resources. Sharing material would provide the early education teachers with a chronotopic view as to where their children were going to and would allow the upper comprehensive partner to see where their pupils had come from. The teachers began to speak about the need for individual school visions and to identify existing resources, such as international students and staff, within particular partners. This was not only to support the development of FLM provision within these partners, but to be able to share these developments with the other partners. Through these activities it could be suggested that the educational pathway, rather than being a “corridor of time” was an increasingly complex, lived reality.

As the educational pathway becomes “palpable and visible” (Bakhtin 1981, p.250), however, the repertoire of skills required of and by the partners goes beyond classroom pedagogy. The teachers identified the need to gain recognition from the educational authorities and to re-engage with parents, the initial driving force behind the FLM initiative. The creation of a public face required the teacher-partners to not only talk together, but to also respond to other similar initiatives as sources of inspiration or alternative models. This dialogic development of the professional community raises the interesting question as to who is responsible for supporting and developing this repertoire of skills located beyond the classroom. Perhaps the most important, immediate resource available to teachers, however, are the “mutual pedagogic relationships” that can be established between colleagues.

4.3.2 Mutual pedagogic relationships

The members of the community not only spanned the entire educational spectrum but they also represented a wide range of subject and educational expertise: sciences, humanities, arts, sports, languages, special education, early education, class teacher education. Initially, the community comprised distinct members occupying discrete segments of the educational pathway following

the conventions of institutional education. As discussions continued within the community, however, a more graduated pathway developed (see Figure 8). Each partner was recognised as responsible for a portion of the shared pathway, although some features, such as the importance of playing and motivation, were recognised as relevant to all partners. Community discussions continued and two overlapping pedagogical priorities, “socialisation into school culture” and “socialisation into subject culture” came into view. The first priority of the early years and lower comprehensive partner was “socialisation into school culture”, whereas the “socialisation into subject culture” was the first priority of the other partners. Nevertheless, the early years and lower comprehensive partner are still attentive to subject cultures and the upper comprehensive and upper secondary partners also support socialisation into school or academic culture (see Figure 9). This development suggests that all partners are essentially engaged in the same enterprise, with their different emphases complementing the transitional development of learners.

These different conceptualisations provide some indication of the value of talk between teachers. From initially distinct positions to acknowledged shared features, the educational pathway itself becomes a shared foundation with different emphases. The third conceptualisation reiterates the Bakhtinian notion of “no individual without cultural, social without personal” (Sullivan & McCarthy 2004, p.292) emphasizing the reciprocity of the relationships between the partners, without merging or mixing them, losing all sense of individuality. Whilst this view is stated as the over-arching notion of national curricula, in practice it can be little more than a “common parking lot” that unites teacher activity (Little 1999, p.256 in Feiman-Nemser 2003). In this research, the “being and becoming” of pedagogy offers an appropriate conceptualisation of the potential relationships between teacher colleagues.

The third conceptualisation also offers a richer understanding of what pedagogic community can mean in practice. Framing collegial relationships as mutual pedagogic relationships recognises the potential resourcefulness and value of discussions with and between colleagues from different perspectives. From a dialogic perspective, mutual pedagogic relationships suggest that each teacher has something to contribute and gain from pedagogic community. This is a significant departure from notions of teacher community based on expert-novice or subject distinctions, although it should not be supposed that dialogic relations are easy, as the following section illustrates.

4.3.3 Re-orienting professional relationships

The teacher community and the focus group discussions provide contrasting views of dialogic engagement in community. Both formats involved coming together for regular theme-based discussions, a place where interested teachers could reflect on their existing practice and pedagogical values with a view to addressing and anticipating the challenges of FLM education. These challenges were partly based on theory, on experiences with different classes, on observations and experiences of FLM. The discussions were deliberately open-ended to

provide space for the participants to reflect and respond. After the initial pleasantries and coffee, the participants were invited to respond to questions related to the key considerations of their learners or subject, for example, thoughts on and understanding of the role of language in their subject or their experiences of FLM teaching. Through these discussions, issues such as how to frame activities for pupils, how to create participatory space and how to appropriately stretch pupils over time, came to the fore (Articles 2 & 4).

Whereas the teacher community texts are the products of discussion written by the teacher-partners from across the educational spectrum, the focus group data is the process of discussion between colleagues within the same school, recorded and transcribed. The community texts in this sense are closer to the interview data containing reflections on struggles and dilemmas. The real-time discussions of the focus groups, however, capture more of the dilemmas and struggles in progress, particularly in relation to the challenge of sharing subject pedagogy and critically considering potential changes, whether due to necessity or interest, in pedagogical innovation. The struggles of teachers to contemporaneously share understanding has been described as a struggle to articulate perspectives (Ylimaz 2008, p.43) or explained as an artificial division between know-how and know-what. Indeed, there may be truth in both of these explanations as pedagogical knowledge is deeply embedded in the person as well as the practice of teacherhood. Just as it is difficult to put many automatic processes into words, so the complexity of this phenomenon defies the instantaneous verbalisation of pedagogic knowledge.

It could also be suggested, however, that teachers are rarely encouraged to share pedagogic understanding with colleagues, just as teachers rarely share pedagogic goals and purposes with learners in the classroom (Edwards & Mercer 1987; Matusov 2007), at least in a way that pupils can understand (Jeffrey & Troman 2011). The demands made by FLM education and the greater need to actively engage learners suggest, however, that in order to meet the demands and to support learners, pedagogic understanding needs to be shared aloud more frequently in more contexts. This initiative would appear, however, to go against the grain of the authoritarian tendency of institutional education.

4.3.4 Embedded in institution

A recurring theme in both the focus group and community discussions was the institutional context of teachers' pedagogic being, doing and relating. Decisions needed to be made as to how to make FLM education available and how to continue making it available along the pathway. This not only implicates available resources but also teacher colleagues, decision makers and educational authorities at the municipal level. The lack of assurance that FLM concerns or interests would be taken up was somewhat problematic and on occasion cast a negative shadow over the community efforts.

Recent publications on Finnish education report the considerable amount of freedom teachers enjoy (Sahlberg 2007). The national curricula for the different educational levels are the only binding requirements. Nevertheless, teachers

are trusted to teach the curriculum in the way they choose without inspections or formal accountability measures beyond keeping parents regularly informed on test results and learner progress. Within the comprehensive school system up to 8 hours a week (25%) of the timetable can be taught through a FL. Whilst this would suggest a dialogic form of education, this is not necessarily the case and a 2004 report comments that tension exists “between a progressive participatory rhetoric and an incipient managerialist culture” (Webb, Vulliamy, Hämäläinen, Sarja, Kimonen, & Nevalainen 2004). This suggests that the “generic” nature of institutional education can be more monologic than perhaps is sometimes portrayed. At least within the context of this research, the teachers appeared to feel a divided loyalty to the existing system and pedagogical innovation (see 5.3.4).

A main finding of this research is, however, the inadequacy of previous experience to prepare teachers for the significantly different demands and extended requirements of FLM education. These findings were reiterated in different ways in the interviews (Article 1), the community discussions (Article 2) and in the focus group discussions (Articles 2 & 5). This is not to suggest that the existing pedagogic knowledge of teachers is neither important nor useful, but the response of the encompassing institutional educational genre is significant. A monologic, authoritarian genre would frame pedagogic knowledge as static. If pedagogic knowledge is seen as a static body of expertise to be acquired and used as the foundation for future practice, a significantly new context challenging expertise can imply deficiency. This is perhaps part of the stress noted by the teachers above. This also suggests that a “dose” of training could “top-up” expertise to the required standard.

On the other hand, a dialogic genre would recognize pedagogic knowledge as dynamic. In this case, the gap between established and required knowledge creates fertile ground for questions identifying what is and discussing what could be. This second option reflects Bakhtin’s note that, “dialectics was born of dialogue so as to return again to dialogue on a higher level” (Bakhtin 1986, p.162). In other words, established expertise – a form of dialectic, reconciled knowledge – is not the end, but a good basis for further and continual development, not as something temporarily offered to teachers, but rather as something that teachers are engaged in along with educational authorities and other educational stakeholders. This appears to be a far more fruitful approach for professionals and institutions invested in preparing pupils for an unknown future.

4.3.5 Summary of foreign-language mediation and pedagogic relating

The significant challenges teachers face in FLM education appear to sufficiently challenge existing, assumed forms of pedagogic being and doing to validate engagement with teacher colleagues in a different way. The gap between established and anticipated understanding appears to generate the space for questions, legitimating the development of a community invested in FLM, yet working from different perspectives. The physical meetings of the teachers created a

concrete representation of the educational pathway they were seeking to create. The findings suggest that this concrete representation can potentially enrich understanding between colleagues, as well as reorient classroom activity. The notion of dialogue being enriched by dialectics provides a useful metaphor to describe how this concrete representation can become a form of pedagogic community.

The teacher discussions in the community and focus groups offered opportunities for the participants to dialogically seek and share alternative perspectives, for understanding to be enriched without insisting that all participants should think the same and change their practice accordingly. In this sense, existing understanding and experience are resources for further development, as are the different perspectives and experiences of colleagues. From a dialogic perspective, it could be suggested that the potential development of teacherhood is far greater when teacher colleagues stand in dialogic relations with one another, although this can also be a challenging position to occupy.

5 DISCUSSION

The findings in the previous section indicate in what ways FLM affects teacherhood with regard to the three key dimensions of pedagogic being, pedagogic doing and pedagogic community. These findings primarily address the first two research questions: 1) In what ways is FLM education demanding for teachers? and 2) how are the demands of FLM education experienced by teachers? The third question addressed here is: how can these demands and experiences support a reconceptualization of teacherhood? The Discussion section includes tables following the same generic format as in the Findings section, for example, the first column represents the dimension of teacherhood and the second column the identified zone of disjuncture. The third column, however, summarises what the lens of FLM reveals about teacherhood, and the fourth column provides a dialogic response to the findings. Columns three and four are expanded in the text accompanying the table. Whereas the previous section systematically presented the findings in turn, the discussion section highlights the complementarity of the different findings. For example, although “sense of integrity” and “commitment” were identified as separate zones of disjuncture, a dialogic response suggests that both zones are subject to the struggle between centripetal and centrifugal forces. It is hoped that by presenting the discussion in this way, a more holistic conceptualisation of teacherhood as a dialogic phenomenon is provided.

5.1 Conceptualising pedagogic being from a dialogic perspective

In the initial conceptualisation of teacherhood outlined in this dissertation pedagogic being was defined as a multifaceted concept understood as the I-for-me position. Pedagogic being was understood as an essentially positive orientation to the other, deeply embedded in the selfhood of the teacher. The zones of disjuncture identified through the FLM of teacherhood include the anticipated and actual encounter with the classroom, the teachers’ sense of integrity, persona,

pedagogic sensitivity and commitment. The particular contribution of this research, however, is to indicate in what specific ways FLM teacherhood is demanding and how these findings can support the conceptualisation of these experiences in order to respond to these challenges.

TABLE 5 Pedagogic being from a dialogic perspective

Dimension of teacherhood	Zone of disjuncture	What FLM reveals about teacherhood	Dialogic response to the findings
1. Pedagogic being	1. Encounter with FLM-classroom	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • More demanding than “standard” pedagogy 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Feltness of experience
	2. Sense of integrity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Quality criteria important for practice and restoration of teacherhood. • Relationship with FL dynamic and subject to existing priorities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Witness position • Tension between centrifugal-centripetal forces
	3. Persona	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Qualitative reduction of self has direct implications for practice 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Signing name against acts
	4. Pedagogic sensitivity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • FLM can dull intuitive sensors 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reciprocity compromised • Raising of new questions • Outsideness
	5. Commitment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Positive orientation to change does not negate struggles as part of a dialogic response 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Struggle is part of a dialogic response

5.1.1 Understanding encounter

As felt experiences, teacher encounters with FLM classrooms were emotionally heightened and more demanding than “standard” or L1 mediated contexts. Although a sociocultural account of these experiences could acknowledge the different demands FLM makes of teachers as professional pedagogues, the significance of these experiences for these teachers would receive little room in such an account (Sullivan & McCarthy 2004). Teacher burnout (Day & Leitch

2001) and rising rates of teacher attrition (Heikkinen, Tynjälä & Kiviniemi 2011) suggest that a more fundamental, perhaps human, response is required.

It is most likely that the FLM of education will continue to spread in different forms at an increasing rate as schools seek different means to motivate learners, educational institutions strive for international recognition, and the pace of demographic change increases. A fuller conceptualisation of the implications of FLM needs to be recognised at many levels, starting with teachers so that they could proactively, rather than reactively, meet the challenges of FLM. Recognition within schools and local authorities of the challenges of FLM might also encourage individual teachers to draw on and contribute to the wider community.

5.1.2 Integrity and commitment

Drawing from and contributing to the wider community implies that teachers need to feel invested in their work and able to work from their strengths (Palmer 2007). This research found that as teachers witnessed the restoration of practice, their confidence and sense of integrity associated with their teacherhood returned. A similar dynamic was identified as the teachers witnessed that their perhaps imperfect FL was nevertheless adequate. The quality criteria for this restoration, however, were based on what *had been* in L1 contexts, rather than what *could be* in FLM contexts. Coyle et al. (2010) argue that quality criteria are important for the assessment of CLIL and clearly recognise that criteria for quality subject learning are lacking from the scope of CLIL research (Dalton-Puffer 2011). From a dialogic perspective, however, it could be suggested that teachers who are investing in this approach, who are bridging greater distances in the classroom with less resources, should also be supported in the generation of quality criteria within the educational community. Imposing quality criteria from the outside is arguably likely to impose further pressure on FLM teachers; however, the opportunity to reconsider the criteria for good pedagogy is a valuable way in which individual and community pedagogies, notions of teacherhood and learner experiences can be enriched.

This research does not suggest that this is an easy process. The tendency to be satisfied with existing criteria is indicative of the tension between centripetal forces that resist development and centrifugal forces that favour change. Although centripetal forces are important for supporting stability, if these forces dominate they quash innovation and deny teachers the freedom to take up a personally responsible position. This point is reiterated in the dialogic struggles identified in the talk of the teachers as they discussed possibilities for change together (Article 5). These struggles particularly centred around the dual commitment of the teachers to the institutional system to which they belong and to learners. The conflict between these two suggests that the teachers experience the cultural institution of education as a monologic, rather than dialogic, genre.

Lefstein's (2006) response to the struggles of teachers attempting to use dialogic pedagogy is to settle for a more pragmatic version of dialogism reconciled with the monologic tendency of the system. I find this a difficult position

to accept. Bakhtin himself suffered considerably during his own lifetime, living under an oppressive state, suffering exile and from a crippling bone disease (Bakhtin 1981 p.xxiii). It would seem to be easier under these conditions to give up on an optimistic dialogic theory that seeks to enrich rather than impoverish (Hicks 2000), yet Bakhtin's optimism is present in his later writing (1986 & 1981) as in his earlier texts (1990 & 1993). What should perhaps be reiterated, however, is that dialogic words lead to "intense interaction, a struggle" (ibid. 1981, pp.345-346) that is intoned with moral accountability to self and other (Emerson 1996; Sullivan 2007). The question with regard to education is whether those who believe in the intrinsic value of education are prepared to settle for a system that is little inclined to acknowledge the value of those participating within the system, teachers or learners, or whether it is a struggle worth facing. It might also be worth noting here that the term struggle does not necessarily negate the value of being positively oriented to the other and to developmental change. Indeed, the findings of this research (Articles 1 & 2) as well as Infante et al. (2009) indicate that the struggle increases teacher commitment.

5.1.3 Persona and sensitivity

Some of the findings especially connected with pedagogic being as a dimension of teacherhood indicated that FLM qualitatively reduced the "self" of the teacher with direct implications for practice. Teachers acknowledged a lack of humour and a reduced sense of personal richness. It is hard to see how teachers experiencing this kind of reduced teacherhood could readily sign their name against their acts as teachers. Some of the teachers also mentioned how FLM could dull their intuitive sensors with feedback from learners being less easily discernible. Similarly, with pedagogic doing the teachers began to question where and how to begin, what to expect from learners, what kind of level to aim for. These findings are indicative of the disorientation the teachers experienced within the FLM classroom and the way in which the assumed reciprocity between teachers and learners appears to be compromised through the FL.

These findings, however, can also be understood in another way. As Bakhtin remarks, "dialectics was born of dialogue so as to return again to dialogue on a higher level" (ibid. 1986, p.162). Applied to the experiences of these teachers, it could be said that the disjunctures created by the innovation of FLM encouraged the teachers to start asking questions. Just as language becomes automatic and assumed as a general part of life (Marková 1997), so language becomes automatic and assumed in the classroom. This is not to suggest that dialogue is readily born out of disoriented dialectics! Hayes and Matusov (2005) present the case study of a bilingual teacher who believed in an authentic approach to FL learning, yet still fell into the trap of inauthentic language use with learners. Intriguingly, whatever the beliefs of the teacher, dialectic or monologic talk was automatically realised. For the teachers in this study, however, the FL could not be automatically realised, whether due to awkward pronunciation, missing words or subject-specific language that went beyond the learners' FL

repertoires. This disjuncture appears to have made the teachers stop and to step outside their assumed way of being.

It is an intriguing idea to apply the notion of outsideness to education. Indeed, institutional education, almost by default, is all about increasing “insiderness”, acculturating learners into established ways of being and knowing and teachers teaching to a defined curriculum. In a recent publication, Wegerif (2011) suggests that the process of education should involve “drawing learners through relationships into a state of being more at home in openness and multiplicity” (ibid. 2011, p.189). This position accords with the dialogic theory outlined here, but just as with other talk-based and dialogically inspired innovations, one wonders how teachers can succeed in this approach if they themselves are rarely invited into states of “openness and multiplicity” institutionally or collegially. If, however, outsideness was added to this conceptualisation of education as a valid resource and important dimension of learning, what new questions could then arise?

The teachers in this research found their own innovative ways to address the challenges they faced in the classroom. As the first article (Article 1) reports, some of the teachers found the new ways of being in the classroom so effective in FLM contexts that these approaches were then used in the L1 classroom as well. Similarly, the pedagogic community that developed on the basis of a shared need to enhance FLM education within the locality created the opportunity for teachers from early education to talk with subject teachers from upper secondary school (Article 4). In educational research, boundary crossing is often treated as an obstacle, with teachers defined by institutional “type” according to subject or learner age (e.g. Grossman, et al. 2001; Arkoudis 2006). Framing boundaries as opposing obstacles rather than complementary differences is problematic (Marková 1997). Valuing the “outsiderness” of colleagues, however, would be an interesting way of re-appraising what is already known; by inviting, for example, language teachers to ask questions about approaches to science, science teachers to ask questions about assumptions in the humanities. Rather than maintaining walls of subject expertise, the explicit intention to look from a different perspective might encourage intentional – rather than incidental or survival-based – innovation in education. It is intriguing to think that this might also help teachers move away from superficial questions in the classroom and begin to reconsider learner questions as valid resources for learning, as well as possibly reorienting educational research from something that is done *on* teachers, to an endeavour *with* teachers.

5.2 Conceptualising pedagogic doing from a dialogic perspective

The initial conceptualisation of pedagogic doing outlined this as the relational, practical dimension of teacherhood drawing on both material and immaterial resources and the essentially moral, concrete answerability of I-for-others relationships. The zones of disjuncture associated with pedagogic doing in this re-

search include teachers' responsiveness to learner language development, management of resources, real-time realisation of self through the FL and the conceptualisation of talk in FLM education.

TABLE 6 Pedagogic doing from a dialogic perspective

Dimension of teacherhood	Zone of disjuncture	What FLM reveals about teacherhood	Dialogic response to the findings
2. Pedagogic doing	1. Responsiveness to learner language development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increased responsibility qualitatively and quantitatively • Dual responsibility of teachers to develop self and others. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Words as bridges • Other being inside my words - orientation uncertain
	2. Management of resources	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Basic assumptions less assured. • Alternative resources brought into view. • Possible range of learner repertoires broader than in standard classroom context 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Orientation uncertain - trust • Positive anticipation • Authorship of others and of self
	3. Real-time realisation of self through FL	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Qualitative and quantitative reduction of self. • Expanded ZPD, heightened awareness of responsibility 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Language as the material realisation of thought - self
	4. Conceptualising the role of talk in FLM education	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increased awareness of how language is used within learning contexts and the notion of a transitional dynamic 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Language as material realisation - also classroom full of a complex variety of genres and relationships

5.2.1 Understanding teacher responsiveness and real-time realisation

As with the findings related to pedagogic being, the findings related to pedagogic doing highlight the increased responsibility of teachers to address the qualitative and, in some ways, quantitative reduction of the FLM classroom. An original prerequisite of CLIL was to enhance FL learning without hindering subject learning (Masih 1999). In more recent formulations CLIL hopes for enhanced FL and subject learning (Baetens-Beardsmore 2008) and presumably with the expansion of FLM in higher education it is of the utmost importance that use of the FL should not be detrimental to the development of expertise. Nevertheless, within FLM contexts teachers often face the dual responsibility of developing the self, as well as learner-others.

From a dialogic perspective, the nature of language as a phenomenon linking the personal with the social, the individual with the cultural (Sullivan & McCarthy 2004) is keenly linked to the increased pedagogic responsibility and altered linguistic repertoire of FLM. The depiction of words as bridges (Voloshinov 1973, p.86) usefully illustrates the way in which teachers are to build meaning *with* learners rather than *for* learners. It is in building with learners that they can then be present inside the words of teachers not just as “standard understanding for this age group” – although that can help orientate teaching, but as actual others with different experiences. If pupils can share their own understanding, whether established or emerging, then teachers have more resources to work with in the classroom and are meeting learners as consciousnesses, not blank sheets. As an example, one teacher shared that when working through a FL she could not take up her usual role as “secretary” at the blackboard and so instead a student took up this role (Article 1). In this change, the teacher stepped back from the centre stage of the classroom, allowing students to come forward with far greater freedom. The teacher was able to concentrate on how the learners were engaged in the discussion around the topic and to literally see their contributions, rather than absorbing learners’ words into the voice of the teacher.

To step back, however, and to allow learners to enter the centre stage of the classroom requires teachers to trust and to positively anticipate contributions from learners. Other examples from Article 1 paint different pictures as some teachers opted to more tightly control lessons through scripts and prepared slides. Although this is an understandable and even a responsible reaction to the challenges of FLM, prepared scripts by definition reduce the potential dialogical contact of the classroom. As forms of authorship, prepared scripts rarely anticipate positive contributions from learners or teachers outside the predefined scope of the lesson unless this value is consciously built into the foundational values of the teaching-learning context. Arguably, the incidental development of education through a challenging initiative such as the FLM of education is neither a moral nor concretely answerable response, although incidental findings can be useful indicators of potential development.

5.2.2 Recognising the management of resources

It is an interesting finding in both this research (Article 1) and in Nikula’s research (2007b & 2010) that the altered repertoires of teachers in FLM environments to some extent redress the balance between teacher-learner relationships. In Nikula’s research, the teacher’s more limited FL repertoire enlarged the space for learners to contribute to the teaching-learning situation. The learners not only answered teacher questions, they also asked more and maintained the discussion, creating an IRFFF interactional pattern (ibid. 2007b). In my research, the participant observation and teacher discussions (Articles 2 & 5) indicate that the consequential shift in basic assumptions, the availability of different resources and the wider range of learner repertoires can be problematic. The orientation to the other becomes less confident and the familiar pull of centripetal

forces tends to challenge different conceptualisations of how education could or should be.

These difficulties, however, can also be viewed as potentialities. In the discussions the teachers began to ask why they abided by certain assumptions and whether these were valid (Article 5). In the observed FLM classrooms, the pupils began by independently playing aloud with the FL and over time the potential of different pupil repertoires to resource the learning environment of peers came to light (Article 2). The challenge, however, was to turn these opportunities and potentialities into actualities. Playing aloud with terminology did not become part of the generic way of being in the classroom and disappeared. Furthermore, different pupil repertoires only resourced isolated peer interactions rather than becoming a shared resource within the classroom. This suggests that the centripetal force of established ways of being and doing are particularly threatening in contexts full of potential, on the verge of change. Within this research context, the dynamic momentum of new opportunities appeared to initially disorient teachers, potentially reinforcing the opportunity for change as new questions were raised. If, however, the moment for change is not seized the centrifugal dynamic is overwhelmed by centripetal forces satisfied by the re-establishment of old patterns.

5.2.3 An attempt to reconceptualise the role of talk in FLM education

The theoretical model reconceptualising talk in FLM contexts (Article 3) is an attempt to counter the centripetal forces mentioned above. The model is presented as a “navigational tool” for teachers and, as such, is intended to address the disorientation FLM education brings and to provide an alternative frame of reference to established ways of being and doing. The model does not aim to eradicate or negate that which has been, but aims to provide a different view into the classroom context through the lens of talk.

Within the complex environment of the classroom teachers are responsible for the centripetally-inclined curriculum, and the centrifugally-inclined dimension of critical and creative thinking. Within this context teachers are responsible for the social relationships of learners in the here-and-now as the basis for further development. The different roles, types of relationships and range of activities unfolding in the moment-by-moment interaction of the classroom remain the responsibility of the teacher. Teachers, unlike researchers, rarely have the chance to focus on only one dimension of classroom life at a time or to independently determine the pace of classroom life. Furthermore, teachers should simultaneously keep one eye on where pupils currently are, as well as where they are going.

By outlining different types of talk that relate to different dimensions of being and doing in the classroom the model hopes to provide some form of useful orientation to FLM teachers beyond earlier practice without dictating what should be. The notion of a “transitional dynamic” is offered as a sensitive response to what has been to what could be. In the presentation of the model different examples are drawn from classroom contexts to illustrate the flexibility of

the model depending on context, but hopefully also to suggest that the model is not intended as an end, but a beginning. The development of the model extensively drew on existing research on talk in education, whilst also being a response to the FLM of education as witnessed in this research. It can perhaps be suggested that, as such, the model is one example of pedagogic community from a dialogic perspective, crossing boundaries, raising new questions and aware of self and other relationships.

5.3 Conceptualising pedagogic relating from a dialogic perspective

In contrast to a significant amount of educational research, this research focussed on the pedagogic relationships of teachers primarily beyond the classroom as a way of acknowledging the significant web of relationships contributing to teacherhood as a stable and mutable phenomenon. The zones of disjuncture associated with this dimension of teacherhood include the building of professional community, the notion of mutual pedagogic relationships, the re-orientation of professional relationships and the embedded position of teacherhood within institutional education.

5.3.1 Understanding the building of a professional community

Bakhtin's notion of chronotope appears to be particularly apt when describing the development of the teacher community. As the teachers from different educational partners came together within a single location, the common distribution of institutional education was effectively countered. In so doing, assumed educational pasts and distant educational goals become part of a shared present, "palpable and visible" (ibid. 1981, p.250). Although these meetings were initially motivated by a shared interest in FLM education, through the meetings a far more fundamental sense of education as a shared endeavour was recognised.

This fundamental sense of education is little supported by a linear educational chronotope based on an established curriculum and grade levels according to pupil age. A linear chronotope implies moving forward regardless of participant experiences or contributions. Each teacher completes a discrete part of the production line and the pupils move on. Rather as with the Greek heroes, time incidentally ticks but no fundamental change occurs within the character. Teachers and pupils have little to contribute beyond their predefined roles and remain as objects of the system and the value-laden nature of education is more or less absent.

TABLE 7 Pedagogic relating from a dialogic perspective

Dimension of teacherhood	Zone of disjuncture	What FLM reveals about teacherhood	Dialogic response to the findings
3. Pedagogic relating	1. Building a professional community	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Investment beyond here-and-now • Recognising importance of a holistic picture of CLIL • Community goes beyond immediate context. • Community engagement requires a broader repertoire 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Chronotope of education: space, time and values (Matusov 2009; Sullivan 2012)
	2. Mutual pedagogic relationships	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The “being and becoming” of collegial relationships 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “no individual without cultural, social without personal” (Sullivan & McCarthy 2004, p.292) • Managing the centrifugal-centripetal dynamic
	3. Re-orienting professional relationships	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • New demands shift relationship with self and others. • Challenge of verbalising teacher knowledge – multi-faceted nature of teacher’s professional knowledge • Nature of pedagogic anticipation • Increased pedagogic responsibility 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Authoritative tendency of institutional education? • Recognising value of others-for-me and I-for-others within professional relationships and wider educational context
	4. Embedded in institution	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teachers inevitably belong to multiple communities, just as teachers have multiple identities. These different communities have different implications for the realisation of teacherhood. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Dialogic struggle • Monologic or dialogic institutional genre?

In contrast, the community meetings and teacher dialogues represent a significantly different chronotope for education, as illustrated by the diagrammatic outcomes of the teacher discussions (Article 4). Initially, the community referred to the notion of an educational pathway, reminiscent of organised institutional education (Figure 8). When the definitions of each discrete part of the pathway were shared, however, the dividing lines between the different partners were quickly blurred (Figure 9).

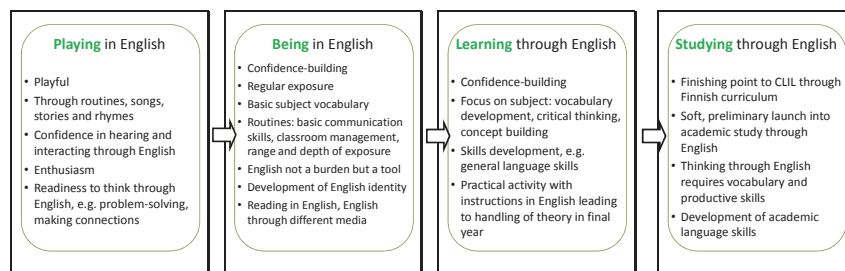


FIGURE 8 Building a shared educational pathway

Several months later the dividing lines between the different partners had disappeared altogether and, instead, an integrated model with different emphases was suggested (Figure 9). If the endeavours of the teacher community are understood as the development of a genre, a shared and mutable way of being, these figures illustrate the complex, dynamic nature of education. The institutional pathway remains in the background as a stabilising feature of education, yet it does not impoverish the potential contributions of teachers nor compromise teacher commitment to the on-going development of education.

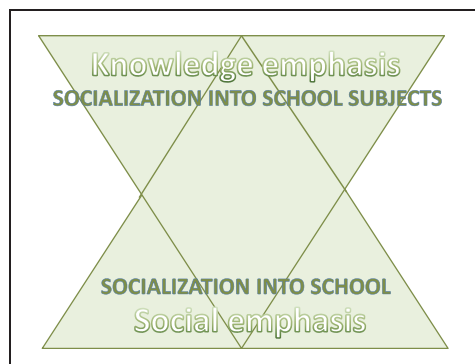


FIGURE 9 An integrated picture of education

5.3.2 A broader repertoire for teachers

The teacher community meetings and the focus group discussions in particular brought to light the different ways in which the teachers needed to re-orient professional relationships in the development of FLM education. The communi-

ty notes (Articles 2 & 4) highlight the desire of the teachers to be recognised by educational authorities at both institutional and municipal levels. The question of how to re-engage with parents in the development of this innovation was also recurrently raised, as well as how to draw on existing resources, such as in-house international classes. These findings are important as they point to the far broader repertoire teachers need when taking up a dialogic position in relation to their pedagogic commitments.

The focus group discussions (Articles 2 & 5) most keenly point to the challenge of verbalising teacher knowledge. The dialogic struggles were not only contradictory positions between teacher-colleagues, but within teacher-selves; engaging with the innovation through choice and resisting change due to existing loyalties. In the light of the broader research context, however, it is perhaps possible to suggest that the identified dialogic struggles were partly the result of teachers rarely sharing aloud their pedagogic beliefs and practices. The notion of teachers sharing thoughts under development as resources for pedagogical development somewhat contrasts with the conventional portrayal of teachers as expert models and orchestrators of education and educational language. Nevertheless, the teacher-written community notes point to the benefits of teacher dialogues. The notes suggest that as a result of the community initiative the individual partners have worked on the development of different projects, such as a CLIL curriculum in one school, seeking an FL resource teacher in another partner (Article 4). It is not possible to say the extent to which the teacher dialogues influenced these developments, but it is perhaps possible to suggest that in providing teachers with the opportunity to genuinely share ideas, understanding, struggles and dilemmas, the centrifugal dynamic counters to some degree the frequently dominant centripetal forces of institutional education.

This suggestion is reiterated by the notion of mutual pedagogic relationships developed through this research (Article 4). As the outsideness of the different partners was used as a resource, the fundamental characteristic of pedagogy as “being and becoming” was as relevant to this community of teachers as a community of learners. The outcomes of the community discussions went beyond the contributions of any one individual partner and were neither planned by the teacher-participants nor pre-empted by the research participant. This raises a variety of questions for future research, yet nevertheless, it is perhaps an effective expression of language as a “dialogical relationship between self and other” (Marková 1997, p.227).

5.4 Revisiting language and teacherhood

As an epistemology, dialogism is based on complementarity, language and reflexive understanding and interpretation (Marková 1997). The complementarity of this research is partly present in the explicit intention of working with three key dimensions of teacherhood. These dimensions originate from Bakhtin’s tripartite ontological relationships of I-for-me, I-for-others, and others-for-me. Us-

ing these dimensions supported a more holistic picture of teacherhood as a way of being both within and beyond the classroom, fundamentally located within a web of relationships. It is not, however, being suggested that these are the only dimensions of teacherhood, but rather to recognize teacherhood as personal, social, individual and cultural.

5.4.1 Complementarity

In addition to the “planned” complementarity, as the findings were responded to from a dialogic perspective, the initially separately handled concepts became richer complementary wholes. The zones of persona and pedagogic sensitivity can be used as an example. The initial findings suggest that the qualitative and quantitative reduction of self has direct implications for practice, implying an out-going dynamic. Pedagogic sensitivity, on the other hand, is sensitive responsiveness to others, which can be cast as an in-coming dynamic. The greater value of these findings, however, lies in the reciprocity that binds these zones together and lies at the heart of a pedagogic relationship. Teacherhood is intrinsically a relationship with others, through the self; it is not, however, only sensitive to immediate others, but also to the wider context, as demonstrated through this research with the use of FLM.

Language, once learnt, becomes an automatic feature of human experience, including teacherhood. Existing educational research demonstrates the challenge of re-viewing the relationship between language and pedagogy and the dilemma of re-balancing the relationship between language and teacherhood (Alexander 2004; Lefstein 2006). The FLM of education, however, offers a rare opportunity to reconsider the relationship between language and teacherhood. This is comparable to a seismic shift that raises a portion of earth to reveal the different layers of which it is composed. In this research, disjuncture is used to bring into view that which is conventionally hidden, in turn raising the question of how to respond practically, theoretically, morally and concretely.

The dialogic notion of outsideness offers a valuable means to make sense of this unanticipated revelation. The disjuncture offered the teacher-participants an opportunity, perhaps to some degree forced the teachers, to step outside their usual ways of being, doing and relating. To step outside, in and of itself, however, is not enough. In this research “merely” stepping outside meant the qualitative and quantitative reduction of teacherhood. To dialogically recognize outsideness as a resource, however, casts the event in a different light. The talk of the teachers and the response of the researcher cognized the disjuncture: the talk of the teachers self-consciously, the words of the researcher other-consciously. Through this dialogic approach to both the data and interpretive frame a more holistic picture of the complex relationship between language and teacherhood is offered. This goes beyond technical or rational conceptualizations and offers an enriched dialogic approach to educational language.

5.4.2 Interpretative frame

As a comprehensive interpretative frame, dialogic theory offers a range of complementary concepts to holistically address multiple levels of being, doing and relating. The notion of genre, for example, recognizes that which is stable and mutable, pre-emptive of change yet sensitive to that which is established. This notion can be applied to education as an institutional entity, to teacherhood as an identity and the classroom as a context. Each of these three, institutional education, teacherhood and the classroom, bring conventionally shared understandings to mind. Dialogic theory, however, resists the temptation to put a full stop at the end of conventionally shared understanding. Dialogic theory goes further to ask what education as a conventionally shared understanding means, what else teacherhood could mean and whether the classroom should remain as it is conventionally understood.

Whereas the notion of genre emphasizes social understanding, meaning emphasizes the individual in relation to social. Emphasizing meaning challenges the centripetal forces of genre to remain open-ended, sensitive to different intonations that can maintain the centrifugal dynamic. Assumptions can be rephrased as questions and different positions can be viewed as alternatively valid perspectives, rather than competitors. Inverting Palmer's earlier observation (*ibid.* 1987, p.25), the knowledge of the group can be enlarged by drawing on the knowledge of individuals - in turn also enriching the understanding of individuals. This reciprocity between individual-social, however, is not incidental, it is intentional, likened to authorship.

Authorship is perhaps the most fine-grained level of analysis and the most personal dimension of being, doing and relating. Authorship is the creative, morally-responsible relationship between self-self, self-other and other-self. Authorship can depict the way in which the wider context recognizes individuals; for example, whether the institution of education allows teachers to be responsible for the development of education, not just accountable for prescribed actions. Authorship illustrates the sensitive responsibility of teachers with learners to recognize the different characters, resources and needs within the microcosm of the classroom. Furthermore, authorship points to the responsibility of the self to sign one's name against one's acts, whether to fully live or to be a pretender (Emerson 1996).

As an interpretative frame, dialogic theory is multi-faceted and complex, sensitive and demanding. Dialogic theory not only anticipates the researcher to be responsible, but also recognises the responsibility of participants (Bakhtin 1986, p.169). Dialogic theory is able to acknowledge what was, what is and to actively contribute to what could be. This comprehensiveness is in part the result of the underlying values of dialogic theory, including the view of language as the material realization of a moral, human self.

5.4.3 Language and reflexivity

Language as the material realisation of selfhood in relation allows the self to be self-conscious, connects the self with the other, and enables the other to influence the self. Language bridges “the gap between matter and consciousness” (Holquist 1983, p.248). The findings presented here indicate that innovation requires change on a multiplicity of levels, from the innermost I-for-me, the more practical yet also value-laden I-for-others, and others-for-me. To more fully comprehend the implications of these findings, the holistic view is vital and indicative of the complexity of the experience. In the classroom with learners, in the midst of pedagogic doing, the FLM teachers experienced the qualitative zone between themselves and learners expanding whilst the quantitative resources of language reduced. In this situation teachers face a number of options: a) the innovation can be abandoned, b) the classroom can be more tightly controlled, c) a creative response can be sought. The teachers in this study chose option c, although option b is an understandable response and many teachers have opted out of the innovation of FLM instead (Lehti, Järvinen & Suomela-Salmi 2006).

Within a monologic institutional setting, seeking a creative response alone has to be a justifiable response and an important way in which a teacher seeks to maintain their pedagogic integrity. From a dialogic perspective, however, the cultural institution also bears moral responsibility as a form of authorship. Not permitting teachers active involvement in educational development is problematic in that the potential benefits for the overall educational system remain unseen or unsaid, that is, unrealised. The later findings of this research indicate the value of dialogic relationships encouraged between educational partners. The relationships between different teachers can be enriched and enriching (see Figures 8 & 9), the educational system becomes shared and mutable, open and enriched and different notions of pedagogic value can come to the fore. This process can be likened to the ideal relationship between dialectics and dialogics as outlined by Bakhtin, “dialectics were born of dialogue so as to return again to dialogue on a higher level...” (ibid. 1986, p.162).

Marková comments that the multiple levels of reflexivity in dialogic theory “are concerned with language as a totality of human life” (1997, pp.247-248). It is this challenge that this dissertation has attempted to address. Within this research, language has indeed been representative of many different consciousnesses. I am extremely grateful to the teacher-participants for talking with me and providing access to their personal thoughts. Without their cognized experiences, dilemmas, questions and hopes it would not have been possible to look through the lens of FLM. I am also extremely grateful for the wealth of research that has been conducted within and around language in education. I have extensively drawn on this body of knowledge to orient my response to the challenges of FLM at a practical and discursive level. It is my hope that by drawing on a dialogic epistemology I have been able to build a bridge, at least to start building a bridge, between the consciousnesses of teachers and the consciousness of educational research.

It is this reflexive relationship between dialectics and dialogue that is at the heart of a dialogical epistemology. Marková (1997) outlines three key forms of reflexivity: 1) understanding of the self-other phenomenon, 2) self-reflexivity as a product of self-other reflexivity, and 3) reflexivity between text and its interpreter (ibid. 1997, p.247). The first exploratory aspects of this research seek to better understand the self-other phenomenon, that is, my understanding as a researcher of teachers working through a FL (Articles 1 & 2). The later research articles then seek to better understand the self-reflexivity of the teachers through their dialogues (Article 5) and through the products of their talk (Article 4). Writing a narrative account of the community was an attempt to construct my understanding as a response to the community texts (Bruner 1991) without over-riding the voice of the community itself. The pedagogical model of the third article can also be understood as a reflexive response to the teacher experiences. These five articles have been drawn together here to provide a more holistic interpretation, yet significant questions remain.

6 IMPLICATIONS, LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE POSSIBILITIES

This final section of the dissertation brings together the main implications for the development of FLM education and teacher development on the basis of this research. The short-comings of this research are then critically considered before moving on to the future possibilities and questions that this research perhaps anticipates.

6.1 Implications

Education, although often referred to as a system, is a significant part of life. Students in OECD countries receive an average of 6,732 hours of instruction between the ages of 7 and 14 (ibid. 2011) with significant implications for the quality of their life in the future. Teachers, the most significant participants in the provision of educational quality (Timperley & Alton-Lee 2008) can spend 33,660 hours in the classroom over a 35-year career. For the sake of both teachers and learners, educational research has to invest “a certain moral and emotional orientation toward others” to avoid activity between people being understood as “little more than the instrumentalist rationalities of scientific systems and totalizing regimes” (Hicks 2000, p.230). As an epistemology, dialogic theory has a lot to offer education, and as a zone of dialogic contact pedagogy has a lot to offer education. It is an exciting prospect to be able to contribute to and be enriched by engagement within this zone.

This research reconceptualises teacherhood as a complex, dynamic relational dimension of selfhood sensitive to and responsible for others as well as self. Teacherhood is deeply embedded socially and deeply felt personally. The relationship between language and teacherhood is similarly complex. A dialogic perspective suggests that language is more than the instantiation of cultural knowledge or cognition, it is the semiotic realization of self. The ubiquitous presence of language in education implies that teachers are continually engaged

in the immediate realization of self and the authorship of others. The lack of teacher presence as participants in educational research, however, implies that teachers are rarely invited to participate in education as a developing phenomenon. This lack signifies the absence of a vital resource, a perspective that external researchers cannot share. Furthermore, the absence of teacher-views suggests that education as a genre commonly draws on a very narrow conceptualization of teacherhood as a contemporaneous form of being, doing and relating that is limited to the classroom. Drawing on Bakhtinian dialogic theory, this research offers a broader conceptualization of teacherhood that anticipates as well as retrospectively reflects. To support this conceptualisation this dissertation provides a number of conceptual tools to support the reflexive understanding and more holistic interpretation of teacherhood within education and educational research as an ongoing endeavour.

With regard to FLM education, Coyle et al. remark that, “for teacher development in CLIL to be fit for purpose, there must be urgent and significant changes” (ibid. 2010, p.161) with “quality assurance measures in place” (ibid. 162). The broader view of teacherhood and the different levels at which change can be anticipated that this research points out is a response to this call. This research also provides an answering call by highlighting the myriad of resources for development that are available within teachers when given the opportunity to contribute.

For teacher development to be “fit for purpose” this research commends, among other notions, the notion of outsideness as a key value for development initiatives. CLIL is ideally placed as an innovation that crosses subject and language education boundaries to benefit from this notion. Few teachers are educated as both subject and language experts, however, even if they are, the opportunity to stand outside their existing practice and to look from different perspectives should not be undervalued. Furthermore, the FLM of this innovation and the concurrent disjunctures it creates provides an ideal opportunity for the reconsideration of existing practice and assumed understanding.

To adopt outsideness as a value, however, suggests that a new educational chronotope is required. This would give teachers the opportunity to reconsider fundamental aspects of pedagogic being, doing and relating. An educational chronotope that does not begin with the prescriptive elements of curriculum and tradition, but begins with pedagogy as the shared investment in the being and becoming of others opens a world of possibility essentially compatible with a phenomenon preparing learners for an unknown future. CLIL research has ascertained that as an approach FLM can motivate both teachers and learners (Coyle 2006), can create a broader band of achievement (Coyle 2006; Baetens-Beardsmore 2008) and has already led to incidental improvements in L1 classrooms (Coyle 2007; Coonan 2007; Article 1). These are positive findings and a good start, but insufficient as a concretely answerable response. Future possibilities are presented in Section 6.3 following a critical consideration of the limitations of this research.

6.2 Limitations

This research began as an incidental opportunity, rather than the intentional development of a teacher community as a place for educational development and research. Initially, the teacher community was an exciting opportunity to build bridges between and with schools, and the initial proposal for this doctoral research was to map the development of learner language. For this purpose two seventh grade CLIL science courses were recorded and partially analysed and, although this data has contributed to this research, the actual focus has been teacherhood. As the community has continued to regularly meet since March 2009, I have increasingly benefited from the opportunity to take my questions to the teachers, to listen to their responses and to hear their questions. The teacher stories and dialogues continued to ring in my ears as I returned to published educational research. I increasingly looked for research that bridged this gap, before realizing that this is perhaps something I have to offer.

Had this research initially started by focussing on the community as a research context it would have been organised differently. For a start, permission to use anything produced by the community for research purposes would have been requested; although this might well have raised the threshold for joining the community and significantly altered the orientation and purpose of the community. Nevertheless, initiating the community as a research project would have facilitated a more systematic form of data collection and perhaps teacher comments on the community itself would have been more explicitly sought. I wonder, however, whether this would have changed my relationship with the community, perhaps making the community into a research object rather than an educational subject. It might also have altered the relationship between myself, published educational research and the teacher community. I fear I would have allowed the authority of published research to dominate my relationship with the teachers, and rather than maintaining an open-ended dialogue between the three partners (myself, the teachers and the published expertise of others).

Another limitation may well be the optimistic view that I have of teachers, although as a teacher myself I know that some days are better than others, and that some pupils and colleagues are easier to work with than others. Dialogic approaches to education have on occasion been associated with more idealistic than realistic notions (Lefstein 2006; Sidorkin 2004). When reading Bakhtin, however, one is struck by the struggles and challenge of dialogic being, despite an ultimate optimism (Emerson 1996). It is my hope that the baseline optimism I have in teachers and education as a value-laden endeavour is balanced by the struggles and challenges this research, for example, brings to light.

A further limitation of this research concerns the limits of generalizability. The experiences of these teachers are neither replicable nor necessarily generalisable to other populations of teachers. I hope, however, that the verisimilitude of this research (Bruner 1991) accords with truth as lived (*pravda*) and that the

theorisation – truth as abstract (istina) complement and support one another. In this sense, this research recognises that.

Rationality expresses a faith that we can share this world, that we can make things understandable to each other, that experience can be made intelligible. But a human science perspective also assumes that lived human experience is always more complex than the results of a single description, and that there is always an element of the ineffable to life.¹⁵

Furthermore, the triangulation of the different data-sets should add to the reliability of the research findings and the transparency of the methodology and methods underlines the integrity of this research. Nevertheless, “knowledge is always incomplete and renegotiable, depending on evidence and cogency of argument. As Bakhtin would say, it is unfinalizable” (Morson 2011, p.7); a point that leads on to the final section of this dissertation.

6.3 Future possibilities

One option for future research concerns the pedagogical model for talk in FLM education (Article 3). This model was a response to the challenges the FLM teachers faced and published research on classroom discourse. This model could be seen as a dialectic product, but hopefully with a view “to return again to dialogue on a higher level...” (Bakhtin 1986, p.162). In other words, this model needs to be trialled by teachers and used in different classroom contexts to be refined and further developed. It is my hope that this model is useful as a means of orientation to talk in FLM contexts, but the responses of others are needed to verify the model. Nevertheless, it would be interesting to apply the model as a means of exploring the presence of different talk-types in the classroom and to couple this with the notion of a new educational chronotope, whether FLM or otherwise.

Another possibility would be to use the three dimensions of teacherhood – pedagogic being, doing and relating – to further explore teacher experiences and to further enrich understanding of the relationships between these different dimensions. This conceptualisation of teacherhood could be used in pre- and in-service education as a way to support teacher development not only as an individual phenomenon but also as a social and culturally-shared phenomenon. Furthermore, the question remains as to how to initiate a teacher community intentionally invested in educational development beyond the boundaries of specific classrooms or school partners. It is hoped that the notions of “dialogic struggle” and “mutual pedagogic relationships” can further enrich understanding and contribute to on-going dialogue, however, these notions need to be responded to by teachers and other educational researchers to be valid.

¹⁵ van Manen, 1990, p.16

Finally, this dissertation has concentrated on teacherhood, however, as noted earlier teacherhood only exists in relation to learners. It would be interesting to see how dialogic relationships between teacher-colleagues refract onto teacher-learner relationships. The epistemological emphases of dialogic theory and the complementarity between dialogic ontology and pedagogy appear to offer fertile ground for further enriching teacher-learner relationships at the heart of education.

SUMMARY

This doctoral research addresses two fundamental dimensions of education rarely handled as a holistic unit in research – teacherhood and teacher talk. This research uses the disjuncture created by the pedagogical innovation of foreign-language mediated education to explore and reconceptualise the phenomenon of teacherhood. To produce a more holistic picture of teacherhood a range of complementary data are drawn on from a number of pedagogic contexts including talk between teachers, teacher interviews, teacher notes from community discussions, participant observation notes and a research journal maintained throughout the study. Over the course of the research the analytical approach to the data transitioned from a thematic approach to the analysis to an increasingly dialogical approach (Sullivan & McCarthy 2005; Sullivan 2012).

From a dialogic perspective, the lived experience of teachers is not the inconvenient reality of a rationalistic-technocratic system (van Manen 2008), but rather the messy reality of existential being. This human orientation to education accords with calls for educational research (Carr & Kemmis 1986, p.99) and education itself (Palmer 1987) to address the particular nature of education. To give some degree of order to “the messy reality of existential being” for teachers working through a foreign language, the tripartite relationships of I-for-me, I-for-others and others-for-me were used as an overarching framework. These three relationships were used to identify key dimensions of teacherhood – pedagogic being, pedagogic doing and pedagogic relating. In contrast to a significant amount of educational research, this research focussed on the pedagogic relationships of teachers primarily beyond the classroom as a way of acknowledging the significant web of relationships contributing to teacherhood as a stable and mutable phenomenon. Within these different dimensions of teacher, particular zones of disjuncture were identified, including pedagogic sensitivity, commitment, management of resources, real-time realisation of self, and mutual pedagogic relationships. These zones of disjuncture are comparable to striations of rock exposed by a seismic shift and are understood in this research as key aspects of teacherhood.

The key findings from this research indicate that with regard to pedagogic being, the foreign-language mediation of teacherhood increases the chaotic sense of self without necessarily providing the others-for-me to stabilise and enrich the sense of self. As such, this research challenges the notion that methodological adaptation can adequately compensate for teachers working through a foreign tongue. Rather than suggesting a deficient model of teacherhood, however, this research affirms pedagogic doing as an important dimension of teacherhood. A key result presented here is the broader conceptualisation of pedagogic doing as teachers recognising, actively incorporating and developing a wide variety of resources, material and immaterial, connected with the classroom environment. This broader definition goes beyond a list of methodological options by considering the way in which pedagogic doing is an intrinsic dimension of teacherhood. This result also suggests the importance of considering

different educational chronotopes (Matusov 2011) to better understand the time-space relationship and values in and beyond the classroom. For example, the real-time expression of pedagogic doing through the foreign language can easily create a qualitative distance between teacher and learners that should be acknowledged and responded to. Although the significance of this qualitative gap cannot be defined by this research alone, these findings do suggest that more should be understood about this phenomenon.

The significant challenges teachers face with regard to pedagogic being and doing in foreign-language mediated education appears to sufficiently challenge existing, assumed forms of pedagogic being and doing to validate engagement with teacher colleagues in a different way. The gap between established and anticipated understanding appears to generate the space for questions, legitimating the development of a community invested in FLM, yet working from different perspectives. As such, the product and process-oriented data drawn from teacher community activities provides complementary views on pedagogic relating within real-time instantiations and across longer periods. The main findings with regard to pedagogic relating are concerned with the broader repertoire required of teachers, the mutuality of pedagogic relationships between teachers, and the significance of the wider institutional setting.

As an interpretative framework, the tripartite relationships of dialogic theory offer a holistic approach to teacherhood as a multidimensional phenomenon. This approach is further enriched by the complementarity of dialogic theory as an epistemology that seeks to better understand phenomena by legitimising outsideness as a resource, recognising both conflicting dynamics and stabilising forces, and by emphasizing the value-laden nature of being. These key dialogic notions cut across the boundaries of the tripartite relationships to create a richer complementary whole. In this way, this research reconceptualises teacherhood as a complex, dynamic relational dimension of selfhood sensitive to and responsible for others as well as self. Teacherhood is deeply embedded socially and deeply felt personally. The relationship between language and teacherhood is similarly complex. A dialogic perspective suggests that language is more than the instantiation of cultural knowledge or cognition, it is the semi-otic realization of self, linking the personal with the social, the individual with the cultural (Sullivan & McCarthy 2004).

The particular contribution of this research, however, is to indicate in what specific ways the foreign-language mediation of teacherhood is demanding and how dialogic theory can support the conceptualisation of these experiences in order to respond to these challenges. Furthermore, this research provides a dialogic response to these challenges in the form of a pedagogical model for talk in foreign-language mediated contexts and by recasting relationships between teachers as mutual pedagogic relationships and the talk between teachers as an important site for struggle as teachers encounter and respond to pedagogic innovations.

These findings specifically address the trend to offer foreign-language mediated education within the European context as promoted by the European

Commission (Eurydice 2006). The relevance of these findings goes beyond this immediate context, however, as an increasing number of teachers find themselves working through a second language as they move from one homeland to another. It could also be argued that whilst foreign-language mediation creates disjuncture within particular zones of teacherhood, foreign-language mediation does not create the zones themselves. As such, this research also reveals something about the nature of teacherhood mediated through the mother tongue. The “earthquake” of foreign-language mediation more readily makes visible that which already belongs to teacherhood, yet often remains hidden. To conclude, this research hopes to contribute a reconceptualisation of teacherhood that is complementary to foreign language contexts and beyond.

YHTEENVETO

OPETTAJUUS VIERASKIELIVÄLITTEISESSÄ OPETUKSESSA - OPETTAJUUDEN KÄSITTEEN UDELLEENMÄÄRITTELYÄ

Tämä väitöskirja käsittelee kasvatuksen kahta perusulottuvuutta, joita on harvoin käsitelty alan tutkimuksissa yhtenä kokonaisuutena: opettajuutta ja opettajapuhetta. Vieraskielinen opetus, josta käytän tässä yhteenvedossa termiä vieraskielivälitteinen (VKV) opetus, on pedagogisena ilmiönä verraten uusi ja uudenlainen. Tämä outous antaa niin tutkijoille kuin opettajille mahdollisuuden tarkastella opettajuuden käsitettä uudelleen tavallisesta poikkeavasta näkökulmasta. Tutkimuksen aineisto koostuu opettajien keskinäisistä keskusteluista, opettajien haastatteluista, heidän tekemistään muistiinpanoista opettajayhteisön keskusteluista, tutkijan omista havaintomuistiinpanoista ja tutkimuspäiväkirjasta. Pyrkimyksenä on ollut saada mahdollisimman yhtenäinen ja kokonaisvaltainen kuva opettajuudesta sellaisena kuin se näyttäytyy erilaisissa kasvatuksellisissa yhteyksissä, siis muuallakin kuin vain koulun oppitunneilla. Alkuvaiheessa aineistoa lähestyttiin temaattisesti laadullisen sisällönanalyysin keinoin, mutta tutkimuksen edetessä vaihtui lähestymistapakin dialogiseksi (Sullivan & McCarthy 2005; Sullivan, 2012).

Dialogisesta näkökulmasta katsoen opettajien aitoa, elettyä kokemusta ei voi luonnehtia rationaalis-teknokraattisen järjestelmän epämukavaksi todellisuudeksi (van Manen 2008), vaan paremminkin eksistentiaalisen olennon sotkuiseksi, hankalasti luokiteltavissa olevaksi todellisuudeksi. Kasvatustutkimuksen ja itse kasvatuksen tulisi tunnistaa koulutuksen inhimillinen perusta (Carr & Kemmis 1986, p.99; Palmer 1987). Sen avaamiseksi, mitä 'eksistentiaalisen olennon sotkuinen todellisuus' oli tutkimukseen osallistuneille VKV-opettajille, käytin aineiston analyysissä ja tulkinnassa kolmiosaista kokonaisuudesta: minä-olen-itselleni, minä-toisia-varten ja toiset-minua-varten. Näitä kolmea suhdetta käytin sitten todentamaan opettajuuden avainulottuvuudet, joiksi nousivat *pedagoginen oleminen*, *pedagoginen tekeminen* ja *pedagogiset suhteet*. Toisin kuin monissa muissa koulutusta koskevissa tutkimuksissa, tässä tutkimuksessa keskitytään tarkastelemaan opettajien pedagogisia suhteita nimenomaan luokkahuoneen ulkopuolella. Pyrin tällä tavoin tunnustamaan sen merkittävän ihmissuhteiden kirjjon, jota opettajat kantavat mukanaan ja joka vaikuttaa siihen, kuinka pysyvänä tai muuttuvana he kokevat oman opettajuutensa. Aineiston analyysi paljasti opettajuuden eri ulottuvuuksissa halkeamia, eroavaisuuksia, jotka liittyivät muun muassa pedagogiseen herkkyyteen, sitoutumiseen, resursien hallintaan, minuuden reaaliaikainen rakentumiseen ja vastavuoroisiin pedagogisiin ihmissuhteisiin. Tällaiset 'halkeamavyöhykkeet' ovat verrattavissa maaperän eri kerrostumiin, jotka maanjäristyksen jälkeen nousevat näkyviin maanpinnalle ja pidän niitä tässä tutkimuksessa tärkeinä osoituksina opettajuuden luonteesta.

Tutkimus paljasti, että VKV-opettajien *pedagoginen oleminen* ja siihen liittyvä VKV-opettajuus ei riittänyt antamaan heille vakaata ja rikastavaa toisminua-varten -kokemusta, vaan se päinvastoin tuntui lisäävän heidän kaoottista opettajaidentiteettiään, minäkuvaansa opettajina. Toisin kuin monessa muussa tutkimuksessa, opettajat eivät kyenneet kompensoimaan metodisella osaamisella sitä, että he joutuivat työssään toimimaan vieraalla kielellä. Kyse ei ollut vajavaisesta opettajuudesta, vaan tuloksissa nousee esiin pedagogisen tekemisen suuri merkitys opettajuudelle. Tutkimuksen eräänä päätuloksena voidaankin pitää sitä, että *pedagoginen tekeminen* on käsitteenä ymmärrettävä nykyistä paljon laajemmin, sillä se sisältää toimintaa, jossa opettajat havaitsevat ja aktiivisesti täydentävät ja kehittävät luokkahuoneympäristöihin liittyviä monenkaltaisia materiaalisia ja immateriaalisia resursseja. Laajemmin ymmärrettynä pedagoginen tekeminen ei ole suinkaan luettelo erilaisista metodisista vaihtoehdoista, vaan yksi opettajuuden olennaisista ulottuvuuksista. Tuloksen perusteella onkin mielestäni tärkeää ottaa tutkimuksessa huomioon erilaiset pedagogiset kronotoopit (Matusov 2011), jotta ymmärtäisimme paremmin aika- paikka -suhdetta ja luokan arvoja luokkahuoneessa ja sen ulkopuolella. Esimerkiksi se, miten pedagoginen tekeminen vieraalla kielellä ilmenee reaaliajassa voi helposti lisätä etäisyyttä opettajan ja oppilaiden välille, mikä ilmiö tulisi tunnistaa ja johon tulisi vastata. Vaikka tutkimus ei anna selkeää vastausta siihen, kuinka merkityksellistä opettajan ja oppilaan välisen suhteen etäisyys itse asiassa on, tulokset viittaavat siihen, että ilmiötä tulisi tarkastella ja ymmärtää nykyistä enemmän.

Vieraskielivälitteisessä opetuksessa pedagoginen oleminen ja tekeminen näyttävät haastavan opettajia yhteistyöhön opettajatovereidensa kanssa aivan uudella tavalla. Kuilu tavanomaisen ja mahdollisen ymmärryksen välillä näyttää luovan tilaa uusille ratkaisuille, mikä toisaalta antaa oikeutuksen erityisen VKV-yhteisön olemassaololle ja kehittymiselle, toisaalta sallii opettajille mahdollisuuden toimia omista lähtökohdistaan käsin. Tutkimuksen tuottama tieto opettajayhteisön aktiviteeteista, niiden tuotteista ja prosesseista tarjoavat toisiaan täydentäviä näkökulmia pedagogisiin suhteisiin niin ajantasaisissa toteutuksissa kuin pitemmällä aikavälilläkin. Tuloksissa korostuvat VKV-opettajien laaja tehtäväkenttä, opettajien välisten pedagogisten suhteiden vastavuoroisuus ja laajemman institutionaalisen ympäristön tärkeys.

Dialoginen teoria ja sen kolmiosaiset suhteet toimivat tutkimuksen tulkinallisena viitekehyksenä, ja se tarjosikin mielestäni perustellun lähestymistavan moniulotteisen opettajuuden kokonaisvaltaiseen tutkimukseen. Tällaiselle lähestymistavalle on ominaista rikas, vastavuoroisuutta korostava tietoteoria: ilmiöitä pyritään ymmärtämään tarkastelemalla ulkopuolisuutta resurssina, tunnistamalla ilmiöiden dynaamisia ja keskenään ristiriitaisia suhteita ja niiden toisiaan tasapainottavia voimia ja painottamalla olemisen arvoperusteista luonnetta. Nämä dialogisen teorian peruseräkkeet auttavat luomaan tutkittavasta ilmiöstä rikkaamman, kokonaisvaltaisen ja komplementaarisen kuvan. Tutkimuksessa pyritään määrittelemään opettajuuden käsitettä uudesta näkökulmasta tarkastelemalla sitä monimuotoisena, dynaamisena suhdeulottuvuutena, jo-

hon sisältyy herkkyyttä ja vastuullisuutta sekä toisista että itsestä. Opettajuus on olennaisesti sosiaalista ja koetaan hyvin henkilökohtaisesti. Kielen ja opettajuuden välinen suhde on samaten monimuotoinen. Dialogisen lähestymistavan mukaan kieli on enemmän kuin kulttuurisen tiedon realisointia; kielessä on kyse itsensä todentamisen semiotiikasta, jossa henkilökohtainen yhdistyy yhteisölliseen ja yksilöllisyys kulttuurisuuteen (Sullivan & McCarthy 2004).

Tutkimus paljastaa etenkin VKV-opettajuuden erityiset haasteet ja kuinka dialogisuuden teoria voi tukea VKV-opettajuuden erilaisten ulottuvuuksien ymmärtämistä, jotta haasteisiin voidaan vastata. Lisäksi tutkimus tarjoaa dialogisen pedagogisen mallin luokkahuonepuheelle VKV-opetuksessa. Tutkimuksessa opettajien väliset opettajuussuhteet jäsenyivät uudelleen vastavuoroisina pedagogisina suhteina ja opettajuuspuheen tärkeänä kamppailualueena, jossa opettajat kohtaavat ja vastaavat pedagogisiin muutoksiin.

Koulutus kansainvälistyy ja sen myötä VKV-kasvatusta pyritään jatkuvasti edistämään (Eurydice 2006). VKV-opetus ja opettajuus ovat kuitenkin ilmiöinä erityislaatuisia. Tutkimukseni perusteella suosittelen, että VKV-opetus on aina toteutettava huolella. Tutkimustulokset ovat myös laajemmin sovellettavissa: yhä suurempi määrä opettajia työskentelee ulkomailla itselleen vieraan kielen välityksellä. Voidaan sanoa, että vaikka vieraskielivälitteisyys luo tiedollisia, taidollisia ja affektiivisia halkeamia ja rakoja opettajuuden tietyille osa-alueille, VKV-opettajuus itsessään ei luo näitä osa-alueita. Tutkimuksessa paljastuu samalla jotakin oleellista myös omakielivälitteisen opettajuuden luonteesta. Vieraskielivälitteinen opettajuus toimiikin eräänlaisena maanjäristyksenä, joka tekee näkyväksi sen, mikä jo kuuluu opettajuuteen, mutta on tähän asti ollut sen 'piiloinen' ominaisuus. Kaiken kaikkiaan tutkimus pyrkii täydentämään opettajuuden määritelmää tarkastelemalla sitä käsitteenä uudessa valossa niin vieraskielivälitteisissä opetuksessa kuin laajemminkin.

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ORIGINAL PAPERS

I

**THE IMPACT OF FOREIGN-LANGUAGE MEDIATED
TEACHING ON TEACHERS' SENSE OF PROFESSIONAL
INTEGRITY IN THE CLIL CLASSROOM.**

by

Josphine Moate

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The Impact of Foreign-Language Mediated Teaching on Teachers' Sense of Professional Integrity in the CLIL Classroom

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Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) has received significant interest in recent years as a practical means of creating a plurilingual European community. A key feature of CLIL is the non-native speaking teacher responsible for developing learners' content and language knowledge in a foreign-language mediated environment. Teachers often enter the CLIL classroom with established expertise in either content or language learning, however, the impact of entering the foreign-language mediated environment is little explored in existing literature. This investigative research is based on six teacher interviews intended to access the teachers' own understanding of how foreign-language mediated teaching impacts their professional integrity. The interviews aimed to explore how CLIL teachers experience the change in language, how new demands are encountered and handled. This research found that foreign-language mediated teaching affects teachers' sense of professional integrity with regard to both the person and the practice of the teacher at a fundamental level.

Keywords: classroom communication; educational practices; teaching profession; professional development

The educational innovation of CLIL integrates the learning of a subject with the learning of a foreign language (FL). By the mid-1990s this approach had become an explicit part of EU policy (European Commission, 1995) to support the plurilingual goals of the European community. Since this time CLIL has rapidly grown from isolated grassroots

initiatives to programmes of regional implementation (Eurydice, 2006) with reportedly positive learning outcomes (Baetens-Beardsmore, 2008). A gap remains, however, between local activity, supranational interest and national policy (Dalton-Puffer, 2008) as well as in the provision of resources to support CLIL. Another significant, although perhaps less obvious, gap exists between the pedagogic demands of the first language classroom and the realization of pedagogic expertise through a foreign-language.

A key strength of CLIL has been the willingness of experienced teachers to participate in CLIL. The dual-focus of CLIL means, however, that teachers are responsible for the orchestration of subject learning through a FL **whilst** supporting the development of student FL skills. This duality significantly changes the scope of teacher responsibilities and requires a more extensive pedagogic repertoire (de Graaff, et al., 2007). Whilst CLIL can offer teachers a valuable opportunity to reflect on existing practice and to collaborate with colleagues (Coonan, 2007); the price attached to this innovation can be high.

Experienced teachers can find themselves faced with the unenviable prospect of strait-jacketed practice with few resources – material or pedagogic - to meet the additional demands of FL-mediated teaching-learning. For CLIL to remain a sustainable innovation, attention has to be paid to the additional demands this approach makes on the key resources available in the classroom.

Professional integrity here refers to both established teacher-persona and professional practice (agency). Challenge to professional integrity creates vulnerability (Kelchtermans 1996), unresolved challenge can demotivate practice, demotivated practice limits teaching efficacy (Hoy & Woolfolk 1993), and the cycle continues. If challenge however leads to successful adaptation of practice, restored confidence and refined practice, the potential for increasing job satisfaction and improving the learning experience is greater. The optimal result of CLIL would be effective learning orchestrated by motivated staff

with a confident understanding of the professional challenges embedded in this environment.

Teacher Talk and the Challenge of FL Mediated Teaching

First language (L1) teacher talk has received a significant amount of attention (e.g. Edwards and Westgate 1994; Mercer 1995; Christie 2000) with talk accorded a central role in the teacher toolkit. Teacher talk is intended to demystify and disseminate knowledge (Fenstermacher 1990), to orchestrate learning through the joint construction of knowledge (Mercer 1995), to apprentice learners in appropriate subject language (Lemke 1989). The fundamental role of language in the teaching-learning process (Mercer and Littleton 2007) implies that changing to FL-mediated teaching is significant. In addition, the intimate relationship between language and identity has significant ramifications for teachers taking on new roles in the public classroom forum. Indeed, it is in teacher language that professional integrity is primarily realised.

The challenge of FL-mediated teaching is now beginning to be explored. Nikula's (2008, 2007a) finding of increased dialogism in CLIL suggests that FL-mediation affects teaching style. The unanticipated 'positive backwash' effect (Coonan 2007; Coyle 2006, 2007) from CLIL on L1 teaching similarly implies significant changes experienced by teachers. CLIL learning outcomes research proposes that the interactive nature of CLIL supports the more effective conceptual development through the FL than in L1 teaching (Baetens Beardsmore 2008), however, the teacher voice behind these experiences is rarely heard (Rasinen, 2006).

The positive research results on learning in CLIL demonstrate that teachers have clearly risen to the challenge of FL-mediated teaching. The increased demands of FL-mediated teaching, however, should arguably feature on the research agenda for CLIL to remain a sustainable educational innovation. Gaining an insider's view of the impact FL-mediated teaching has on experienced professionals will hopefully promote the development of training programmes that support teachers whilst being sensitive to existing expertise and the complexity of classroom practice.

METHODOLOGY

Of seventeen prospective research participants, six volunteered. The subjective nature of semi-structured interviews (Kvale 1994) was hoped to allow teachers to share their personal, professional experience. The interviewees teach in an upper secondary school on an international programme. The amount of experience the teachers had before teaching through English varied. None of the teachers were trained language teachers, although four of the six had received in-service training in anticipation of teaching through English. One teacher had not received formal teacher training and started FL-mediated teaching before teaching through the L1.

This international programme offered a curriculum, goals, teaching philosophy, and formal assessment. This is not an example of 'grassroots' CLIL, clear boundaries and expectations are externally imposed and, to some degree, resources and support are also

available. FL-mediated teaching was compared with L1 teaching in the interviews to support the identification of differences (Nikula 2007a) and the self-self comparison to avoid critical self-other judgement creating a safer environment for self-disclosure (Kelchtermans 1996). The dialogic interviews each lasted approximately 45-60 minutes. The open-ended nature of the questions was hoped to support self-reflection on how FL-mediated teaching affected professional integrity with regard to established identity and practice.

The epistemological framework behind this research recognises the active agency and personal nature of teaching. In addition to this, the authoritative position held by the teacher in the classroom, however, can dramatically contrast with the position of teachers in the wider educational community. Both of these positions are realised in the teacher-individual in the classroom reinforced by the ‘closed door’ culture of education. The driving question behind the interviews was how FL-mediation of teaching affects content teachers. The practical nature of teaching can create a strong sense of self-in-practice, which is difficult to verbalise (Shulman, 1999). To support in-depth exploration of the research question, two sub-themes were used to frame the discussion. The sub-themes included: me as a teacher, and my relationship with my subject and how it is taught. The aim of the interviews was to give teachers the opportunity to share their experiences.

Educational research has unevenly emphasized learner proficiency (product) over teacher agency (process) (Walker and Tedick 2000), although the complexity and vulnerability of the teacher professional is acknowledged (Day et al. 2006; Kelchtermans 1996). Northfield (1996) warns that “the uniqueness of each context, the personal involvement or bias, and the complex mix of variables also have the potential to limit the value of such study.” To support the generalisability of the findings a comprehensive review of efficacy-based literature and classroom language research was undertaken to identify critical features of teaching to focus the interviews. On this basis each interview was divided into seven sections: teacher-hood, subject-focus, teaching through English, classroom activities, the teaching process, the language dimension and perception of CLIL.

Each interview was recorded and transcribed. The transcriptions were thematically analysed using the realist method which “reports experiences, meanings and the reality of participants” (Braun and Clarke, 2006:81). Initial analysis handled each interview as an item of data. During this phase, each reference to teaching as a practical or emotional experience was coded. These references were subsequently collated as a table. This table offered a comprehensive data set including each code and the number of interviewees that included this particular point. The graphic representation of the coded data supported the identification of key themes. These themes were then used to regroup the coded data into specific data sets under thematic titles. Some of the coded data were then conflated under one heading. For example, 11. *Perceive continuity in teaching whatever the language*, 16. *language of no consequence, always teach the same*, 17. *Feel like the same teacher whichever language*, and 66. *same orientation approach to subject whether using L1 or FL*, came together as ‘Perceive continuity in teaching whatever the language’ under ‘*Acclimatised perceptions*’.

Braun and Clarke state that, “a theme captures something important about the data in relation to the research question, and represents some level of *patterned* response or meaning within the data set (2006: 82). The original transcripts were then reviewed again, checking the presence of each theme and illustrative quotations were identified. Through this analysis four key areas were identified: the ‘Teaching Context’, in terms of the curriculum and the opportunities it offers, as well as the type of students admitted to the programme; ‘Professional Self’ includes teacher motivation and membership within a wider professional community; ‘Teacherhood’ i.e. the teacher’s sense of identity in the classroom with regard to roles, activities and learning outcomes, intended goals and the strategies employed to realise these aims. In addition to actual practice, teacherhood includes the attitudes and values behind their practice. The fourth area ‘Impact FL-Mediated Teaching has on Professional Integrity’ divided into three sections: the initial effect on teacherhood, the effect on practice, and acclimatised perceptions. Area four is reported here.

RESULTS

Clear pictures of the teachers emerged through the interviews. Each teacher interpreted the questions in the light of their own experience and answered accordingly. The level of consistency within the self-reflections varies, as do the reasons behind and awareness of instructional practices.

1) *The Initial Effect on Teacherhood*

Four interviewees had 10-20 years of experience prior to teaching through English. One teacher in the fifth year of teaching started FL-mediated teaching in the third year. The sixth interviewee in the fourth year of teaching started with FL-mediated teaching, subsequently teaching in Finnish. Each group member had at least three years of FL-mediated teaching experience. No interviewee was a trained language teacher and their own language expertise was on the basis of the language requirements of the Finnish educational system and personal drive.

Table 1: Initial effect on teacherhood

	FINDING	A	B	C	D	E	F	TOTAL
1	Tiring/stressful	+	+	+	+	+	+	6/6
2	Affects teaching negatively	+	+	+	+	+	+	6/6
3	Fear/insecurity	+	+	+	+	+	+	6/6
4	Conscious of change in persona & practice	+	+	+	+	+	+	6/6
5	Absence of humour	+			+	+	+	4/6

Tiring or stressful

The descriptions of the initial experiences were dramatic. In response to: ‘how similar was FL-mediated teaching to your initial experience of teaching?’ One teacher unhesitatingly stated, “even more awful” before adding “[as] an experienced teacher it was only the language that was so difficult”. The interviewee without prior teaching experience plainly says, “nightmarish absolutely”. Each teacher referred to the extra input required, the exhaustion, initial nervous tension, extra adjustment after holidays and stress of swapping language. Classroom change is inherently stressful (Guskey 1984, 2002) and the fundamental change in language these teachers faced significantly increased the risk factor.

Affects teaching negatively

The length of time taken to regain normality in teaching varied. The newest teacher describes the moment when after “the first half a year something like clicked in a way and somehow I developed the belief that I will get through, I can pull this off”. A similar pattern is discernible in the comments of the more experienced staff: the first two years were exhausting; a three year period was required to recover a sense of normality; teaching became easier over time.

Fear and Insecurity

Initial fear and insecurity were mainly due to language, although one teacher found the new programme caused considerable insecurity. Another teacher highlighted how the training course created uncertainty: “You can imagine that you come to the course and even articles, pronunciation, are wrong!”

One teacher remarked, “I would say that one third of my brains is... paralysed” using English and despite becoming easier, it is never the same as L1 teaching. One teacher explained:

When I first started ... I noticed that I cannot do that [act as secretary at the board], because first of all I’m not sure if I understand what they are saying and even if I understand I’m not sure I recognize all the words, and if I do I’m not sure I know how to spell them.

Two teachers faced the unenviable prospect of not being understood due to awkward pronunciation and forgetting terminology. Whilst silence may be a viable option for FL speakers (Harder 1980), this is no option for the FL-mediating teacher.

Conscious of change in persona and practice

Entering this classroom, teachers cannot always rely on familiar techniques and methods. This impacts the emotional experience of teachers and actual classroom practice. Survival methods the interviewees listed include lecturing to maintain control, extensive use of transparencies to avoid spontaneity, and driving 23 kilometres to fetch a notebook, rather than walk ‘unaided’ into the classroom. One interviewee perceived no difference in the activity level or methodology, but felt “distant”. Another reflected on the impersonal nature of the FL depriving the classroom of “personal richness”.

Absence of humour

Four teachers explicitly mentioned the threat FL posed to humour in teaching. For two teachers this was merely an initial concern, another teacher felt humour had remained an absent feature: “I can’t express myself as fluently in English ... and also I can’t use my jokes ... so I feel like more in a smaller scale in a way.” A similar feeling was expressed by another interviewee who observed the inability to lighten the atmosphere due to limited language reflecting the ‘reduced personality’ of the FL-learner and (Harder 1980; Medgyes 1992).

2 The Effect on Professional Practice

Teacher persona is closely entwined with classroom practice and preparation. This section focuses on the adjustments and demands teachers faced to function effectively within this context.

Table 2 Effect on professional practice

	FINDING	A	B	C	D	E	F	TOTAL
1	Preparation and materials production	+	+	+	+	+	+	6/6
2	Student language orientation	+	+	+	+	+		5/6
3	Correction of language	+	+			+	+	4/6

Preparation and materials production

No teacher found suitable materials to supplement classroom teaching, due to availability, inappropriate academic standard, or the challenging language for the students. Material production was the primary preparatory demand. One interviewee had produced over 60 pages of a textbook exclusively for this classroom. These findings represent a significant challenge to teachers already under-stress due to the change in language.

For several teachers it was the greater degree of accuracy when using the FL in written text and expression in classroom language that signified the most demanding change. One teacher prepared to an exceptional degree, scripting lessons with bracketed pronunciation. The interviewees felt that “the language doesn’t change the planning in other ways than just the checking the words”, but this change in itself is extensive. As the students advance through the curriculum four interviewees reported the use of authentic materials somewhat lifting the burden of preparation and adding variety to classroom material. Three teachers remarked with hindsight how useful this planning had been though as a foundation for future practice.

Student Language Orientation

The questions specifically related to student language development were:

- How do you handle the language of your subject/specialist vocabulary in your classes?
- Do you see yourself as responsible for the language development of your students? To what degree?

The responses revealed that after the orientation year of this three year programme, student language development becomes an assumed part of learning. The interviewees often saw a parallel situation between the L1 and FL classrooms in this respect, students neither know subject-specific terminology in the L1 or FL, however one teacher described this situation as more extreme in the FL classroom with students finding sensitivity to register particularly challenging. One teacher refuted the idea of responsibility for student language development as beyond subject expertise. The fact that the courses run in English at such a high level of academic demand seemed to preclude the need to develop students’ language: “I don’t think about language that much ... we communicate through English, that’s it”.

During the orientation year language modifications focused on adjusting teacher-talk, rather than the explicit development of student language. The interviewees tried to avoid overwhelming students with demanding content and language at the same time, to first ‘teach the talk’ and to progress recovering ground in greater depth little by little. One teacher noted that speaking quickly over-stretched students and could easily lead to the teacher missing signals indicative of student understanding. These findings show the complicated role of language in content teaching. Whilst literacy skill development does not appear to play an explicit role in L1 or CLIL content classrooms (Dalton-Puffer 2008), the dual-focus of CLIL implies that this is the place to handle subject-specific discourse explicitly.

The implicit/explicit language question is highlighted in the question, ‘How much more aware are you of the teaching process when working through English?’ The following answer provides insight into the linguistically supportive methods employed regarding content teaching:

...we have written for example definitions for all these terms and then I ask them for example mental or mind map using all these terms and then they work there and then we check how they have understood how these terms relate or understood things related together.

Another teacher explains:

... when they talk and have debates and have dialogues, they [use] ... this kind of this ordinary language and I also probably use this ordinary language most of the time ..., but then when I explain some theoretical points ... I have the correct forms of the words and the correct concepts and so on, so kind of the written material what they have and then when they read the exam, I try to make sure that this material has the right words and right kind of language... They learn to master the concepts and ... how to use them, they argue in a better way ... to be more accurate, to be more analytical ... to recognize the false in some ways or reasoning and learn to evaluate the arguments and so on.

Both of these examples reflect Lemke's (1989: 137; 1990) stance that the mastery of academic subjects requires the mastery of their specialised pattern of language use and reveal the entwined linguistic dimension embedded in the FL-mediated content classroom.

Correction of language

Teacher reflections on attention paid to language were not consistent. The interviewees described the exhaustive nature of marking formal assessment with detailed comments on language being added to student answers. It is, perhaps, the setting that clearly reveals whether students have grasped terminology and concepts in turn 'forcing' teachers to acknowledge student language use. De Graaff et al. (2007) especially target language *sensitive pedagogy* as an important part of the CLIL teacher's pedagogic repertoire. This area may be worth reconsidering from the teacher's point of view, especially in the light of the comment that students appeared hesitant to admit not understanding the written feedback. This indicates that the apparent language proficiency of students may not be as it appears.

3 Acclimatised Perceptions

This final section reflects the differences between the initial experiences and perceptions three-six years on. Few of the initial concerns were realised or played a significant role in the teacher perceptions of teacherhood and professional practice. These results provide insight into how the teachers see themselves now and the adjustments that have been made in their expectations and practices creating for these teachers extremely rewarding, if still demanding, work – a recurrent phrase in the interviews.

Table 3 Acclimatised perceptions

	FINDING	A	B	C	D	E	F	TOTAL
1	Perceive continuity in teaching whatever the language	+	+	+	+	+	+	6/6
2	Relationship with English/self as an English speaker more positive now	+	+	+	+	+	+	6/6
3	Acknowledge FL is non-native language	+	+	+	+	+	+	6/6
4	Perceive development in FL-mediated teaching competence	+	+	+	+		+	5/6
5	Confident in maintenance of professional integrity	+	+	+	+		+	5/6
6	Subject teaching is the focus, language of secondary importance	+		+	+		+	4/6
7	Experience of teaching through English influenced teaching through L1	+			+			2/6

Continuity in teaching

Each interviewee perceived continuity in teaching regardless of instructional language. After an adjustment period the teachers all felt able to use the same approaches and methods whichever language. The teachers' reluctance to use alternative methods to those already established indicates the fundamental relationship between person and practice in teacherhood (Guskey 2002). For these teachers, perception of continuity indicated recovery of and efficiency in classroom practice.

Relationship with English

All teachers affirmed that with time changing language becomes easier: two described it as 'pressing a button'. English was seen as an effective communication tool. One teacher felt greater confidence using nuance and expressing 'Finnishness' through English making FL use more personalised. The teachers regretted the lack of available time to improve personal language skills. This was put effectively by one teacher who said that the relationship with English was little changed, but the relationship to self as an English speaker had changed, "I don't care so much about the mistakes I make." This finding was reflected in four of the interviews and reveals a significant change in communicative confidence:

Nowadays I know I do many mistakes and my pronunciation is not perfect, but ... the main thing is that we understand each other" and, "In the beginning I was more afraid ... to speak English. I do speak now, I commit mistakes all the time, but so it goes.

Foreign Language is Non-Native Language

This point manifested itself several times. Two teachers remark that Finnish English is not the same as elsewhere. Another expressed concern over the type of English the students learn, although this was reconcilable with the idea of 'global English'. Several interviews emphasized that native language skills cannot be demanded of teachers or students. The CLIL/EMILE report states that CLIL teachers do not need "native or near-native fluency in the target language" (Marsh 2002, 78) although this requires adjustments in teaching. The following quote provides an example of the frustrations of using a FL:

Sometimes I just feel I'm totally incapable of talking English, I mumble and I mix all the words and I always say the contrary to what I was supposed to say ... I get frustrated ... why is this so difficult? ... It happens in Finnish also of course to a lesser extent but at least in Finnish I know when my speech is something that's impossible to understand and when I'm at least making some sense.

This uncertainty appears to be one significant point at which this teaching becomes more demanding. The teachers felt they had no time left to improve their language, but context demands effective handling of subject matter. The comments included here encapsulate the teachers' reconciliation with this paradox.

Development in professional competence

Five interviewees perceived development in professional competence, for example with the use of notes, flexibility and innovation in the classroom, increased self-confidence, use of familiar L1 methods and enjoying the classroom.

Maintenance of professional integrity

The same proportion (5/6) in response to, "Do you feel able to maintain your sense of professional integrity through the FL?" answered affirmatively, i.e. recognised themselves as the same teachers able to operate with the same degree of professional satisfaction. The sixth teacher was also satisfied with the maintenance of subject integrity, but stated:

I'm a better teacher when working through Finnish, ... I feel more comfortable when teaching in Finnish. .. it has become weaker in a way, but deeply in my heart I feel I'm not I'm not a native speaker ... [however] ... I do master my subject and that's more most important thing, and feel like I can teach it through English as well.

Primary subject focus

The primacy of the subject over language concerns closely relates to the teachers' comments on their identity as English NNS and subject teachers. Knowledge of and the ability to teach one's subject is the point for these teachers. It was felt that mastery of subject-specific terminology enables appropriate teaching of content reiterated as the most important aspect of the classroom. During the survival period in particular the focus

on the subject was important and appears to have become an underlying feature of this teaching over time.

Influence on L1 teaching

This result refers to comments from only two teachers, but is an interesting finding. One teacher explained:

When I explained X in English it was too much,... so ... I just have eye-contact and I teach the topic and they're just listening to me. And then I make sure they've understood what I've said, and then I just go back to the board and I write everything I just said and go it through again. And it's a very good thing when you have a hard topic in Finnish too.

This finding hints at the complicated relationships explored in these interviews and partners Coyle's (2006, 2007) identification of the positive 'knock-on' effect quality CLIL teaching can have on L1 teaching. The implications of this finding are perhaps more far-reaching than initially anticipated or explored elsewhere. If the voices of practitioners of this environment continue to be heard, a firm foundation for the practice of future FL-mediating teachers may be established.

DISCUSSION

This research investigated the impact FL-mediated teaching has on teachers' professional integrity. As a result, it can be said that these teachers recognise themselves as the same professionals in FL or L1-mediated teaching, or are at least confident in the maintenance of the integrity of their subject.

The interviews revealed that to maintain professional integrity within this environment is demanding yet rewarding. The initial experience descriptions are comparable to the crisis experience of newly qualified teachers: whatever the provision of training, the teacher has to navigate the sea of students alone. Whilst newly-qualified teachers are yet to form professional identities, experienced teachers enter the FL-mediated classroom with a keen sense of professional integrity demanding renegotiation.

Change within the existing sphere of professional practice and identity challenges confidence and competence (Kelchtermans 1996; Guskey 2002). This research found that FL-mediated teaching fundamentally affects professional integrity as barriers are involuntarily erected around the teacher-person and practice. One barrier encompasses the teacher-self, that is the teacher's sense of identity, and the second barrier surrounds the active agency of the teacher. As an already established classroom persona with expectations of how to operate and a personal-professional definition of effective teaching, these barriers are highly significant to the sense of professional integrity.

With regard to the teacher-person limitations, each interview revealed that key automatic features of L1 teaching required active processing, becoming intentional behaviour in the FL-mediated classroom. Tacit knowledge was no longer realised with the language change and alteration in classroom dynamics: terminology was no longer assured, pronunciation a conscious effort, shared cultural intimacy reduced. Assumed expertise is,

in effect, challenged as access to the sharing and construction of knowledge (Mercer 1995) is filtered through a different tongue. This experience crystallises the “reduced personality of the second language learner” (Harder 1980) from the absence of humour in the classroom to insecurity and inevitable exhaustion.

The second barrier around the active agency of the teacher relates to lesson preparation and delivery and relational interactions of the classroom. The unavailability of material requires teachers to produce quality material and to depend on teacher talk more in the FL-mediated classroom. Methodological options are reduced as teachers attempt to maintain control and find alternative ways of acting as established approaches are unavailable. Classroom relations change as teachers become communicative partners with students (Nikula 2005, 2007b) rather than the mediators of academic language (Lemke 1989). The apparent communicative competence of the students further complicates the language role and responsibility of the instructors.

These barriers require surmounting to restore professional integrity. Each interviewee described the significant process experienced to re-establish their sense of professional integrity. The commonality of these personal stories indicates that sharing these experiences would be of value to other teachers interested in developing professional practice within the FL-mediated classroom and help in the development of training programmes, providing guidelines for institutions implementing this kind of learning environment.

Re-establishing the sense of professional integrity required a considerable investment. Three years was the longest period, but one teacher felt after six years that a marked difference remained between the L1 and FL teacher-self. The sense of survival present in the teachers’ descriptions creates respect for the resulting success and astonishment at the degree of dedication. It should be restated that of 17 potential interviewees, only six accepted the invitation. Several declined the opportunity, some on the grounds of a lack of confidence or inexperience. These interviews represent those who feel they have professionally gained as well as given personally by entering the FL-mediated classroom. The maintenance of this balance appears to be highly significant in making the experience worthwhile and sustainable.

Within this particular programme, the curriculum content was a challenge in addition to the language. Kelchtermans (1996) describes change experienced by teachers as cognitively and emotionally demanding. Given the prior subject expertise of the teachers and level of personal interest in the subject, the nature of the content challenge would presumably be less demanding than the language change. Classroom language reaches into all spheres of practice: establishing relationships, managing the learning environment, handling subject matter, as well as apprenticing students into the subject community (Mortimer and Scott 2003). Language in the classroom is the vehicle for both the expression and realisation of teaching and learning.

Guskey’s (2002) alternative model for teacher development supports change in practice prior to change in beliefs. The inherent risk in change is often resisted by teachers already

satisfied with current practice and learning outcomes. The experience of FL-mediated teaching for these teachers enforced change in practice rather than beliefs, and did indeed also lead to positive developments in L1 teaching (see also Coyle 2007; Coonan 2007). The goal of these teachers, however, was not the implementation of new practices but the reassertion of professional integrity. The achievement of continuity in practice, whether in the L1 or the FL, was perceived as the successful marker of re-established professional integrity.

This 'happy coincidence' of improved L1 teaching is significant for a number of reasons. Firstly, it underlines the sound pedagogical basis of CLIL and FL-mediated teaching. To invert Coyle's statement, 'good CLIL teaching is good teaching' (2006, 11) this comment is supported by the positive washback effect. What does not appear to have been seized thus far, however, is the valuable opportunity FL-mediated teaching provides to experienced teachers to revisit and refine practice and to do so within the professional community rather than in isolation.

On entering the FL-mediated classroom, one teacher found her usual role unviable and adjusted in situ. This modification allowed the teacher to regain control and keep students actively engaged. Other teachers avoided loss of control by resorting to lecturing until confidence was regained. These changes demanded time and energy with respect to preparing for the worse-case scenario or facing impromptu changes. Whilst it is reasonable to expect that change requires time and investment, a reasonable limit as to what can be demanded of teachers to maintain the sustainability of innovative efforts should become part of the ongoing CLIL-dialogue. Transitioning to FL-mediated teaching requires a significant amount of transformation for teachers.

Promoted change needs to be understood in the light of the rewards it brings as well as the demands it creates. FL-mediated teaching has a direct impact on the most important tool in any teacher's toolkit – language – and has significant implications for the core of a teacher's professional self. The readjustment FL-mediation requires can create, however, a valuable opportunity for teachers to reconsider their established pedagogical practice. For this reconsideration to lead to enhanced practice teachers need a pedagogical blueprint to guide decision-making and a community ready to offer this support. If this is the case, courageous teachers entering the FL-mediated classroom may experience the new environment as one of emergence, rather than reduction and CLIL as an educational innovation stands a greater chance of success and long-term sustainability.

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II

VOICING THE CHALLENGES FACED BY AN INNOVATIVE TEACHER COMMUNITY

by

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Voicing the challenges faced by an innovative teacher community

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This research draws on sociocultural theories of learning and activity theory to explore the challenges faced by an innovative community of teachers in Central Finland. The aim of the teacher community was to develop a stream of foreign-language mediated teaching and learning in the locality from kindergarten to upper secondary level. To achieve this goal, the teachers needed to form coherent groups within the member schools, as well as between the schools. The aim of this research is to give voice to the challenges identified by the teachers and in so doing give voice to the teacher community itself. Recognising the voice of this community also contributes to a broader conceptualisation of teachers and teaching both within and beyond the classroom. The data were gathered during a number of community activities and thematically analysed to identify recurring challenges the participants identified and encountered. The challenges became manifest in both the talk and activities of the community. The positive teacher responses to the community highlighted the value of this kind of interaction for often isolated teacher practitioners. The wealth of data also produced through these activities suggests that further exploration and development of teacher activity outside of the classroom would be a worthwhile endeavour.

Key words: sociocultural theory, teacher community, teacher challenges, teacher voice

Foreign-language based innovation in Central Finland

This article reports findings from research with a teacher-community in Central Finland, drawing on the sociocultural family of learning theories (Roth & Lee, 2007) to frame both the activities of this group and the findings. This professional community includes teachers from kindergarten to upper secondary school. The link between these teachers is

the desire to launch a sustainable stream in foreign-language (FL) mediated teaching-learning within their mainstream educational context. In other words, these teachers hope to offer their pupils opportunities to first play in an FL (English), alongside their native tongue (Finnish). In primary school the pupils learn to 'be' in English with a minimum of one hour a week in which the pupils experience a school subject through English, in addition to formal language lessons from grade three on. The lower secondary school aims for learning through the FL with a select number of FL-mediated courses on offer, whilst the upper secondary school provides a rigorous programme of study through English. FL-mediated teaching-learning is in-line with European Language Policy recommendations (European Publication, 2005) with this innovation promoted as a highly efficient way to support FL learning simultaneously enhancing subject learning (Baetens-Beardsmore, 2008). Whilst the local educational authorities allow, and to some degree appreciate, the teachers' innovative efforts, little support is provided in concrete terms. Some teacher-members of the community have up to fifteen years experience in FL-mediated teaching-learning, whilst other members are new to this approach. The successful completion of the National Language Test (YKI) certifies official competence for FL-mediating teachers; but neither this nor special pedagogic training is always required. The ambitions of this community are based on the professional integrity and interest of the teacher-members hoping to provide a broader educational experience for their pupils. To realise their goal the community faced challenges in terms of its identity, professional knowledge and classroom-based activities. It is the identification of these challenges that is explored and reported here.

The participant-observer had the privilege of knowing the school staff through different professional activities. Through these relationships the opportunity to form a networked community grew. Initiation of the community began as more action than research, but as the richness of the interactions and the benefits of the community came to the fore, the action and research started to come together. “The view that knowledge is held and distributed within groups” (Edwards, 2000:199) seemed to be increasingly relevant in the interactions of this professional community. The role of the participant-observer became to coordinate the community meetings and to suggest themes for the sessions. In this role the participant-observer belonged to the community as an inside-outsider and the process of gathering data was approved by the community.

Teaching has been compared to, among others, improvised performance (Sawyer, 2004) and the conducting of music (Alexander, 2001). These characterisations reflect the complexity of classroom activity and the key role the teacher has in what happens, when and how. Teaching is clearly not, however, the entrenched functioning of an individual, rather an identity fundamentally affected by context and experience, collegial support and political climate (Day, Kington, Stobart, & Sammons, 2006). In some senses teaching epitomises the “fluidity and flux” of modern societies (Edwards, 2006:169) “still constrained by the artefacts and social processes that belong to pre-reform practices” (Edwards, 2000:198). In Finland teachers are free from inspections and national testing (Simola, 2005), however, a tension exists “between a progressive participatory rhetoric and an incipient managerialist culture” (Webb, Vulliamy, Hämäläinen, Sarja, Kimonen, & Nevalainen, 2004).

FL-mediated teaching-learning, as promoted by the EU, was introduced in Finland in the early nineties. In 1996 up to 24% of upper secondary schools offered some form of FL-mediated subject courses but by 2005 the number was 11%. In comprehensive schools the percentage fell from almost 10% to less than 5% (Lehti, Järvinen & Suomela-Salmi, 2006). The lack of coordinated support at both school and administrative levels, in particular the isolation and subsequent exhaustion of innovative practitioners significantly contributed to this decline. This teacher-community's goals were to counter this isolation and to create a 'voice', in the Bakhtinian sense, to be heard by the educational administration at both municipal and national levels.

Prior to the creation of a public voice, however, the community needed to find its own 'private voice' and to recognise itself as a community. By coming together on a regular basis and discussing issues relevant to teacher activity, the teacher-members began to develop relational agency, "a capacity to align one's thought and actions with those of others in order to interpret problems of practice and to respond to those interpretations" (Edwards, 2006:169). The thematic discussions included, for example, why teachers were invested in this innovation, identifying the key concerns and gaps in practice, defining what resources would be most useful and why, how teaching and classroom culture are conceptualised. In these discussions the teachers went beyond "sharing information and the coordination of social interaction ... [rather] ... a joint, dynamic engagement with ideas amongst partners" (Mercer, 2004:139) began to surface. In this setting talk was "used to enable joint intellectual activity" (Mercer, 2004:140) between peers. The focal activity here, then, focuses on an important dimension of teacherhood – professional interaction of teachers discussing pedagogy, innovation and

the challenges teachers face in practice. Through this talk-based activity teachers not only experienced “supportive colleagues and the sharing of good practice ... or a sense of community” (Day et al., 2006) but started to move towards “professional development ... repositioning oneself in relation to aspects of knowledge through changing one’s interpretations of contexts and the possibilities for action within them” (Edwards, 2000:200). As the teachers reported in the final whole-community meeting, “We understand now the big picture. It’s more concrete – we know the other people doing the same thing. We’ve proved that cooperation is possible and needed” (Teacher notes session 5). The process of creating a community through talk simultaneously produced a voice for the challenges the teachers commonly encountered and in so doing contributes to a broader conceptualisation of teacherhood both within and beyond the classroom.

Community members, meetings and data collection

The whole community comprised approximately 25 members, four kindergarten staff, 12 primary teachers, 10 subject teachers, two head-teachers and the research observer- participant. Sociocultural research perceives “communication, thinking and learning as related processes” (Mercer, 2004:138) understanding education “as a dialogic process, with students and teachers working within settings which reflect the values and social practices of schools as cultural institutions” (ibid:139). This perspective frames the exploratory research reported here with the notion of ‘relational agency’ providing an apt description of the relationships developed within this community. The whole community came together five times over an eighteen-month period. Each meeting involved a significant amount of group discussion, in addition to short presentations including, for

example, the development of the primary school curriculum by the primary staff. Each discussion group included staff from the different educational partners and a group secretary made notes collected at the end of each session. These notes were then collated by the observer-participant and redistributed to the teacher-members for comments. These notes are one data-set for this research.

The staff from the lower secondary school, as the most recent partner to adopt this innovation, had seven additional school-based meetings with between four and eight participants. The aim of these discussions was to establish regular FL-mediated courses within the subject timetable. This school had previously attempted FL-mediated courses, but overwhelmed staff had given up. To create a sustainable programme, the school aimed to form a core team responsible for these courses. The team held seven sessions intended to enhance their understanding of FL-based pedagogy and talk in education. The discussions aimed to construct a joint understanding of the demands and characteristics of different subject and language pedagogies leading to opportunities for collaboration. The fourth and sixth meetings were digitally recorded and transcribed. The transcriptions provide the second data-set for the research reported here.

One of the subject teachers in the school team allowed the participant-observer into two FL-mediated science courses implemented for the first time in the school. These courses followed the regular timetable of two double lessons (90 minutes) a week over an eight week period. This provided valuable insight into a subject teacher's initial encounter with FL-based teaching-learning. Observation notes were maintained throughout the two courses (in addition to video recordings) and each discussion with the teacher was also noted down. It is these notes that provide the third data-set in this

research. The three data-sets provide a cross-sectional view of the teacher community supporting the sociocultural view of a workplace being of a contextually complex, embedded nature (Edwards, 2000). This paper focuses on the challenges identified through the community interactions and at different levels of community activity.

To ensure the integrity of this research the findings have been previewed and accepted by community-members. The whole-community data emphasizes the challenge of formulating a professional identity that can be recognised and resourced. The school-based data highlights the challenge teachers face in conceptualising and verbalising pedagogical content knowledge (Shulman, 1986, 1999) as well as in introducing change into an established pedagogic culture. The classroom-based data, as the context would suggest, foregrounds the challenge of praxis (Roth & Lee, 2007), that is the gap between theory and practice in an FL-mediated setting. The aim of this research is to explore the challenges experienced at these different community levels.

Figure 1: Levels and activities of the community

Methodology

In this research the talk-based data is understood as both a product and process of teacher cognition (Mercer, 2004; Roth & Lee, 2007). The first two data-sets in particular draw on teacher discussions in which teachers seek to explicitly describe their professional experiences and pedagogic repertoires. The third data-set slightly differs in that in addition to talk as mediated-cognition, teacher-activity is also understood as a form of mediated cognition (Roth & Lee, 2007). The data-sets are not symmetrical in that the same questions are not asked at each level, however they are complimentary in that

they each provide insight into the professional activity of teachers at different levels providing a more holistic view of teachers and teaching.

The three data-sets were thematically analysed (Braun & Clarke, 2006) with the analysis focusing on the challenge of introducing FL-mediated teaching-learning. During the review of the data-set any reference to difficulties, problems, questions or concerns noted by the teachers, and in the third data-set by the participant-observer, were extracted and listed separately. In addition to explicit references to difficulties, instances when teachers struggled to express or jointly construct understanding were also identified as a challenge. The extracted data was reviewed again and thematically similar comments were gradually collated together. The entire data-set was not combined to form a whole, rather the identified themes continued to be contextualised by the original discussion setting. As the process continued the data-sets were organised according to the different challenges, rather than according to the initial discussion prompts. This is not to claim that the original themes did not play an instrumental role in framing teacher discussions as different challenges were identified by the participants. As a form of realist research, the session themes were explicitly intended to help teachers critically review FL-mediated teaching-learning. Examples of transcribed extracts are available in the appendix.

Although the participant-observer provided the themes for the different sessions, the discussions were open-ended and developed according to teacher interest. The teachers worked with or around participant-observer's the questions as they felt appropriate and shared responsibility for developing the discussions as equal participants (see appendix). As the discussions were not strictly directed, the results do not show

whether one challenge was considered greater than another by the community members. The teachers were free to contribute or not as they wished, although the hope was expressed at the beginning of each meeting that everyone would participate. Feedback on the sessions was also regularly sought, checking that the teachers felt the themes to be relevant and helpful. During the data-analysis process the original notes and transcriptions were regularly reread to maintain the integrity of the original expressions.

Results/Findings

The findings are reported in a way which reflects the original data collection settings. The first set of challenges reported here come from the whole-community discussions, the second set from the school-based discussions, and the final set from the classroom setting. The order in which the challenges are presented does not reflect any order of priority nor how many teachers considered each challenge to be a challenge, nor how to address the challenge. The challenges reported here featured in the talk between teachers and in teacher activity. As such this research hopes to give voice to experiences that could have remained silent, but by voicing these challenges it is hoped that the possibility for further knowledge growth and action can be realised.

Whole-community discussions

This section includes the key challenges identified by the whole-community in relation to teacher repertoires and learning cultures. The “repertoire of approaches from which they [teachers] can select on the basis of fitness for purpose in relation to the learner, the subject-matter and the opportunities and constraints of the context”

(Alexander, 2008:102) is fundamentally affected in an FL-mediated context. The *personal language proficiency* of the teacher becomes a question: whereas an FL-user can opt to be silent (Harder, 1980) this is no option for an FL-mediating teacher. Teacher language proficiency was not, however, the only FL-based challenge. As teachers began to share their different classroom ‘ground rules’ for FL-use the question of *what new ‘norms’ should be established* became part of teacher discussion: which language should be used when? How prepared were pupils to use the FL? How could all pupils participate regardless of language/ability level? How did pupils understand FL-mediated education? How could some form of continuity through the different school levels be realized? These questions directly challenged teacher identity and activity.

Finnish teachers often have the ‘luxury’ of ready-made textbooks in each subject of the curriculum from the beginning of primary school. Whilst there is no obligation to use textbooks, it is often through textbook-based activities that curriculum requirements are implemented (Webb et al., 2004). FL-based subject textbooks have only recently come to the attention of textbook publishers and remain few and far between. The need to *develop materials* extends teacher repertoires requiring time and skills not usually employed. Teachers are not the only ones in the classroom socialized into textbook-based teaching-learning. When teachers work without textbooks some pupils find this unsettling (Skinnari, 2010), fun perhaps but not “real learning”. From this perspective teacher repertoires are being expanded in two directions not only with regard to the development of materials, but also with the need to re-socialise learner expectations and repertoires. The challenges here relate to classroom culture both in terms of activity and underlying assumptions.

Some of these teachers had several years of experience in FL-mediated teaching-learning with first language Finnish pupils. These teachers have developed repertoires based on a shared first language. As the student population has begun to vary, however, this has given rise to the question: “*Where to begin when pupils don’t know Finnish?*” (Teacher notes 1). This is an important question with implications not only for FL-mediated learning when English is the language of instruction for Finnish students, but when Finnish is the language of instruction for immigrant students.

Another challenge related to teacher repertoires can again be framed as a question: *How to encourage “playing with” language and motivation at different stages of development?* During the third whole-community discussion the nature of FL-learning changes across the educational spectrum was critically considered. Through this discussion teachers queried how to maintain the natural enthusiasm of children “even over puberty” (Teacher notes 1) as the demand for language use in subject learning increases. Arguably the critical consideration of this issue with colleagues from different educational settings helped develop a far broader picture of the learning continuum and the need for collaboration to support motivation.

These discussions highlighted the *challenges of building a professional community*. This was expressed by hopes as well as questions. The teacher-members wanted to avoid cliques, they hoped instead for a positive community which shared materials, visited classes, jointly developed school curricula and whole school vision. Closely linked to this challenge was the question of *how to gain recognition from educational authorities?* Whilst the municipal authorities provided a small budget to support the whole-community activities, no word on concrete measures for support or

acknowledgement of innovative efforts was forthcoming. Teachers also began to ponder *how to engage with parents*. In the discussions parents were listed as important partners, with the potential to provide feedback and support, to act as resources if they understood this innovation. The discussions also questioned *how to make creative use of existing resources* such as the international classes and staff housed within the same school as the FL-mediated classes. This point was raised in the initial whole-community discussion and in the final discussion, but in more-or-less the same terms.

School-based discussions

These discussions included the core team from the lower secondary school, colleagues familiar to one another but without collaborative teaching experience. The first challenge facing this group was of a more practical nature: how to decide *which pupils participate in FL-mediated classes, how and why*. It was not feasible for this school to offer FL-mediated classes for all students, and to continue with only the pupils from the community primary school separated one cohort of feed-primary school pupils from the others. The teachers felt powerless to answer this question as the final decision lay with the head-teacher responsible for the wider school policy. The core team also faced the challenge of *gaining support from the wider school community*. The teachers hoped to recruit more team members, promote understanding, and to counter negative attitudes expressed by other staff members.

Creating partnerships was a key goal and a significant challenge for the school-based team. Two models for FL-mediated learning were introduced as a tool to support the conceptualisation of subject teaching, foreign language pedagogy and the over-

lapping interests of the two. *Conceptualising subject teaching* was a significant challenge, as with other teacher groups (Shulman, 1999). Occasionally the teachers insisted that all the pupils needed to learn a subject though the FL was words, lists of terms: “they need words, terms, they have to understand terms that’s the problem” (A – Oct ‘09). During the discussions, however, new questions began to be voiced by the teachers indicating a change in their subject conceptualisation:

“Ok, factual knowledge. What is that in my subject in emotional skills? What is factual knowledge? That there are emotions? That’s a fact, that we all have emotions, feelings, but how it refers to these key er concepts subjects, in a way it’s all combined” (B – April ‘09).

As the subject colleagues continued to explore the language of their subject and accompanying activities the English teacher team member responded by saying, “the language we learn [in the EFL classroom] is more simple than the one they do, in a way... I don’t really know how we could help the students” (C – April ‘09). This is not to imply that collaboration could not take place between the formal FL classroom and FL-mediated courses but *conceptualising possibilities and practical activities for collaboration* beyond the language checking of material is a challenge: “if you mean that integration just that we work the same things. I’d have to think about it now...” (A – Oct ‘09).

Pedagogical content knowledge is described as the “active interaction of subject knowledge, school knowledge and pedagogical understanding and experience” (Banks, Leach & Moon, 1999:95). Three teachers in this team had taught international classes in addition to working through Finnish. It was assumed that this experience would be good preparation for FL-mediated teaching-learning, but the *inadequacy of their previous experience* was quickly realised:

It's really different (laughter) because English speaking class they know English already ... I can just teach and even if I say something wrong they correct me (laughter), so I can just concentrate on chemistry. But ... in this chemistry group ... they don't know English very well, so ... I am kind of language teacher so I need to figure out how they would understand me. (D – Oct '09)

FL-mediated teaching *and* learning created a new role with increased responsibilities. The teachers found FL-mediated teaching-learning disorientating: “and kind of searching out what is the level that I can start” (D – Oct '09). As the teachers contributed examples based on *pedagogical content knowledge* the FL appeared to distort the examples. The ‘saturated-fat cat’ mnemonic in Finnish Domestic Science became a more poetic ‘satisfied cat’, a popular Finnish children’s feudal publication ‘Koiramäki’ (Doghill) was distanced, the validity of familiar terms in language teaching was questioned. The teachers found this disorientation highly stressful.

Whilst the focal innovation for these teachers was FL-mediated teaching-learning the sociocultural perspective framing this research connects with the learning environment targeted in the Finnish Curriculum: “the learning environment must also support interaction... It must promote dialogue and guide the pupils...” (FNBE, 2004:17). The increased interaction sociocultural pedagogy encourages complements the finding in FL-based research that interaction is a fundamental requirement in FL-mediated teaching-learning (Baetens-Beardsmore, 2008). *Adopting a different perspective* was a significant challenge voiced in teacher-talk. A ‘culture of talk’ was initially described as alien, “I think it’s not natural to Finnish people” (A – April '09). Nevertheless as the discussion continued pedagogic reform promoting talk in the lower school curriculum was beginning to be apparent in the readiness of younger pupils to discuss. The pupil discussions the teachers described, however, suggested the emergence of a polarised

culture of talk: “I want them to participate because they give so much out, but the way they do it quiets everybody else” (B – April ‘09).

As the discussion continued teacher-training anecdotes surfaced in which trainees were required to produce scripted lesson plans with minutes of talk accounted for even in recent years: “That’s how we were educated. We find the roots!” (B - April ‘09). One teacher described how pupils spontaneously discussed an example she had provided. Initially the teacher had gladly observed the discussions, “but still I thought that, ‘yes, shut up!’ Don’t speak anything, let me speak, it’s not my fault it’s the education’s fault of course, the traditions, that we have to control the class, and I think that’s a difficulty” (A – April ‘09). This illustrates the challenge of a cultural shift when introducing an innovation. A *culture of talk* challenged not only teacher ability to model and manage discussion, but to also culturally adapt to a new role perceived as relinquishing authority. The teachers also expressed confusion as to how they could evaluate learning with “numbers” and “concrete results” if class time was spent talking, leading to complaints over group size and dynamics indicating a sense of powerlessness within the existing system.

Classroom-based challenges

We now turn to the findings from two seventh grade FL-mediated science courses from autumn 2009 and spring 2010. The seventh grade is the first grade in the lower secondary school. The pupils were an exceptionally eclectic mix for Finland including a number of international and immigrant pupils, pupils with FL-mediated learning

experience and some without, plus three SEN pupils. The participant-observer was present to observe and occasionally assist pupils using English. In the first course a Finnish classroom assistant was also present and used English for the majority of her interactions with pupils. The participant-observer and science teacher regularly discussed their perceptions and experiences of the courses.

Gutiérrez and Rogoff advise against “pigeonholing individuals into categories [rather]... helping students develop dexterity in using both familiar and new approaches” (2003:23). The diverse mix of students in the science classes represented a broad range of educational and personal experiences. As the class culture was established identifying and supporting the *existing repertoires of learners* was a challenge. Some pupils had FL-mediated learning experience, but helping pupils to recognise their skills and using this as a resource for other class members was difficult. Some pupils automatically wrote answers in English when the teacher asked a question in English, but if later the theoretical teaching continued in Finnish as the teacher wrote the answer on the board in Finnish, the English text was immediately erased from pupil books. This provided some indication of learner repertoire but as it was so silently portrayed it did not remain a feature of learner activity. Initially pupils repeated words under their breath but as this did not become a formalised feature of this classroom, this disappeared and the pupils actually reduced the amount of English in their peer interactions.

The science classes quickly became a *highly routinised environment*, as Alexander explains, “together with pupils, teachers create and become incorporated

within a micro-culture... The evolution of the classroom micro-culture also allows – indeed requires – them to develop procedures for regulating the complex dynamics of pupil-pupil relationships” (2001:325). As with many science classrooms, the general pattern after the review of homework was to introduce the key concept, to provide instructions for the experiment, to carry out the experiment in groups, and to write up the theory on the board before assigning the textbook pages for homework. Test-based lessons broke this pattern but were also highly structured with pupils answering revision questions in the lesson prior to the test, reviewing the answers with the teacher, doing the test, reviewing the test with the teacher. A detailed exploration of the culture established in this classroom goes beyond the scope of this paper, nevertheless, the classroom routine is a fundamental pedagogic tool whether yielded consciously or unconsciously by the teacher. The challenge appears to be to recognize the actions, decisions, intentions behind the established routine and to abide by the established culture or to interrupt the established culture to advance learning.

This challenge clearly relates to teachers’ *professional knowledge* “... a complex amalgam of past knowledge, experiences of learning, a personal view of what constitutes ‘good’ teaching and belief in the purposes of the subject” (Banks et al., 1999:95) incorporating and going beyond Shulman’s PCK. After the initial shock of FL-mediated teaching-learning, the teacher began re-establishing her professional repertoire by providing clear lesson plans and aims for the pupils. Other challenges to professional knowledge remained, however, including how to frame activities without exhausting pupils with the introduction? How to create space for everyone to participate? When to

dare to 'stretch' pupils? And from a slightly different perspective, how to enhance professional knowledge rather than just recover comfortable practice?

The final challenge identified in the classroom-based data was how to *engage with the new language partner*. That is, how to validate the presence or role of the FL in the subject classroom for pupils and teachers. Baetens-Beardsmore describes an FL-mediating teacher as "...without being aware ... teaching the content mainly through the L1 and providing a word-list in L2, yet ... under the illusion that he was providing content and language integrated instruction" (1999:28-29). This comment, however, does little to identify the pedagogic challenges faced by the teacher. As the findings reported here show managing opportunities to use the FL, to use social talk to support learning, to support simultaneous language-based activities often used in classrooms, to understand the complex role of writing as a skill and cultural expectation, to address discontent in the classroom and to foster the transition from first language use to FL-mediated teaching-learning are significant challenges which require further attention.

Discussion

The teacher-participants voiced interest in this innovation for several reasons: it was an opportunity for professional development within the classroom, to modernize their subject pedagogy, to internationalise learning and they enjoyed the fruits of their labour. Edwards writes that "the contradictions and turbulence identified within systems are characterized as points for systemic adaptation or expansive learning" (2000:201).

The challenges presented here are ‘contradictions and turbulence’ and hopefully by voicing these challenges ‘expansive learning’ can become a possibility.

The individual voices which first entered the discussions came together to create a community voice. The cross-sectional view of the different community activity-levels allows different types of challenges the community faces to come to the fore. In the whole-community activities challenges related to teacher and community **identity** were particularly prominent as teachers discussed who they were, why they were invested in this innovation, and the resources they required to move forward with their professional activities. The school-based activities directed the focus of the teachers towards subject pedagogies and the role of language within education. The challenges from these activities related to the **conceptualisation** of pedagogies and talk-in-education, and the challenge of **articulating need**. Classroom activity highlighted the challenge of **praxis**. Classroom culture is established intentionally or accidentally, and the immediacy of pupil needs and a timetabled curriculum drive teacher activity. The classroom notes capture a snapshot of a dynamically-charged environment drawing on all the resources (and more) at the disposal of a teacher. Each of these levels is required to create a balanced voice for the challenges teachers face when adopting FL-mediated teaching-learning. Whilst similar challenges could be identified at different levels of activity, this reappearance perhaps suggests the crucial nature of these particular challenges.

The “reports experiences, meanings and the reality of participants” (Braun and Clarke, 2006:81) show teachers beginning to reconsider together an environment full of

assumptions and aspirations. The relational agency that this experience began to engender may be part of the key in responding to these challenges. The questions which arose within the community not only pointed the finger at external agents, but also to the teachers themselves and the repertoires present in their most familiar arena for professional activity: the classroom. Whilst the challenges these teachers face would not be identical in any other situation (Northfield, 1996), the process of teachers coming together to find a voice, working in a professional capacity outside of the classroom is hopefully generalisable to other instances of teacher development work.

Future research

The research reported here is exploratory, a starting point not a conclusion. It would be interesting to know whether similar challenges can be found within other communities attempting to adopt innovation educational approaches. It might also be worth investigating which challenges really do require further training and outside support to be surmountable. Teacher communities possess stores of knowledge (Edwards, 2000), their own rich resources need to be recognised and drawn on. Following a teacher community seeking to overcome challenges could perhaps significantly contribute to the conceptualisation of teacher-professionals. Two other areas are of particular interest from a sociocultural perspective, how did these teachers together construct their professional knowledge? The transcribed data in particular documents how the teachers began to think together about the challenges they faced. A more detailed exploration of this process might provide a useful insight into teachers-as-peers constructing knowledge, not only in the classroom with novice-pupils. Finally the culture of the classroom is an all-pervasive

feature of classroom life and activity. The cross-sectional view here implies how broader conceptualisations of teacher professionals and teaching can be developed when different levels of community activity can be voiced.

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III

RECONCEPTUALISING THE ROLE OF TALK IN CLIL

by

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Reconceptualising the Role of Talk in CLIL

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This theoretical paper offers a reconceptualisation of talk in CLIL based on sociocultural and dialogic theories of education. Building on these educational theories and the experiences of an on-going CLIL project, this paper presents a pedagogical model for the navigation of the 'talkscape' of the CLIL classroom. This model comprises a total of seven talk-types: organisational, social, critical, expert, exploratory, meta and pedagogic. In addition to these talk-types, the paper introduces the notion of a 'transitional dynamic'. This notion aims to capture the transition from first language to foreign language use in CLIL both within the context of individual courses and across a broader CLIL educational pathway. It is hoped that this model provides a useful tool in both the practical realisation and theoretical development of CLIL.

Keywords: CLIL, educational pathway, pedagogic model, talk-types, transitional dynamic

Introduction

The educational innovation of Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) combines the learning of subject matter with the learning of a foreign language (FL). A key characteristic of this approach is the foreign-language (FL) mediation of both teaching and learning, that is both teacher and learners are working through a non-community language (Dalton-Puffer 2007a, Coyle 2007). In practice CLIL is crucially different to immersion education with neither the teacher nor the community providing native-speaker support. This FL-mediated approach arguably requires teaching and learning repertoires beyond commonly held assumptions of first language (L1) classrooms (Coonan 2007, Coyle 2007). The FL-mediated setting affects many different aspects of teaching-learning, from the availability of resources (Lehti, Järvinen and Suomela-Salmi 2006), the appropriacy of established teaching-learning repertoires (Moate 2011a), participant roles (Nikula 2007), and the language-content relationship (Gajo 2007). The political interest to support a plurilingual European community through CLIL (European Commission 1995) has not, however, included the full consideration of key concepts and pedagogical implications of CLIL (Graddol

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2005). The lack of a pedagogical framework for CLIL (Coyle 2008) has serious implications for both CLIL teachers and researchers. CLIL teachers would arguably benefit from a conceptual framework to guide pedagogic activity in the demanding contexts of CLIL and the same conceptual framework could similarly support CLIL research. These are two key motivations behind this paper.

What is particularly interesting about the call for a pedagogical framework is the implicit indication that CLIL is more than a methodology. Indeed the practical changes required by CLIL - the way educational activity is framed and enacted - support the notion that CLIL is methodological. The research findings noted above, however, indicate that CLIL does not only require change in the doings of the classroom, but also in the beings of the classroom: the ways in which educational partners relate to and are present for one another. Other CLIL research indicates improved learning outcomes in CLIL in comparison to L1 learning (Baetens-Beardsmore 2008) and a similarly impressive claim that CLIL widens the opportunity for participation in learning despite the greater demands of learning through an FL (Coyle 2006). These changes go beyond methodology, entering rather the realms of pedagogy.

CLIL as a pedagogical innovation

The original meaning for the term pedagogy was to walk alongside the pupil as he was delivered to the place of learning (van Manen 1991). This is an intriguing notion and in many ways an apt metaphor for modern conceptualisations of learning as a social and individual activity. If CLIL, however, fundamentally affects the ways in which learners are 'delivered to the place of learning', an understanding of this process is necessary in order to develop and enhance CLIL-based education in both terms of theory and practice. This paper hopes to contribute to the development of a CLIL pedagogical framework by suggesting a reconceptualization of talk in CLIL and is an extension of an earlier article (Moate 2010) which revisits the integrated nature of CLIL.

It is perhaps useful here to comment on the significance of talk in education and CLIL in particular. Although classroom communication and learning activities go beyond the spoken word, nevertheless talk has been described as the most ubiquitous tool used within teaching-learning contexts (Mercer and Littleton 2007). Talk as a 'tool', however, still limits the full significance of the spoken word. Talk - whether teacher or learner talk - provides a real-time window into thinking, an immediate snapshot of how someone understands a concept or engages with an activity. Moreover, talk provides a space between educational participants, a place for interthinking (Mercer 2000) and dialogic engagement (Wegerif 2010). These concepts are presented in more detail in the paper, but hopefully this brief description underlines why the introduction of FL-mediated teaching-learning - as in CLIL - has such fundamental implications for pedagogical activity in classrooms.

Research Context

This theorisation of talk presented in this paper has developed within an action research community in Central Finland comprising CLIL partners representative of each educational level from preschool education to upper secondary and higher education. The teacher-partners and researcher have regularly met together to address the challenges of FL-mediated teaching-learning, to share pedagogic experiences and understanding. Stated in Practice Architecture terms (Kemmis and Grootenboer 2008), the praxis of this community has been realised through ‘sayings’ in regular discussions (twice a semester as a whole group, in addition to working group meetings), ‘doings’ by sharing and drawing on previous experiences and research to prepare future actions and recorded classroom observations, and ‘relatings’ as different institutional boundaries are crossed and the teacher community interacts with the local and wider research community.

One of the challenges faced by the community has been to conceptualise pupil progression through the different educational levels. A community working group specifically convened to work with this notion, which was then critiqued by the wider community before being published. In the nursery/preschool activities CLIL is understood as ‘playing in English’ with the FL embedded in the daily routines, activities and interactions with the young children. The continuation of FL-learning in the primary school is described as ‘being in English’. The primary school teachers work to keep FL-use as a normal, non-threatening part of the learning environment for all pupils with a minimum level of two¹ CLIL hours a week per class. In the lower secondary school, the focus is more expressly on ‘learning through English’ as the subject requires greater attention and the pupils have to draw on their language foundation from primary education to resource their subject learning. The focus of the upper secondary school is ‘studying through English’. As part of the International Baccalaureate programme, pupils follow a vigorous academic curriculum which requires a high level of FL within the subject curriculum, although this partner is also moving towards offering CLIL within national courses as well.

The notion of ‘playing, to being, to learning, to studying through English’ offers a conceptual pathway for teachers from different educational contexts to relate to the pedagogic practice of colleagues in different contexts. This pathway helps teachers to see where pupils have come from and to have a sense of where pupils are going to – although the development of such a pathway is not without challenges as reported in Moate (2011b). The talk-based model presented in this article has also been taken to the community for comments and critique. This model draws on the experiences of this community and is based on established educational theories as outlined in the following section.

Talk-based theories of education

Talk-based theories of education essentially relate to two fundamental aims of education. One aim is for children to gain substantive knowledge and skills to become part of and to contribute to the wider community. The other aim is for children to learn how to learn, communicate and interact in school in order to be

able to participate in a democratic, knowledge-based society. These two aims of education involve two different educational processes. In the first, education is seen as a dialectic process as pupils enter established cultural bodies of knowledge. In the second, education is a dialogic process as pupils “learn to see things from at least two perspectives at once” (Wegerif 2008:353-4) and find a voice. Whilst the relationship between these two processes goes beyond the scope of this paper, it is worth noting that participation in a democratic, knowledge-based society is not possible without grasping basic scientific concepts and it is equally difficult to participate in discussions without recognising one’s own voice.

The unifying feature between dialectic and dialogic approaches to education is the primacy of language. In neither of these approaches is language a mere conduit to exchange ideas. Language is a bidirectional phenomenon, affecting contact with the wider community on the social plane and providing the material for thinking on the psychological plane (Vygotsky 1970). The following sections outline in more detail the dialectic view from a sociocultural perspective, before moving on to the dialogic view. These two views are then brought together in the talk-based model section.

Language in sociocultural theories of education

In sociocultural theory language is a resource for participation and mediation, “the most ubiquitous, flexible and creative of the meaning-making tools available” (Mercer and Littleton 2007:2). Vygotsky proposed that through relationships with others a child initially interprets the world, learning how to see and how to understand through the eyes of an expert-other. These experiences then become the lens through which later experience is understood. Language provides the primary tool for mediated experience and with support ‘childish’ concepts become increasingly complex (Vygotsky 1970). Rather than focusing on innate cognitive ability or individualised processes of learning, Vygotskian thinking locates learning both beyond and within the learner, through collaborative interaction – especially with a more-expert other, mediated by language. The radical element of this understanding of learning is that thinking first occurs on the social plane, before becoming part of a learner’s psychological make-up (Vygotsky 1981). From this perspective the role of talk in the classroom is of paramount importance.

Language as a lens

It was noted above that education introduces pupils to establish bodies of cultural knowledge. This knowledge is instantiated in language, i.e. the way in which language is used fundamentally affects the created meaning. A simple example is the everyday expression of the sun rising and setting. Idiomatically this is acceptable, in all likelihood referring to a time when people believed the sun rose and set daily. From a scientific perspective, however, on the basis of accumulated understanding and experimentation, the sun neither rises nor sets, rather the earth spins on its axis whilst it orbits the sun. The language used

provides the lens for seeing and interpreting the world, and for sharing this understanding.

In education, learners come with everyday understandings of the world mediated through the everyday language of their community. Education has the role of extending – or changing – everyday knowledge of the world by engaging with the authoritative voice of subject expertise. It is this appropriation of an authoritative voice which is dialectic, as learners move “towards a more complexly mediated unity” (Wegerif 2008:350), the systematic knowledge of a subject. This educational goal remains present in CLIL contexts. If, however, “the task of internalizing a second language and weaving it together with the existing fabric of verbal thought is a complex one” (John-Steiner 1985: 365) then the FL-mediation of teaching-learning requires extremely careful consideration.

The dialogic dimension of education

The dialectic dynamic is realised through teacher-learner interaction as disciplinary “stories” interpreting the world (Lemke, 1989) are appropriated. For this dialectic process to succeed, however, pupils need to enter into a dialogue, that is, a ‘shared enquiry’ in a Bakhtinian sense with one voice answering another. A tension arises here between the dialectic and dialogic dynamics of education, for on the one hand words become increasingly narrow and specifiable (dialectic), whilst on the other hand “meaning belongs to a word in its position between speakers” (Voloshinov 1986: 102) (dialogic). No ‘ready-made’ meaning exists from a dialogic standpoint, rather it is negotiated or active understanding (Voloshinov 1986: 102) that gives rise to learning. On this basis, “we need to teach students how to engage in the dialogues through which knowledge is constantly being constructed, deconstructed and reconstructed” (Wegerif 2006:60).

Whilst the appropriation of the expert voice, or substantive knowledge meets the dialectic aim of education, dialogue in education supports creativity, problem-solving, ingenuity, imagination and expression. Dialogues open up “a space of multiple possible meanings” (Wegerif 2005: 712) and furthermore

learning to think means being pulled out of oneself to take the perspectives of other people and, through that engagement in a play of perspectives, to be able to creatively generate new perspectives or ways of seeing and thinking about the world (Wegerif 2010:10).

Whilst taking on the perspectives of other people can lead to new understandings, and in that sense support dialectic learning, it is not necessary that dialogues are resolved (Bakhtin 1981: 291) or that difference is eradicated. In a dialogic view of education the ‘dialogic space’ created between participants can be an end in itself (e.g. Wegerif 2010: 17). As this space widens and deepens (Bakhtin 1981: 272) the multiplicity of perspectives creates an arena for thinking partnerships, novel expression and the sharing of joint resources. It is in learning to ‘be’ within a dialogic space that the second aim of education is met.

Dialogue in L1 and L2 contexts

The dialogic dimension of education is no less complex than the dialectic dimension. Emphasizing dialogue in CLIL then, clearly requires additional support in this FL-mediated teaching-learning environment. Research in second language (L2) contexts has demonstrated how dialogic collaboration between peers can resource a level of achievement which “outstrips ... individual competencies” (Swain 2000:111). Swain’s findings in L2 contexts complement Mercer and Littleton’s (2007) findings in L1 contexts offering reason to believe that the same may be true for CLIL.

Dialogic collaboration helps to focus attention and generate alternative options, and this ‘social activity’ between learners allows for the “regulation” of learning activity. Over time this intermental activity becomes intramental activity (Swain 2000; Mercer and Littleton 2007), with the intermental activity having served as a form of vicarious consciousness. Furthermore using “L2 under-development” to mediate collaborative learning means that the inter-language itself also becomes an object for reflection (Swain 2000). This inter-language acts as a shared resource for further collaboration in the construction of knowledge, linguistic and substantive. It is the notion of collaboration resourcing both community and individual talk as well as learning activity that underpins this pedagogic model. In effect, the model provides a meta-framework for teaching-learning premised on the understanding that different types of talk resource different types of educational activity and aims.

A talk-based pedagogical model

The dialectic-dialogic view of language-in-education outlined here suggests that different educational purposes require different ways of talking in the classroom. The talk-based model presented here hopes to build on an understanding of interaction in its totality, “to show the emergence of learning, the location of learning opportunities, the pedagogical value of various interactional contexts and processes, and the effectiveness of pedagogical strategies” (van Lier 2000:250). Figure 1 provides initial definitions of the different talk-types, explained in more detail below and Figure 2 presents the model itself with an accompanying explanation.

The primary aim of this model is to provide a navigational tool for teachers in FL-mediated teaching-learning contexts, as well as a possible framework for CLIL research. Whilst these different talk-types in themselves may not be new to teaching-learning processes, bringing them together into a macro-framework hopes to highlight talk as an explicit tool and space to resource teaching-learning. This section outlines the different talk-types included in the model. The notion of a ‘transitional dynamic’ particularly relevant to FL-mediated contexts is then introduced. The discussion section then focuses on the sensitivity of the model to different educational contexts.

Organisational talk

Organisational talk expresses the what, when and how of classroom activity. This kind of talk is usually concrete and highly contextualised, based in the here-and-now of the classroom environment. Organisational talk is often formulaic and repetitive in nature, the language of instruction: please sit down, turn to page 63, discuss the following examples, etc. (see Hughes, Moate and Raatikainen 2007 for detailed examples of organisational talk in FL teaching-learning contexts). This talk has been described as the ‘regulative register’ of

Talk-type definitions	
Organisational talk	the what, when and how of the classroom
Social talk	safe, non-assessed talk between peers
Critical talk	asking ‘why’ and ‘how come’ questions
Expert talk	the formal voice of the subject
Exploratory talk	talk explicitly focused on pupil understanding – established or emerging
Meta talk	talk about talk as a tool and as the instantiation of knowledge
Pedagogic talk	talk that explicitly bridges every-day and expert perspectives

Figure 1. Talk-type definitions

pedagogic discourse (Christie 2000), important not only in maintaining the focus and pace of activity, but also framing other activities. Depth can be added to organisational talk if teachers include the ‘why’ of classroom activity to frame tasks and endeavours.

Pupils are most quickly socialised into this talk-type as they enter formal education. With organisational talk embedded in the classroom context and culture it is easier for learners to understand the FL and, as such, organisational talk offers a good starting point for FL-mediated activity. FL learners, however, “first exposed to a target language in a highly structured classroom do not find adequate contextual support for their language-learning efforts” (John-Steiner 1985:353). Whilst organisational talk is a positive starting point, it only maintains a superficial level of interaction and is often one-way. Language learning requires more participatory opportunities to engage in language use. Other talk-genres enrich the variety and roles of talk in teaching-learning contexts, but organisational talk can also develop with the FL-learning level of

pupils. Pupils can be given opportunities to give instructions – as with the game ‘Simon says’. In this way organisational talk can become more than instructional talk, offering more extended opportunities for talk-based interaction.

Social talk

Social talk is intended for “community building ... to connect students to each other” (Pierce and Gilles 2008: 40), opening channels for more constructive communication. Social talk is safe, non-assessed interaction between peers, or teacher and learners. From a relational perspective, this talk is vital in the affordance (van Lier 2000) it offers to learners and teachers. Positive social communication prepares the way for more critical interactions and lowers the threshold for collaborative talk. Lemke remarks that removing social talk as a legitimate form of classroom communication denies pupils an important context for trialling questions before addressing teachers (Lemke 1990: 75). Social talk can review earlier learning, prior assumptions, personal associations connected with a topic or trial collaborative interactions. For learners, social talk raises awareness, creating food for thought and a pool of common knowledge (Edwards and Mercer 1987). Furthermore, when learning a FL, the opportunity to become accustomed to the feel of the foreign tongue as an expression of oneself is an important step in language development. For teachers, social talk can provide a window into pupil understanding (Mortimer and Scott 2003) and experience. Once relationships are established, the amount of social talk can be reduced, however, the ability to establish thinking partnerships through talk is a vital skill throughout an educational career and beyond.

An anecdotal example or two can perhaps be offered here. On a visit to the kindergarten partner of our local CLIL community, I sat with the children as they drew pictures based on the illustrated story we had just heard. As one 5 year old boy sat drawing, I asked simple questions, such as “What is this?” whilst pointing at the drawing. The boy sat quietly for a moment, and then answered, “water”. The teacher was delighted. The word had not been formally taught to the child, nor used in the Fox and Chick story that morning, but it had been one of the words at the breakfast table. This small social exchange created an opportunity for authentic interaction in which the child could draw on his growing language repertoire from the organisational talk of his daily life.

When visiting the lower secondary school, just before a lesson began, I spoke with one of the pupils. She told me of her family and a friend she used sign language with. The pupil then surprised me by asking about my family. In our short conversation, this pupil was able to initiate as well as answer, to be creative and responsive. The exchange was pleasant, but not easy, as the pupil seemed to work hard to find the right words, using gestures and guesses as well as checking what was being asked. These few moments opened a window not only into how this pupil used language and strategies, but into her as a person. Indeed as I continued with my formal observations in the following science lesson, it appeared as though this pupil continued to draw on these strategies in the classroom.

Exploratory talk

Whereas social talk is committed to relating, exploratory talk is committed to learning, building understanding together. In exploratory talk pupils make personal understanding available to other group members, and as this talk goes beyond initial assumptions exploring alternative conceptualisations, pupils have the freedom to change their mind and to allow new understandings to grow. Exploratory talk has been described as hesitant, disjointed, thinking aloud (Barnes, 2008:5). This type of talk goes beyond the introduction of new words and concepts, beyond the labelling of phenomena to exploring how new concepts are understood². As Mortimer and Scott (2003: 19) note,

When students are first introduced to a new word or concept in a science class, they may quickly master the teacher's definition of the word, but this is not the end of the learning process, it is just the beginning.

Pupils become committed to the thinking partnership generated by exploratory talk as teachers provide tools, including phrases, to support interaction (see meta talk). With regard to CLIL, in exploratory talk pupils engage with words and phrases in the FL, whilst jointly constructing their understanding of new concepts.

As exploratory talk is intentionally supportive and participatory, the talk becomes not only an activity and a space for thinking, but also a resource for learners to work with: “‘what was said’ is now an objective product that can be explored further by the speaker and others” (Swain 2000:102). Accurate language use may not be present in the initial talk, but drawing on the collective resources of the group and teacher scaffolds, collaborative endeavours can lead to more appropriate instantiations of understanding.

Exploratory talk does not ‘just happen’ in classrooms, however, even in L1 contexts. Rojas-Drummond, Albarrán and Littleton (2008) as well as Pierce and Gilles (2008) report the value of exploratory talk in their interventionist research but both examples demonstrate how time is required to create a classroom culture in which exploratory talk can be utilised for interthinking. The ‘disruption’ CLIL brings to regular classroom activities (Moate 2011a) arguably creates an ideal opportunity for the introduction of exploratory talk as a new way of collaborating and using language between learners.

Critical talk

Critical talk could be described as the talk of ‘deconstruction’, talk based on ‘why’ and ‘how come’ questions. This talk-type applies to education on two levels. On one level critical talk is concerned with the deconstruction of pupil thinking and prior knowledge: What do I know about this topic? Why do I see the world this way? Chin’s (e.g. 2007) extensive exploration of teacher questions shows how important teacher questions are in the development of pupil thinking, but questioning should not remain a resource external to pupil thinking. Learners need to ask questions to actively participate in learning, that is, in the reconstruction of knowledge. Critical talk can be modelled by teachers

sharing their own approach to a topic, the questions they have, and how they form their questions. This kind of modelling would provide a rich resource for novice learners in terms of both substantive and language learning, particularly within the CLIL context as pupil learning is being mediated through an FL.

Critical talk is vital if learning is understood as a dialogue. Questions create spaces both between individuals and within individuals. This space allows for the adoption of the words of another (Bakhtin 1981) and recognises that a comment should give rise to a question or risk falling out of the dialogue (Bakhtin 1986: 168). If pupils have no questions to ask it perhaps suggests that for them 'learning' is following instructions, rather than growing in understanding. Over time critical talk would increasingly entwine with exploratory talk, however to become part of classroom practice, specific attention needs to be paid to critical talk, how to form questions, why form questions, the impact of questioning in opening up thinking.

Critical talk also suggests a more critical stance towards society and repositions learners in relation to the authority of a subject or established cultural knowledge. This does not suggest disregarding cultural knowledge built by experts over generations, but rather legitimates the role of novice participants in a democratic society.

Expert talk

Expert talk is authoritative talk, the formal voice of a subject. As Lemke states, "Every specialized kind of human activity, every subject area and field, has its own special language" (Lemke 1990: 130). This talk is present in the classroom as the accurate instantiate of expert knowledge. Pupils are required to learn this expert talk to demonstrate learning and (emerging) subject community membership (Lemke 1990, Mortimer and Scott 2003). Returning to the earlier example of the sun rising and setting from a scientific perspective this is a false conceptualisation of earth's relationship with the sun.

In research on a CLIL science lesson on reproduction Gajo (2007) draws attention to the insistence of a subject teacher in the use of appropriate terminology. What is interesting in this example is the way in which the science teacher insists on more exact language use as required by the subject paradigm, than the general language paradigm would require (Gajo 2007: 577). This is a feature of content learning present in both L1 and FL-mediated classrooms and all subject teachers face the challenge of acculturating students into subject-specific language.

In research in L2 classrooms, authoritatively presented talk that involved only narrow, highly contextualized definitions with few structural options severely limited learner capacity to appropriate this language (Robinson 2005). To appropriate expert talk learners need opportunities to transition from everyday associations to the 'scientific' story, with incremental definitions and graduated assistance (Robinson 2005, Rincke 2011). Different talk-types are important partners in this process. The prominence of expert talk can vary with the purpose of the activity, but both teacher and learners need to be aware that whilst different types of discussions are important for learning, expert-talk is the target for substantive learning. Expert talk is the voice of the expert community

in the classroom, and part of the educational process is to engage with and appropriate this voice. Placing expert-talk within a repertoire of talk-types for teaching-learning hopefully prevents this form of talk from either dominating classroom conversations or being conspicuous by its absence (Dalton-Puffer 2007b).

Meta talk

Meta talk is the skilful handling and awareness of talk as a tool used purposefully. On one hand meta talk regulates classroom activity. Interventionist research with exploratory talk, for example Mercer, Dawes, Wegerif and Sams (2004) suggest ground rules to engage the classroom culture as a scaffold for collaborative talk-based action. Mercer and Littleton (2007) report several examples of teachers explicitly encouraging pupils to use positive language to explore different ideas in a group, as well as brainstorming phrases with the class to resource group talk, for example, "What do you think?" and "What is your idea?"

Mercer and Littleton's (2007) data also shows how these phrases became part of pupil language repertoires as well as cultural and thinking repertoires. This appears to also be the case in one case-study (Mercer & Littleton 2007: 98-100) in which an L2 pupil transformed from being an apparently reluctant group member to an active participant. Through recognised ground rules how talk is to be used within the community of learners becomes part of a classroom community's shared language repertoire. Explicit focus on the way in which talk is being used as a tool helps to further resource the use of talk, increasing pupil awareness, understanding and sensitivity to talk (Pierce & Gilles 2008). Furthermore, meta talk goes beyond the immediate community of learners and their interactions.

Meta talk intends to make the expert talk more comprehensible by demystifying the structures often used in expert formulations. Lemke remarks that in addition to "thematic content, ... genres and activity structures," it is also the "subtle features of scientific style" (Lemke 1990: 130) that make scientific language challenging for pupils. Meta talk can open, for example, different linguistic devices "specific forms of discourse (formulas) ... directly relevant to subject paradigms" (Gajo 2007:572). These features include, for example, the use of the passive voice, specific metaphors ("the greenhouse effect") and discourse structures (Unsworth 2001). Lemke recommends providing pupils with opportunities to "engage in activities that will require them to first practice combining science terms in longer grammatical sentences, and then describe, compare, or discuss real objects or events using science terms in a flexible way appropriate to the situation" (Lemke 1990: 169). Through this focus-on-form embedded within the subject the aim is to concurrently develop correct language use and subject knowledge.

In addition to discourse features, meta talk aims to make assumptions behind expert formulations clear. Over emphasis of the authoritative expert voice can give an artificial impression of "truth" or the inaccessibility of a subject to non-experts (Lemke 1990). Focusing on the way in which understanding is expressed within a community can help to make the values of an expert community clear

and present a “truer” picture of cultural knowledge as a cultural product which develops over time through debate and argument. Understanding how experts use language is an important step for novice learners as they strive to gain ownership over specialized language.

Meta talk is supported by the use of language frames, teachers and texts explicitly modelling language, and attention drawn to the language being used and why. Collaboration through dialogic activity can highlight the linguistic instantiation of subject knowledge. Together learners can draw on joint resources to explore new understandings in appropriate language. The language and content demands of FL-mediation of CLIL may explain why more dialogic interaction has been identified in CLIL classrooms (Nikula 2007) and why CLIL learners have outperformed non-CLIL peers (Baetens-Beardsmore 2008).

Pedagogic Talk

Pedagogic talk goes beyond organisational talk in the classroom, although it no doubt draws on all of the above talk-types. It is in the pedagogic talk of the teacher, however, that bridges between everyday understanding and expert conceptualisation are built. In pedagogic talk teachers ‘translate’ back and forth between everyday expressions of knowledge and expert formulations (Lemke 1989, Scott 2008). The dynamics of this talk are highly significant as teachers mediate between the expert community and the classroom community, lowering the ‘entry threshold’ of the one, whilst raising the competence level of the other.

Pedagogic talk instantiates teachers’ pedagogic content knowledge (Shulman 1999) drawing on a repertoire of choice examples to engage pupils in a subject. Pedagogic talk, however, has to be sensitive to pupils’ growing understanding (Mercer 2000). Whilst a textbook can present subject knowledge in a ‘pupil-friendly’ manner, pedagogic talk is the joint construction of knowledge in real-time (Mercer 2000). Pedagogic talk humanises the voice of the expert community whilst resourcing the voice and activities of learners. It is also pedagogic talk that opens up the dialogic space for learners to begin their own explorations, to allow the ‘spark’ between participants (Voloshinov 1986:103) and guides the resolution between pupil constructions and expert formulations. This type of talk lies at the heart of teacher activity in education.

The seven talk-types presented here aim to capture the multi-layered, multi-voiced context of school learning environments. The model is based on a broad view of education, recognising the importance of establishing the teaching-learning culture of the classroom as well as mediating the relationship between novice-learners and expert-communities. The different talk-types represent both the dialectic and dialogic dynamics of education. In this sense, talk-types are fundamentally tied to teaching-learning activity. If the teacher is working to build a sense of trust in the classroom, social talk would be more prominent. If the teacher is introducing a new topic, critical talk may be apt to begin deconstructing assumptions before reconstructing a more ‘expert’ understanding. To introduce exploratory talk as a way of working, meta talk on the rules and useful phrases would be appropriate.

In practice these different talk-types overlap rather than neatly fit into assigned slots within lessons. In a lesson social talk may transform into critical

or exploratory talk, the focus of expert talk might change to the language “casing” of knowledge, in effect meta talk before returning to the expert understanding. Pedagogic talk may be punctuated by exploratory interactions as pupils take over the discussions. In these instances, it would be the teacher who decides what is appropriate and why, but rather than haphazardly transitioning from one activity to the next, the model hopes to provide a navigational tool for the ‘talkscape’ of the classroom. The relevance of this model to FL-mediated contexts is then considered along with the introduction of the key notion of the transitional dynamic.

The ‘transitional dynamic’ in CLIL

In addition to the different talk-types, this talk-based pedagogical model is based on the notion of a ‘transitional dynamic’ particularly relevant to the FL-mediation of CLIL. The transitional dynamic represents the idea that the aim of CLIL is to increase the amount of FL in teaching-learning contexts, whilst recognising that the transition into the FL occurs at different rates for different talk-types. This is represented in Figure 2 with the placement of arrows at different points along with L1 to FL continuum.

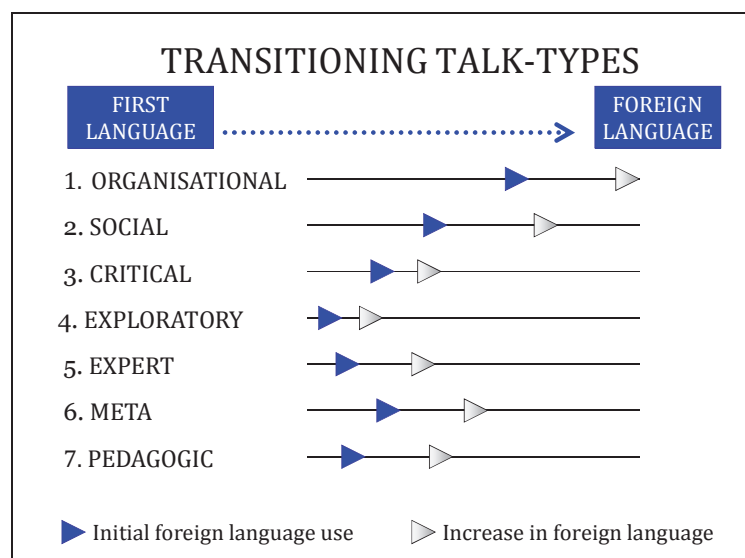


Figure 2. A talk-based pedagogical model for CLIL

The transitional dynamic embedded in a course of study implies that the amount of FL-use at the beginning of the CLIL course would be qualitatively and quantitatively increased by the end of the course (see Figure 2). In practice, the extent and pace of the transitional dynamic would be context-dependent as both

over-stretching and under-demanding FL-skills can cap student development (Baetens-Beardsmore 1999; Walsh 2002). Theoretically, this notion draws on Vygotsky's dynamic view of language learning (Vygotsky 1997) and argues that this dynamic view of language should be a key cultural feature of FL-mediated environments to enhance language development.

The arrow depictions in Figure 2 illustrate the transitional dynamic from the L1 to the FL. The differing positions of the arrows hope to convey the different transitional rates for different talk-types and contexts. The transitional rates are assumed to be embedded in the type of cultural knowledge instantiated in the language, whether more concrete or abstract conceptualisation. As bilingual competence develops, "learners are increasingly able to comprehend, condense, and store information in their weaker language" (John-Steiner 1985:365). Whether the transitional dynamic can accelerate as learner capacity increases is an area open for investigation.

The 'transitional dynamic' notion is an attempt to counter traditional classroom cultures which readily become identified 'as is' rather than 'as becoming'. The extensive international comparative study of educational cultures by Alexander (2000) reveals how readily in many contexts activities and identities become fixed, assumed ways of being rather than intentional and purposeful stages of being. Similarly, within classroom-based observations of the local CLIL community, once patterns are established, it is difficult to introduce change. For example, in the recordings of one science class in the early lessons pupils repeat under their breath new science terms as introduced by the teacher. Using these terms, however did not become an intentional part of the shared classroom culture, and in the later recordings pupils no longer voluntarily mouth or whisper new terms (Moate 2011b). These recordings indicate how easily an opportunity to build on learning repertoires can be lost if it does not become part of the intentional classroom culture.

A shared understanding of the transitional dynamic between teacher and learners would hopefully build the expectation of using the FL into classroom culture. As a cultural feature, the dynamic would become a tool available to teachers. On a more macro-level the progression from playing to studying through a FL can also be complemented by the notion of a transitional dynamic. Whilst early FL learning cannot fulfil the requirements of more advanced study, early FL experiences can provide an important foundation for more advanced language repertoires (see the discussion). The 'transitional dynamic' embedded in this progression is the onward motion and intentional change in the FL experience of pupils as they continue through the educational system.

This notion will hopefully prove to be useful in building the pedagogic repertoire of FL-mediating teachers working in complex, demanding settings. The transitional dynamic coupled with the talk-types of teaching-learning opens a new area for exploration in the development of CLIL and the role of talk in teaching-learning contexts.

Discussion: talk in practice

Who's talk when?

Clearly some of the talk-types are more readily found in the voice of the teacher than pupils or vice versa, although no talk-type should be exclusive to one partner. Teachers need to model critical and exploratory talk, as well as expert talk. Pupils need opportunities to use language in different ways for different purposes particularly when working through an FL. Allowing pupils to give instructions or to pose questions to teachers offers important opportunities for language development and participation. Furthermore the 'distribution' of talk-types at the beginning of a programme of study should not be the same as at the end. Whereas little expert talk can be used when introducing a new topic, by the end of the topic hopefully a significant amount of expert talk has been appropriated by pupils.

Which talk when?

Similarly, different subjects characterise language use in different ways. Whilst mathematics and the sciences often use more specialized, less flexible language other expert communities also use language in particular ways, whether to explore difference, identify similarities, argue for interpretations, and to share understanding. Some subjects may require more divergence in thinking (e.g. critical talk) to support problem-solving, other subjects may encourage more convergent thinking (e.g. exploratory talk) in the generation of a joint piece of writing or art. The appropriacy of the talk-type is deeply embedded in the context and purpose of an activity and in that sense is tightly tied into the nature of a disciplinary subject itself. The aim of the model is to promote awareness of the different talk-based options for teaching-learning activities for classroom-based CLIL practitioners as well as CLIL researchers.

Talk and educational levels

Classroom talk is also characterised by the educational level of the participants. Returning to the community's conceptualisation of FL-mediated education as progression from 'playing' to 'studying', social talk in play and daily routines prepare for more formal learning through English as pupils continue along the educational pathway. As pupils gain confidence in English, as critical and exploratory talk become part of their language repertoire, they are increasingly ready to face the challenges of subject and academic study. Social talk cannot be the key goal of an advanced physics course, however the ability to relate in an academic context, to build 'thinking partnerships' is highly important in advanced physics. In this sense, whilst the emphasis on social talk is reduced, this genre as a learning resource remains significant.

Similarly meta talk in the lower school classroom may more appropriately focus on 'ground rules' for talk than stylistic considerations of scientific discourse; however, recognising talk as tool may significantly benefit more

detailed explorations of expert talk as studies advance. Expert talk should be present in upper secondary school studying, however excluding social, critical and exploratory talk would be to the detriment of the whole teaching-learning community. A discernible change is arguably then desirable in the prominence of different talk-types at different stages of the educational pathway. It is, however, the mutual support of the different 'languages of education' that resources teaching and learning along the educational pathway.

Conclusion

The seven talk-types presented here aim to capture the multi-layered, multi-voiced context of school learning environments. The different talk-types hope to create space for the dialectic and dialogic dynamics of educational activity, creating space for both "the interpersonal/communicative and the cognitive/representational functions" of language (Hickmann 1985:239). In practice these different talk-types would overlap rather than neatly fit into assigned slots. Nevertheless, awareness of these different talk-types creates the possibility for both orchestrating educational talk and for supporting the bidirectional character of language in education as a resource both for the wider community and individual thinking.

The reduced repertoire of teachers and learners embarking on CLIL provides a positive opportunity to introduce new approaches to co-constructing knowledge in classrooms complementing the increased interaction already identified in CLIL contexts. In conclusion it is hoped that this reconceptualisation of talk in CLIL, and the broader implications for CLIL pedagogy, provides plenty of food for further discussion. In presenting the model here it is hoped that other CLIL communities and practitioners would be interested in trialling the model, with the view to further developing CLIL pedagogy.

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My warmest thanks go to the teacher community with whom I have the privilege to work – may the dialogues go on. My grateful thanks also go to the reviewers of this article for their insightful responses.

Endnotes

- 1) The maximum number of hours is 8 according to the National Curriculum requirements. All pupils participate in CLIL lessons in this particular primary school.
- 2) An interesting exploratory discussion between a teacher and learners discussing different understandings of 'up thrust' in a physics lesson is reported in Scott (2008)

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IV

A NARRATIVE ACCOUNT OF A TEACHER COMMUNITY

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A narrative account of a teacher community

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A narrative account of a teacher community

This narrative account draws on dialogic approaches to education to critically reflect on teachers' pedagogic thinking in community. The context for the study is a teacher community in Central Finland comprising teachers from pre-primary to upper secondary contexts. The shared interest of the community is in the foreign-language mediation of education. The data was collected over a one and a half year period and primarily consisted of teacher-produced notes from community sessions. This data was thematically analysed using a theory-driven approach. The key findings underline the value of mutual pedagogic relationships between teachers to support the development of critical pedagogic thinking. This research suggests the importance of mutual pedagogic relationships to support teacher development.

Keywords: narrative account; teacher development; dialogic theory; thematic analysis; mutual pedagogic relationship

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1 INTRODUCTION

This narrative account is based on a teacher community in Central Finland. The community comprises teachers from each level of pre-tertiary education and their shared interest is in the foreign language (FL)-mediation of education. The “story” of the community is presented here as a narrative to avoid the objectification of the participants (Bakhtin, 1993). The teacher-colleagues involved in this research were – and continue to be – welcome, voluntary participants in the community. No compensation in the form of extra pay or study credits is offered. Without willing teacher participation, there would be no community. A narrative approach has been adopted to retain the different voices of the participants and the developing voice of the community. It is also hoped that a narrative account evokes the nature of the community (Heikkinen, Huttunen and Syrjälä 2007) and that the teacher-participants recognise themselves in the text. Nevertheless, it was through the writing of this narrative that the theorisation of the teacher community took place (van Manen, 1990).

The shared interest of the community is in FL-mediated education. This approach was introduced in Finland in the early 1990s, and is known as CLIL – Content and Language Integrated Learning. CLIL is a dual-focussed approach that involves the teaching of a school subject, whether history, art or science, through a FL. The aim of this approach is to enrich FL learning without having to increase the number of hours exclusively assigned to the FL in the school timetable. There has been interest in CLIL at a European level (EU 2005; Euridice 2006) and at grassroots level (Nikula 2010, 105). In Finland as elsewhere, however, little support from the educational leadership since the mid-1990s has resulted in a gap between teacher efforts and the potential for coordinated growth (Lehti, Järvinen and Salmela-Salmi 2006). The teacher community presented in this paper is one attempt to bridge this gap.

Introducing the teacher community

The four community partners have worked with CLIL for a number of years and one partner recently celebrated 20 years of CLIL. Despite this long history, however, until three years ago there was little collaboration between the teachers within individual schools and even less collaboration between the schools. A chance encounter between the research-author and two local teachers at a CLIL conference² prompted the idea that perhaps some form of coordinated activity could be developed. The two teachers expressed dismay at the discontinuity of CLIL between the lower and upper comprehensive schools, and the teachers feared that their hard work in the lower comprehensive school

² This was the CLIL Fusion Conference held in Tallinn, October 2008

was wasted. As the upper comprehensive school and the upper secondary school in the locality were familiar to the research-author through staff development courses, the idea of coordinating an initial meeting seemed reasonable. Following the conference, the author sought permission from the head-teachers, the head of the local authority, and support from two locally-based CLIL experts. The first meeting was called in March 2009.

1.1.1 Teacher community partners

The community partners include: a kindergarten/preschool (4-6 early education teachers, children 3-6 years), a lower comprehensive school (8-12 class teachers, pupils 7-13), an upper comprehensive school (3-6 subject teachers, pupils 13-16), an upper secondary school (1-4 subject teachers, pupils 16-19) and a university-based educational researcher. The number of participants per session varies, but each partner was represented in each community meeting between March 2009 and October 2010. The data collection section below provides a more detailed overview of the community sessions.

It is interesting that within local educational contexts, although pupils commonly complete their education by progressively moving through the local schools, local teachers from different educational stages rarely meet. It is perhaps assumed that national curricula augment the different stages of pre-tertiary education together or that the range of difference between teachers within one school sufficiently challenges notions of teacher community (Grossman, Wineburg and Woolworth 2001). The first meeting of the teacher community in which each level of pre-tertiary education was represented had no precedent within the locality.

1.1.2 Community activities

Since March 2009 the community has met twice a semester, rotating meetings between the premises of different partners. The meetings start with coffee, a formal welcome and the session outline. Once the session aims are shared (see Table 1) and a short orientation to the session theme has been provided, the teacher-participants divide into small groups for discussion. These discussion groups include a mix of teachers from the different partners and generally during the discussions one teacher within each group notes down the main points that are raised. After the group discussions, one large group is again formed and key points from the discussion are brought to the attention of the whole community.

The pattern for the meetings was initiated in the first session when it was agreed that the notes from individual discussion groups would be collated in order to write a report for the head of the local authority. The aim of the report was to share the benefits and challenges of CLIL as experienced by these teachers. This report was distributed first to the teachers for comment, before being sent on. Although a report was not produced after each meeting, the teacher-participants continued to keep notes and these were saved by the research-author. Through

these activities a record of community thinking and the pedagogic relationships developing between the teachers in the community was created.

The research-author's role has been to choose the session themes, often following informal discussions with teachers as to what would be useful or interesting. It is always assumed that the teachers will be able to offer a broader understanding of the theme, and that the participants' pedagogic experience and understanding will add depth and concrete examples to discussions. The sessions also provide a forum for visiting teachers and students, a place for teachers to share school-based developments, to announce future plans and to share experiences from in-service education days and conference visits. Finding the right time for the meetings is never easy, nor can each teacher participate to the same degree each time. The following section outlines the theoretical framework used to conceptualise the teacher community. This is followed by the section outlining the data collection approach and thematic analysis of the data.

Theorising teacher community

The teacher-participants of this community represent a variety of pedagogic thinking in terms of the age of learners they teach, their institutional setting, the number of years of teaching experience and disciplinary orientations. The community, therefore, goes beyond the common 'boundaries' of teacher development communities, often comprising colleagues from one school, one curriculum area (e.g. language arts or science teachers), or a particular stage of professional development (e.g. novice teachers). Research into and on teacher communities often draws on Communities of Practice (CoP) (Lave and Wenger 1991) literature, emphasising legitimate peripheral participation as expertise develops. This approach is useful in that it legitimates the growth of expertise over time in conjunction with the expert community and recognises the situated nature of expertise (Borko 2004).

Development within a community of practice, however, usually entails growth into the existing structures of a specific community. Lave and Wenger (1991) state that CoP are not only interested in maintaining established cultural practice, however, the main focus of this approach appears to be acculturation into recognised expertise. This is problematic as it implies that the transformative process from legitimate to full participation has a recognisable point of completion. This implies that once full participation is achieved the pedagogic relationship between novice and expert ends. In effect, the existing expertise of the community is used as a finalising measure rather than the beginning of something new.

This sociocultural approach has supported the identification and validation of contextualised expertise, however, a sense of what *could be* is needed to keep communities alive (Bakhtin, 1990). From an action research perspective, "the development of ... a critical theory of education must be related intrinsically to ... professional development ... teachers themselves build

educational theory through critical reflection on their own practice" (Carr and Kemmis 1986, 41). If the pedagogic relationship between teachers ends once expertise is achieved, the potential for on-going professional development appears to be limited. This paper suggests that teacher community involves participants meeting across differences and similarities to critically reflect and discuss. As such, the relationships between teachers can take on a new pedagogical quality and the critical educational theory of the community can develop.

Defining features of pedagogical relationships

Van Manen portrays the pedagogical relationship between teachers and pupils as a relationship premised on the simultaneous value of "being and becoming" (ibid. 1991, 67). This pedagogic relationship validates the learner in who s/he is now as well as being oriented towards who s/he will become. At the heart of this pedagogic relationship is the idea of growth; growth which can neither be determined nor denied by teachers. This growth is, however, fundamentally affected by teacher choices, decisions and actions whether in word or deed. Inherent within this pedagogic relationship therefore is a sense of responsibility for and vested interest in the other.

A similar notion exists within Bakhtinian dialogic theory. Bakhtin writes of the need to "be open for myself", that who I am now is not the sum total of all I will be, I remain "yet-to-be" (Bakhtin 1990, 13). This openness or potentiality is given special emphasis within dialogic theory. How we view one another and respond to one another is particularly important. If you decide that there is nothing more that I can contribute, then that is the end of life, there is nothing left to say (Bakhtin 1990, 12-13). In this sense, we are morally responsible to each other and ourselves, we are called to acknowledge and validate the potential of others as well as ourselves (Bakhtin 1991, 37). Moreover, the perspective from which we view each other and the world is of great significance. As my view of me always comes from the inside of me, it is significantly different to the view you have of me from the outside. You can see me and the horizon behind me, just as I can see you from the outside and the horizon behind you (Hicks 2000; Sullivan and McCarthy 2004). From this standpoint we both have unique perspectives and something to share, to dialogically enrich our mutual understanding.

From a dialogic perspective, for teacher professionals it is often the communities within which we find ourselves that offer the 'pedagogically oriented' relationships to enrich our being and becoming. In other terms, "meaningful engagements between individuals" (Hicks 2000, 230), the answerability of one individual to another (Bakhtin 1990, 1993), supports on-going development in collective and individual terms. Discussions with colleagues have the potential of "enriching the other with an outside perspective" (Hicks 2000, 231). From this perspective, teachers of different

subjects, working with pupils of different ages and drawing on different pedagogical beliefs have a lot to offer one another. These differences suggest a rich dialogic space can exist between teachers. Dialogic space, created by the tension between different perspectives (Wegerif 2007, 4), offers an arena for encountering, exploring and even generating different understandings. This dialogic space can be understood as a positive opportunity to revisit and enrich the understanding of a teacher community collectively or for individual teachers.

Research questions

The aim of this research was to explore whether the experiences of this teacher community supported the notion of being and becoming as an apt description of the relationship between teachers and as a way to enrich critical theories of education as a form of teacher development. This exploration was framed by two key questions:

- 1) How is pedagogic thinking expressed within community discussions?
- 2) How does the notion of community develop across the sessions?

Data collection and analysis

The discussion notes, the session slides and planning notes provide a multi-voiced or polyphonic record of the community discussions. That is, whilst the community as a whole met around a question in each session, the notes indicate that individual voices were still heard and acknowledged. The session notes include comments that are sometimes relevant to only one partner, or one teacher's experience, and these comments are still included in the notes, within the community voice. Indeed, it is this layering of individual comments which creates the polyphonic voice (Bakhtin 1981; Hicks 2000, 236).

This data does not offer enough detailed information to map the micro-process of knowledge construction (Mercer 2004). However, the notes do provide a jointly constructed voice over a significant period of time (March 2009-October 2010). In addition the teachers were happy to have their views presented in this format. The anonymity of individual voices within the public voice maintains an important ethical dimension of the community and sense of community. The analysis of the notes and the resulting narrative have been shared with the community to check the validity of what is said and to give the teachers the opportunity to comment. Permission has also been explicitly sought from the community to share this narrative.

The table below outlines the session timetables, themes and background literature which guided the planning of the sessions. The light grey boxes are

included as contextual information, but no analysis was carried out on these sessions.

TABLE 1. Session overviews

Session number, date & title	Session themes:	Background literature:
1: Launching the partnership	The fruits & benefits of CLIL, the interests & needs of CLIL teachers, building together – outlining future hopes	CLIL across Europe today presentation (guest presentation) An overview of CLIL research interests (guest presentation)
2: Formal presentations	Formal presentation of different partners as a number of international MEd students from the university were present	-
PR planning without teachers	Working with the Cascade metaphor	-
Working group 4 th November 2009	CLIL from the perspectives of different partners – working towards a joint vision	-
3: The Vision for our Educational Pathway, 24 th Nov 2009	Opportunity for teachers to comment the educational pathway over coffee Engagement with language over different stages, support required by teachers and pupils, how to maintain openness and continuity	Mapping FL-learning in [Finnish] comprehensive and high schools, Lehti, Järvinen, & Suomela-Salmi (2006) Euridice CLIL report (2006)
4: Classroom culture and interaction pt.1, 16 th March 2010	To begin to explore classroom cultures and interaction, to consider the wider school culture beyond what is said	Culture and Pedagogy, Alexander (2000) Student beliefs articles, Kinchin (2004, 2005)
5: Classroom culture and interaction pt.2 and review, 5 th May 2010	Review of sessions so far: what has been achieved? What has been the role of the community? Future hopes?	CLIL classroom interaction: guest professor's extracts
6: The nature of education, 6 th Oct 2010	Orientation > purpose for meetings and community growth Reflective discussions: - How do we picture learning across the educational spectrum? - How do we picture learning in CLIL?	Zone of Proximal Development, Vygotsky (1970) Intermental Development Zone from Words and Minds, Mercer (2000) Good talk about good teaching, Palmer (1993)

The data comprised the chronologically ordered, typed-up session notes. The notes from groups within each session were coded with a session number and group number, for example 5:2 is session five, group two. The notes from whole group discussions use only the session number. The dataset was arranged into a

table format with five columns: the session title and date, session themes, a summary of each session's notes. The two final columns included each reference to pedagogic thinking and the community. Preparing the data in this way provided a map of the session topics both individually and collectively, making the relationships between the different sessions more easily traceable. The references to pedagogic thinking or to the sense of community came in the form of both questions and statements.

Using key questions to orient the data-handling suggests a theory-driven approach to the analysis (Braun and Clarke 2006). The analysis was intended to identify what kind of pedagogic thinking was present in the notes at different stages of community activity and whether a sense of community, that is belonging or identifying with other participants, was present within the notes. This led to the further question as to whether the development of pedagogic thinking was reflected in and related to the growth of the community. This question is considered in the discussion section. As all data-analysis is approached through a conceptual lens (Braun and Clarke 2006; Carr and Kemmis 1986) it is hoped that by making the approach to this thematic analysis clear maintains the integrity of this narrative account.

Throughout the analytical process the research-author was concerned that personal-professional involvement with the community might create a rose-tinted lens through which the data was viewed. This concern was then replaced by the concern that session themes would appear inadequate and indeed the amount of similarity between the written themes was a surprise, perhaps reflecting that the planning had primarily been session-by-session, rather than a long-term programme. However, whilst compiling the dataset, recorded notes from a planning session with a CLIL-expert prior to the working group meeting were found. In the plans forwarded to the teacher volunteers, the metaphor of water from the Cascade name of the community is used to construct possible identities for the different community partners. In the final descriptions, however, the water metaphor is nowhere to be seen. The published descriptions were rather born from the practice and pedagogic thinking of each representative, agreed with the individual partner-groups, checked within the whole community and finally published Moate 2011a. This incident indicates the freedom of the teachers to contribute and create independent of any pre-planning.

Results: Tracing the development of pedagogic thinking and community

To maintain the sense of historical continuity (Heikkinen et al. 2007), the results are presented in chronological order. A summary of each session is provided before the particular ways in which pedagogic thinking is conceptualised and how the development of community is indicated within the notes of each

session. The discussion section addresses the way in which the development of pedagogic thinking relates to the development of the community.

TABLE 2: Results overview

SESSION	HOW IS PEDAGOGIC THINKING EXPRESSED?	HOW IS THE NOTION OF COMMUNITY UNDERSTOOD?
1	In immediate practical-material concerns: course arrangements, resource provision and methodological training. Problematic learner characterisations expressed as shared questions.	Desire to learn from each other and to network within immediate community and beyond. Context for recognition and validation. General hopes seemingly contradict concerns of particular partners. Availability of resources.
Working gp	Aims and activities at different points along a united educational pathway: 'playing', 'being', 'learning' and 'studying' through English. Shared features (e.g. confidence-building) provide continuity. Transitional links between stages adds purpose.	Shared expertise, purposeful and resourceful. Anticipates positive accumulation of investments. Benefits of CLIL with regard to learning recognised across community. Future questions recognise the potential of shared resources, shared stories, and further growth. Community neither limited to time or place.
3	Engagement with FL-learning increasingly conscious, requires encouragement and resources, benefits from collaborative endeavours, rewarding.	Community continuity includes external and internal support, crossing boundaries to invite pupils and parents inside, engaging with others with an open attitude.
4	Teacher perceptions of pupil perspective: learning external to pupils, directed activity with assigned tasks requiring assessment. School work is teacher-led, completed in silence. Completion of a task = learning.	The relationship between educational partners and institutional culture is complex. Even when institutional divisions of schools are overcome, institutional culture mediates shared perceptions of pupil experiences.
5	Pedagogic thinking in addition to methodological-practical concern is goal-oriented activity requiring ideological and pedagogical understanding.	Gaining understanding through networking and discussion increases motivation, visibility and awareness of potential growth. Community is belonging and valued relations.
6	Learning is relational and involves inherent risks. Education is more than the continuity of discrete stages, rather an integrated whole with an internal transitional dynamic. Significant questions need to be raised to further pedagogic activity.	Questions affirm the open-endedness of the community and future possibility. Critical understanding develops in discussions across respective differences. Essential questions around what, why and how from the collective heart of the community.

Session 1: March 2009

In session one the teachers shared CLIL experiences in mixed groups with detailed notes made by one or more group members. The first discussions focussed on the benefits of CLIL and the teachers' investment in this innovation. The teachers then shared the challenges they had experienced, before looking towards hopes for the future. These notes are characterised by a series of dichotomies or apparent contradictions. For example, whilst the novelty of CLIL is positive, it "can feel isolating" (1:1). The notes reveal confidence in understanding and fear of inadequacy, "Are my language skills good enough?" (1:4). CLIL is "rewarding" (1:2), stimulating (1:3), "challenging" (1:1) and "hard work" (1:2). CLIL is seen to offer a form of professional development "using your own competence and imagination" (1:3), yet lacking "support from the city - [they don't] realise that this is worth investing in" (1:1). The need for resources to be provided by the educational authorities are repeatedly emphasised, e.g. "training costs" (1:4), but there is also awareness that existing resources are not fully used "we spend surplus or too much energy doing the same things every spring" (1:4).

Session 1: Pedagogic thinking

The notes from session 1 emphasize immediate practical and material concerns: the arrangement of courses, "How to 'integrate' CLIL in the curriculum (to find a set place)?" (1:2), how to find "time for material delivery sharing and updating it" (1:3), and where to find resources and methodological training. Although CLIL adds an international dimension to the curriculum providing a deeper view on subjects "blending the different borders" (1:4), the teachers have other concerns. Questions and conundrums remain: "if the students know you know Finnish, they will reply in Finnish not in English" (1:1), "where to begin if they don't know Finnish?" (1:1) and how to "support the children's motivation even over puberty?" (1:3)

These practical-material expressions of pedagogic thinking perhaps underline the practical nature of teaching regardless of the age of learners or subject. Sharing these concerns during the first session appears to establish "safe" common ground, with no challenges to what is done or why. The references to the educational authorities are interesting as the participants look to the authorities for resources as well as for affirmation of the ideological value of their work. This perhaps reflects the institutional framing of teaching and the implicit limitations on teachers if innovation is not sanctioned from "above". Nevertheless, the questions in the notes suggest an open-ended orientation to the future.

1.1.3 Session 1: development of community.

In terms of community development the desire to learn from each other is clearly stated, "Getting to know each other → learning from each other → concrete things like listening to each other's lessons" (1:3). The possibility of networking in different directions is highlighted (1:1, 1:2, 1:4, 1:5), informing and including parents (1:1, 1:3), getting recognition from officials (1:2, 1:4, 1:5), and engaging with CLIL activities beyond the local community (1:1, 1:4). Alongside these general hopes are comments concerning the particular circumstances of individual partner schools, e.g. the development of a recognised curriculum in one school (1:3), or a native speaker position in the pre-primary partner (1:4). As the partners share these hopes with one another, they begin to acknowledge each other, perhaps providing some of the recognition they seek. Overall, however, these comments emphasize the preliminary nature of the community in this first session particularly reflected in the emphasis of material need. Nevertheless, potential areas for development are also included in the notes, such as capitalising on the international classes as a resource to support CLIL (1:4) and inviting parents to participate (1:3).

Session 2: October 2009

On the day of the second session the host school was visited by a group of international MEd students. To accommodate the visitors each partner school introduced themselves and the role of CLIL within their context. This session was less interactive and no notes were taken. In retrospect this was a useful session for more formally presenting the partners to each other once initial contact had been made. An important outcome from this session was to agree who would represent each partner in a working group to produce the web pages of the community. The idea of the working group built on a suggestion from the first session to increase the visibility of CLIL within the locality and between the partners (1:4, 1:5).

1.1.4 Working group meeting: Early November 2009

This meeting was an important step in the development of the community. The group members were volunteers representing each partner and the research-author. The resulting educational pathway (Figure 1) was published on the community website providing a public 'face' for the community. During this discussion, the research-author wrote notes on the chalkboard, adding to them throughout the meeting. The notes were photographed and typed up immediately following the meeting. The meeting itself lasted from 9am until 2.30pm. The working group (WG) discussion focussed on *how*, *what* and *why* CLIL was implemented in the different classroom contexts and provided a basis for the teacher community.

1.1.5 Working group: pedagogic thinking

Discussing *how* CLIL was implemented provided an alternative perspective on the conceptualisation of pedagogic thinking within and between the partners. The discussion first focussed on the aims and activities of each partner. The pre-primary stage was described as ‘playing’ in English. This description recognises ‘playing’ as a key feature in child development supported through, for example, songs, rhymes, stories and games. Furthermore, using the FL when carrying out routine activities was intended to create a non-threatening, natural environment for learning. This play-oriented, gentle approach to the FL is intended to make it easier for children to encounter a FL, to build on children’s natural enthusiasm and to make an accessible ‘FL-place’ for children to enter physically, socially and cognitively. In the lower comprehensive school CLIL was designated as ‘being’ in English. School routines and curricular topics provided natural contexts for encounters with English as a learning tool. The regular engagement with the FL is hoped to build confidence, learner identity and to expand the “range and depth of exposure” (WG notes). In this way CLIL is a natural, consistent ‘way of being’ within the school between teachers and pupils.

In the upper comprehensive school CLIL focuses more specifically on ‘learning’ through English. At this stage, the use of the FL is more intentional and focussed to support the formal learning of subjects through a FL. As the move from lower to upper comprehensive school is demanding, a transition within the school is included in the description. When pupils begin subject studies it is suggested that only the practical side of subjects are handled through English, however by grade 9 (age 15) the aim is to also include the theory side of subjects as well. Vocabulary development and confidence-building are still listed as key features of CLIL each stage of school, however, in upper comprehensive school the sense of purposeful, intentional activity through the FL is far greater. The educational pathway culminates with ‘Studying’ through English in the upper secondary school (16-19 years). At this point the emphasis on intentional, participatory activity is even greater with pupils expected to be able to think critically and engage in independent study tasks through English. To study through English as a FL not only requires confidence and a broad vocabulary, but also academic study and language skills.

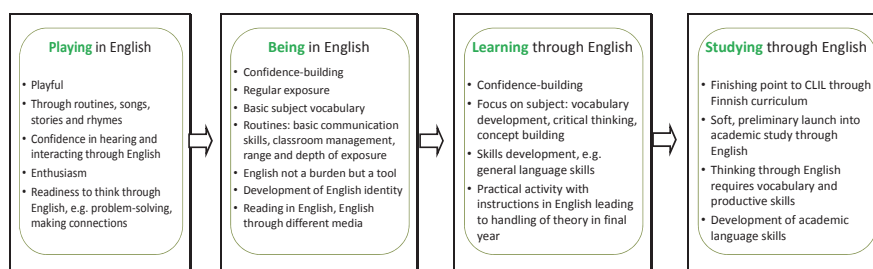


FIGURE 1: A CLIL-based educational pathway

These designated stages of the educational pathway recognise the different approaches of the partners and provides insight into the teachers' pedagogic thinking. The shared features include: confidence building, thinking through English, vocabulary development, and fostering a positive relationship with English (WG notes). These features provide continuity through the different stages and complement the overall notion of an educational pathway. As the vocabulary development changes from basic terms to academic terms, or the pupils' relationship with English becomes increasingly active, a sense of development is conveyed. Sequencing these four along a pathway validates each stage and creates a sense of cumulation from one stage to the next reflecting the notion of being and becoming in the shared pathway of the partners.

Working group: development of community

Whereas the educational pathway allows for different orientations to learning, the discussions around what and why did not emphasize difference. 'What is the community?' was described as "shared expertise," "sense of purpose" and "building on local resources" (WG notes). These ideals reflect the optimistic beginning of the community and these teachers were perhaps the most committed community members. The notes from *why* a CLIL continuum provide further insight into the teachers' perceptions. The group suggested that this builds on early skills, "building on innate capacity and confidence, attitude of young children, strengthening ... seeds sown early on" (WG notes). The positive attitude towards FL-learning and different cultures encouraged in CLIL was felt to positively contribute across the whole educational community as "open-mindedness to difference and diversity" (WG notes). The cross-community learning benefits included pupils having to focus, needing to ask questions and the creation of a different learning atmosphere.

The session ended with "interesting" questions: "How many students come through the system? What stories can we collect from the students (positive and negative)? How can students be supported as they progress through and enter into the system? Is the development of a [local] curriculum possible?" The notes also add that ideals and guidelines would be useful and that developing a CLIL curriculum would "support the development of materials and resources, e.g. handbook for students, parents and teachers". These notes recognise the value of shared resources, shared stories, and growth.

Session 3: Late November 2009

Over coffee in the third session, the 'Vision for our Educational Pathway' was printed and laid out on tables with pencils for comments and editions. The individual descriptions had previously been shared with the respective partners. Two comments were added: "Not forgetting playing" was added to the lower comprehensive level as a direct link from the pre-primary partner,

and “not forgetting playing and being” was added to the upper comprehensive level. These two additions are interesting as they widen the scope of the individual partners and simultaneously strengthen the continuity between the partners. Moreover, these additions imply an enriched understanding of the pedagogical basis for the overall pathway and overstep institutional boundaries between partners. The main discussion was based around the ways in which learners engage with FL learning at different stages, the kind of support teachers and learners require, and how to maintain openness and continuity across the pathway.

Session 3: pedagogic thinking

Three mixed groups depicted engagement with FL-learning in similar ways: “increasingly conscious engagement with and use of language with age” (3:1), “need for encouragement, possibility to resource each other” (3:2) and “tolerance →rewarding →challenge → success →liberation” (3:3). Each depiction compliments the notion of an educational pathway, in terms of increasingly active involvement for learning to take place and maintaining a sense of continuity between learners. The sequential experience of FL-learning perhaps also reflects the teachers’ relationship with English as a FL (Moate 2011b).

Session 3: development of community

The developing notion of community within the group is reflected in the suggestions for support required by teachers. Further education (language and methodology) and material support are still noted, however, peer feedback and encouragement are more prominent, “enhanced cooperation ... teams, new teachers are first integrated with the more experienced” (3:1) and “contact between subject and language teachers [as well as] contact with other schools”(3:2) . These notes indicate the value recognised within the community partnerships and suggest concrete ways to realise teacher support. “Peer support” (3:3) and “emphasized support for weaker students” (3:1) also feature in the support pupils require. This possibly suggests that as the community bonds between the teachers strengthen, so this becomes part of the lens through which teachers view pupils.

The notes on maintaining openness and continuity link with both pedagogic thinking and community. One group suggested CLIL groupings not based on ability, rather “based on motivation and willingness” (3:1). In some ways this acknowledges and validates difference in the attitudes of learners. Perhaps more significant is the suggestion of “meta-conversations” (3:1) with pupils inviting pupils into the discussion as to why CLIL is part of their school life and welcoming parents to observe CLIL lessons (3:2). These notes indicate an explicit desire to cross boundaries and an increasingly open attitude to engage with others. As such these findings suggest a more active role being taken by the teachers.

Session 4: March 2010

Session four took a different approach with classroom interaction and culture framing the discussions and a particular focus on pupil experiences. The physical layout of classrooms opened the discussions, but the small group notes record teacher-perceptions of how pupils understand 'work', 'teaching', 'learning', 'homework' and 'revision'.

Session 4: pedagogic thinking

The picture from these discussions is very different from the earlier conceptualisations of learning. Work is defined as teacher-led activity, the completion of assigned tasks often in silence. The notes suggest pupils disassociate work from fun, work is "bothersome" (4:3). Learning similarly defined as something external to pupils, rather than belonging to pupils: "memorising" (4:3), "searching for the right answers" (4:2), and expecting assessment to measure learning (4:1, 4:3). One note draws attention to special educational needs pupils - for these pupils 'learning' is "appearing to participate", "not being different" (4:1) although school tasks are difficult. Teaching in the notes was often equated with talk from the pupil perspective: "Blah, blah, blah" (4:1), "a lot of talking" (4:4). Similarly homework and revision were described as regularly assigned activities that require a lot of reading and that the completion of such tasks understood as "learning" (4:3). One note (4:4) mentions how in the first grade pupils are eager for homework, whereas sixth grade pupils are less enthusiastic even challenging the teachers as to "why?" (4:2) homework is given. From the teacher-view, pupils perceive learning as directed activity. The perceived lack of agency on the part of the pupils perhaps indicates how significant meta-conversations (see session 3) with pupils might be. Of course, these were teacher impressions' of pupil views, but the gap between the increased agency of the teacher community and the passive framing of pupils is striking.

Session 4: development of community

As in the earlier session, the teachers discussed in mixed groups, however, the notes indicate little difference between subjects or pupil age. Interestingly the community discussions appear to provide the teachers with an opportunity to step beyond institutionally-framed roles. In contrast the pupils are being "held" within institutionally-framed roles going through the motions of schooling, as this is what is expected of them. This perhaps provides a broader picture of the institutional culture within which the teachers themselves are placed with teachers' pedagogic agency all too easily being over-written by institutional norms.

Session 5: May 2010

This session, concluding a school year, continued the theme of classroom interaction and included a review of community activities. A locally-based CLIL expert presented some data from CLIL classroom recordings and the teachers responded with their own observations. The group notes, however, come from the review.

Session 5: pedagogic thinking

In mixed groups the teacher-participants shared what had been achieved so far and what hopes remained. The notes list different types of achievements. Practical achievements include the start of curriculum planning (5:1), permission for a permanent English native speaker post (5:2), the launch of new CLIL courses (5:4) and the involvement of head teachers (5:4). Theoretically the teachers noted a better understanding of the pedagogic basis of CLIL (5:1) and a sense of the bigger picture (5:3). In these notes the pedagogic thinking is far greater than methodological-practical concerns. The webpage provided a description and the participants felt that “through discussion [we have] better understanding of the pedagogical basis” but still “common goals could be formulated for the continuum of CLIL teaching” (5:1). Ideological and pedagogic understanding is now used with reference to the teachers themselves, rather than outside authorities.

Session 5: development of community

With regard to the community the notes include “better understanding of the different ‘agents’” (5:1) through “networking” (5:1), “we’re able to discuss the different ... perspectives” (5:2), “we’ve proved that cooperation is possible and needed” (5:3) leading to increased motivation (5:2) and the desire to expand (5:1, 5:4) and deepen (5:2, 5:4) the community. The activities were felt to have increased visibility (5:2), acknowledged problems and provided possible solutions (5:4).

Having a bigger picture of classroom practice and valuing engagement with others go to the heart of community. These comments contain a sense of belonging and confident relations with different partners. The hopes for the future included a coordinator of the community (5:1), purposeful development of CLIL teaching with possibilities to expand (5:1, 5:4), the formulation of common goals (5:1), deepening cooperation, developing methodology together (5:3), as well as receiving more financial resources (5:3). These comments are positive acknowledgements of potential growth and whilst resources are still desired, there is no longer the sense that the partners are beholden to the educational authorities.

Session 6: October 2010

Session 6 concentrated on how learning is pictured across the educational spectrum, particularly in CLIL. The orientation task was sharing personal metaphors for teaching and the research-author shared why she had become a teacher. The mixed group discussions then involved the teachers sharing from their own classroom contexts what learning means. This task potentially divided the participants along institutional lines – education for young pupils versus education for older students. It is perhaps a sign of how the community had grown that this was not the outcome of the discussions. These discussions took place in a very pleasant, old wooden building on the university campus and instead of group notes, a flipchart was used to record comments when the whole group reconvened with the research-author acting as scribe.

Session 6: pedagogic thinking

On this occasion learning was explicitly defined as: “human contact, a safe environment, no fear of mistakes, the courage to take risks, meaningful communication and authenticity” (6). These were voiced as the cornerstones of teaching and learning encounters. The groups also discussed how learning within pre-primary/lower comprehensive school contexts related to learning in the upper years. In the whole group discussion the following diagram (Figure 2) was shared with the wider group.

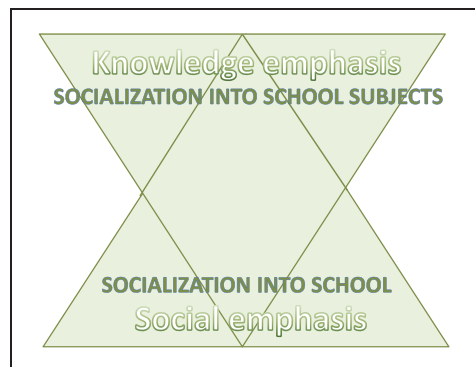


Figure 2 The relationship between early years and upper education.

The lower triangle represents education in the early years of schooling when the focus is on introducing children to the school environment. Here children are “raised,” taught how to behave, what to expect, what is expected of them, how to learn and to participate in school. Whilst different subjects are part of the early years’ curriculum, it is only a minor part of the overall education process. The emphasis on subject learning increases over time, however, which is what the upper triangle is intended to represent and at a certain point – usually the start of upper comprehensive school – the balance shifts from

socialisation into general educational culture to socialisation into school subjects. In Finland it is common for subject teachers to teach from the start of the upper comprehensive school at age 13, whereas class teachers are present in the lower comprehensive school. This visualisation implies, however, that the socialisation into educational culture does not disappear, although the balance changes. The visualisation aims to imply that even learners in upper secondary school (16-19 year olds) still need support with study skills and academic learning.

The resulting picture goes beyond discrete stages of the educational pathway to an integrated whole. This overview validates and enriches the different perspectives. The picture addresses both the balance between socialisation into educational culture and socialisation into school subjects, but also maintains the sense of a transition (indicated by the arrow) from one to the other. In this visualisation the 'being and becoming' characterisation of education is present. The visual did not conclude the session, however, but led to a number of significant questions: "What is the role of the mother tongue in CLIL?" "Is the mother tongue a help, hindrance or safety net?" "How can participation be shared and enhanced for pupils?" and, "How can pupil thinking be enhanced through a FL?" (6). These questions are significant for a number of reasons and relevant to the whole CLIL community. As an expanding innovation CLIL needs to address questions that lie at the heart of pedagogic activity (Coyle, 2008).

Session 6: development of community

With regard to the sense of community, however, the questions affirm the open-endedness of the community and the possibility of future growth. This visualisation and the questions - that is, critical understanding - are born from the shared discussions between the different partners. In these discussions the community members appeared to meet each other across their respective differences. The interests and concerns go far beyond material questions, to fundamental questions about what they are doing, why and how.

Discussion: The development of pedagogic thinking and community

In this narrative account the community's pedagogic thinking appears as layers. The different discussions enrich the initial expressions as defined in immediate practical- material concerns to the development of a shared educational pathway. As the community strove to validate difference between partners, the shared educational pathway became an integrated whole, fundamentally bound together yet still with space for different interests and priorities. The development of the community itself is intrinsically rooted in these layers. Whilst the material needs and challenges allowed initial contact to be made between the partners, it was only as the key features of the different partners

were validated that a deeper sense of community developed. Within the community differences were not removed or by-passed, but they were acknowledged and became resources for enriched, shared understanding.

During the analysis of the data separating pedagogic thinking from the sense of community became increasingly artificial. Emerson comments on Bakhtin's perception of the world, "Each of us is incomplete alone, but we should rejoice in the incompleteness. It makes others more necessary to us, and it makes our tolerance of them more attractive" (1996, 109). It appears that in the discussions as the teachers shared more of their own personal-professional pedagogic thinking, the more integral the sense of community became and the pedagogic thinking within the community was enriched.

Mapping the activities of the teacher community in this way appears to provide a window into the dialogic space (Wegerif, 2007: 4) the community created. Voicing, hearing and validating the differences between the partners through the community sessions widened and deepened the dialogic space between partners allowing critical educational theory relevant to the participants to arise. The differences between the teacher-partners, rather like the dichotomies present in the notes from session 1, were not contradictions, but different dimensions of a complex whole.

Chronologically mapping the themes revealed the cumulative nature of the sessions. Whilst the discussions aimed to move forward in understanding, this did not mean that previous topics could not be revisited. Returning to similar concerns from different positions or perspectives and drawing on different resources appeared to uncover understanding in a new way, enriching established views. This approach was perhaps supported by the gaps between meetings, but it also suggests an educational dynamic does not always need to be towards something entirely new. If we return to the idea of education as both "being and becoming", then whilst on the one hand having an idea of where we are heading towards is important and useful, also having the time to appreciate where we are now and who we are with now is also valuable. It is in the present moment that we can appreciate the past, and it is the present moment which contains the seeds for the future (Bakhtin, 1981, 37).

The notion of being and becoming emphasizes the open-endedness of education pushing passed the boundaries of material need and even methodology, pointing to the human encounter involved in education. It is this sense of human encounter that this narrative report hopes to preserve. The initial starting point for community activity was to draw on the resources available within the immediate environment. Whilst CLIL experts were invited in to contribute to the community, the heart of the community itself was – is – the teachers. Initially the community was built around the teachers' experiences of CLIL. Increasingly over time their pedagogic know-how came to the fore simultaneously increasing and reducing the distance between the participant members. The 'soul' (Bakhtin 1990; Sullivan, 2007) of the community, however, was the development of a pedagogic relationship between colleagues. That is the teachers were able to hear, acknowledge and positively respond to

differences between community members. It was this dimension of an answerable (Bakhtin, 1990) collegial relationship validating being and becoming within the community that allowed an enriched understanding to grow.

This is not to suggest that the growth of a pedagogic relationship between colleagues is without limitations or challenges. Within this community some teachers attended more regularly, more actively, whilst other teachers maintained a more peripheral membership. These differences in levels of participation, however, were also viewed as valid and appreciated within the community. The future also remains somewhat open-ended as the career path of different community members takes them in new directions. For these teachers it is hoped that the positive experience of this teacher community would provide seeds for the development of pedagogic relationships with new colleagues in new communities. With regard to the teacher community in this narrative, the future steps hopefully include the development of the community's "critical theory of education" into "critically informed practice" (Carr and Kemmis, 1986: 44). This would mean taking the educational pathway that has been defined and producing coherent, concrete programmes of study and lesson plans reflecting these values. Finally truly critically informed practice would include widening the community to include other educational stakeholders, especially pupils. The teacher-perceptions of pupil-views indicates a significant area for growth between teachers and pupils. As the community's critical theory becomes critically-informed practice it will be interesting to see whether the teacher community's new lens through which pupils are viewed, could enrich the lens through which pupils themselves view education, in effect developing a new form of pedagogic relationship.

The sharing of this narrative has been intended to reveal the value of mutual pedagogic relationships between teachers to support and enrich professional development. From a dialogic perspective, the unique positions of teachers, whether as pre-primary teachers or upper secondary subject specialists, means that each community member has something to contribute and something to gain. Encounters across differences can both validate the present being and future becoming of teachers suggesting developmental potentialities beyond the currently defined boundaries of institutional education.

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V

DIALOGIC STRUGGLES AND PEDAGOGIC INNOVATION

by

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Submitted

Dialogic struggles and pedagogic innovation

ABSTRACT

The aim of this research was to explore the way in which talk is used in teacher focus group discussions. The data from these discussions belongs to a wider study on the challenges teachers face when introducing foreign-language mediated education. The research presented here provides a fine-grained analysis of the talk between teachers drawing on Bakhtin's dialogic theory. This theoretical framework allows for the critical consideration of the relationship between the teachers and the cultural context of institutionalised education. The main outcome from this research is the notion of "dialogic struggle" as an analytical tool and an important characteristic of thought-in-progress. As a key feature of the teacher discussions analysed here, "dialogic struggles" are understood to be important indicators of tensions and contradictions between teachers as conscientious educators and members of institutionalised education.

Keywords: dialogic struggle; teacher discussions; educational culture, pedagogic innovation, foreign-language mediated education

Introduction

The educational innovation of foreign-language mediated (FLM) teaching and learning is a well-established phenomenon within the European context (Eurydice 2006) and beyond. This innovation has been consistently championed by the European Union (2003, 2007) as a means of achieving the *1plus2* language goal and a significant number of teachers have voluntarily adopted this approach. As few governments formally support this innovation, however, few additional resources have been available to teachers to meet the challenges of FLM education. Within the Finnish context this has meant that many teachers who began to teach FLM classes gave up on this innovation (Lehti, Järvinen & Suomela-Salmi 2006), despite the positive benefits of this approach for teachers and learners (Coyle 2006, Merisuo-Storm 2007). Although the overall number of FLM classes has decreased, new teachers continue to take up the challenge whether through choice or circumstance (Coyle, Hood & Marsh 2010) and the development of FLM courses has become a key goal of the Finnish Ministry of Education (2009) for higher education in Finland. As an perpetuating phenomenon FLM education, or Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) as it is sometimes known, needs to be better understood to support the efforts of both teachers and learners.

In FLM education the most immediate challenge is the use of a foreign language for both teaching and learning. In other words, class or subject teachers become responsible for teaching the curriculum through a foreign tongue and at the same time they are responsible for supporting learners working through a foreign language. This is not the same as foreign or second

language teaching in which a foreign language expert is responsible for teaching language. Although a significant amount of research has taken place within and around FLM education (see Dalton-Puffer (2011) and Tedick & Cammarata (2012) for the most recent reviews), mainstream educational research has rarely been drawn on. This is somewhat surprising considering the amount of research that highlights the importance of talk within classroom contexts (e.g. Mercer & Littleton 2007, Littleton & Howe 2010). Indeed sociocultural views of talk as a tool of mediation have received a lot of attention and in recent years Bakhtinian perspectives have also been drawn on to develop dialogic views of talk in education (Alexander 2004, Lefstein 2006, Wegerif 2010a). This body of research may provide useful insights for teachers facing the additional challenge of using a foreign language. Despite the emphasis on talk in research, however, there “seems to be a yawning gap between classroom realities and theories of development and learning” (Littleton & Howe 2009, 5). One way of addressing this “yawning gap” would be for the dilemmas between theory and practice “be made explicit, discussed and resolved as part of the normal day-to-day process of professional consultation and development” (Alexander, 2004, 47). This suggestion draws attention away from the classroom context alone to bring talk between teacher-colleagues into view.

To date teacher voices have played a very small part in the on-going discussions around FLM education (Banegas 2012) and although teacher development research highlights the value of collegial relationships (Borko 2004) positive relationships cannot be taken for granted. Subject paradigms (Grossman, Wineburg & Woolworth 2001), personal convictions (Grossman, Wineburg & Woolworth 2001) and institutionally-framed roles (Creese 2002) all appear to play a significant role in the development and potential of collegial relations. In 2011, however, research published on the challenges faced by a teacher community seeking to develop a FLM educational pathway from early education to high school (3-19 years) (Moate 2011a) pointed to the potential value of relationships between colleagues. The results from this research suggested that teachers engaged in FLM education face a myriad of challenges that go beyond administrative support, material resources and training. These challenges also include building a new kind of relationship with colleagues within and beyond the immediate school context, the need to reconsider and develop pedagogic norms, and overcoming the inadequacy of previous teaching experience and pedagogic understanding. These findings came from a wide-variety of data including participant-observation notes, teacher-produced notes from community discussions, and transcribed discussions from a small cohort of teacher colleagues. This current paper adds to this earlier research by focussing on the struggles teachers can enter into when facing pedagogic innovation.

Before moving on to the theoretical framework, it should be noted that the actual struggles of these teachers are not understood to be universal, but this fine-grained analysis brings forth the notion of a dialogic struggle that may

be useful in understanding teacher responses to pedagogic innovation in other contexts as well.

Theoretical framework

From a dialogic perspective, education is a cultural system, not just language-based activity. From a Bakhtinian perspective, education within an institutionalised context can be viewed a genre, that is a recognised, relatively stable and a relatively typical way of being that supports shared understanding (e.g. Bakhtin 1986, 78). Following the example of Matusov, I “use Bakhtin’s term ‘genre’ not in a context of discourse where the term originated but as a metaphor for “educational philosophy” (Matusov 2009, 148). In other words, Bakhtin’s central notion of ‘genre’ is used here to denote a specific way of being and concomitantly speaking within a specific context, in this case institutional education. The richness of this analogy will hopefully become apparent through the paper. Bakhtin uses the notion of genre to explain how people share understanding, “If speech genres did not exist ..., if we had to originate them during the speech process and construct each utterance at will for the first time, speech communication would be almost impossible” (Bakhtin, 1986: 79). As such a genre is an established way of talking and in effect a recognised way of organising understanding.

The way in which institutional education is instantiated across the globe, enabling comparative tests such as PISA, underlines the generic nature of education. From a dialogic perspective, however, genres are both stable and mutable (Bakhtin 1986, 80). As a stable and mutable structure a genre can be understood as a dynamic starting point, not an end: a point of departure for enriched understanding, not a finalised way of being. This dynamic aspect underlines the importance of dialogic relations as different understandings that are shared, responded to and further developed. Over time, however, genres can become formalised to the degree that they may become less of a meeting point for shared understanding and increasingly a historically-agreed expression of understanding. As a genre stabilises it tends to become increasingly authoritative as with religious dogma or scientific truth (Bakhtin 1981, 343). This authority supported by the weight of history “demands that we acknowledge it, that we make it our own; it binds us, quite independent of any power it might have to persuade us internally; we encounter it with its authority already fused to it” (ibid. 1981, 342). Increasingly authoritative discourse “demands our unconditional allegiance” and “permits no play with the context framing it, no play with its borders, no gradual and flexible transitions”(ibid, 343). Overly authoritative genres deny participants the opportunity to respond to each other and to the system (Bakhtin 1986, 69). In this sense, authoritative genres reduce dialogic relations and the potential for enriched understanding is significantly limited.

It should perhaps be reiterated that it is not the stabilising of a genre that is necessarily problematic. Indeed stabilised understanding can support the continuation of a dialogue “on a higher level ...” (Bakhtin 1986, 162). What is

problematic, however, is if participants are denied the responsibility to be responsive, if “living words” are reduced to “abstract concepts” and “one abstract consciousness” (Bakhtin 1986, 147). The conflict between a dialogic way of being and the monologic tendencies of cultural genres are emphasized when culture is defined as a

system ... to which individual members are involuntarily, unconsciously, perhaps even effortlessly attached; ... that model, Bakhtin would say, does an injustice to the hard - the very hard and particularized - work required of each one of us to achieve a responsible position in the world. (Emerson 1996,108)

The problem here is the unthinkingness that a stabilised genre can be reduced to, perhaps especially applicable in institutionalised contexts. Whether it is the familiarity or authority of the context that prevents the rise of new questions (Bakhtin 1986, 147), the problem from a dialogic perspective is the no longer anticipated need for participants to take up a responsible position or to build on each other’s “mutual outsideness” (Bakhtin 1986, 168). Arguably within a dialogic educational system teachers would welcome participants in the ongoing development of education and subject boundaries and differences between participants would enrich overall understanding tempering unthinkingness.

“Outsideness” is one resource that can be used to temper the authoritative stabilisation of genres.

“... outsideness is a most powerful factor in understanding. It is only in the eyes of *another* culture that foreign culture reveals itself fully and profoundly... We raise new questions for a foreign culture, ones that it did not raise itself; we seek answers to our own questions in it; and the new culture responds to us by revealing to us its new aspects and new semantic depths ... they are mutually enriched. (Bakhtin 1986, 7)

Outsideness asks new questions, motivates engagement, and encourages new understanding. Outsideness does not have to mean, however, complete foreignness. As we speak we become witnesses of our own words, outsiders of our own thoughts (Bakhtin 1986, 137). This, I think, is part of the mutability of genres. As participants listen to one another and themselves a word “awakens new and independent words, ... It is not so much interpreted by us as it is... freely developed, applied to new material, new conditions... More than that, it enters into an intense interaction, a struggle...” (Bakhtin 1981, 345-346).

It is this notion of a dialogic struggle that is particularly drawn on within this research. A dialogic struggle is defined here as the contradictory or dilemmatic responses within a dialogue to new ideas or understandings, even ideas to which s/he is favourably inclined. A dialogic struggle could be described as a window into learning, that is the real-time working out of established and alternative ways of knowing and being, the process of education. As such, the notion of a dialogic struggle complements Barnes’

definition of exploratory talk as “hesitant and incomplete” a place where learners can “try out ideas, to hear how they sound, to see what others make of them, to arrange information and ideas into different patterns” (Barnes 2008, 5). The notion presented here goes beyond the voicing of different ideas, albeit disjointed ideas under-development, to the fundamental struggles teachers-as-learners engage in when addressing issues at the heart of education. Although the word struggle can easily point to something negative, it is more the sense of challenge that it is intended to point to here and the way in which these struggles highlight the different dynamics involved in understanding.

Data collection

The notion of dialogic struggles has been developed through the fine-grained analysis of two collegial discussions with six teacher-participants. The teachers came from an upper comprehensive school in Central Finland and represented the full range of curricular subjects from science to foreign language learning, domestic science to special education, and history to health education. The teacher-participants met seven times with the research-participant on a monthly basis to collaboratively work towards the development of FLM courses with the aim of enhancing understanding of FL-based pedagogy and talk-in-education. The purpose of these discussions was to share different forms of expertise in order to enrich understandings (Carr & Kemmis 1983, Atjonen, Korkeakoski & Mehtäläinen 2011). The teachers shared both their pedagogic knowledge (Banks, Leach & Moon 1999) as well as the significant challenges they faced in FLM classes. The researcher’s contributions drew on current educational theories in addition to her own teaching experiences and understanding of FLM education. In effect these discussions became a focus group, an “inherently dialogical” meeting place offering the “a particularly suitable means of exploring contents and forms of socially shared knowledge, attitudes, and beliefs in their dynamics” (Marková, Linell, Gorssen & Orvig 2007, 202).

In the fourth and sixth meetings the researcher shared a pedagogical model for FLM (Moate 2011b) at different stages of development. The researcher wanted to pay careful attention to the teacher responses both during and after the discussions and therefore asked permission from the teachers to digitally record these particular discussions. During the transcription process the richness of these discussions as pedagogic events became increasingly apparent. The word pedagogic here refers to understanding of pedagogy as ‘being and becoming’ (van Manen 1991). The established understandings the participants brought to the discussion were valid and valuable, but these established ways of thinking were not the end, rather the beginning for new understandings as outlined in the theoretical framework.

The transcribed discussions were shared with the teachers and permission was sought to use the data to explore the role of talk in pedagogic encounters between teacher colleagues. All of the research based on this data has been shared with the teacher-participants and their comments have been welcome. The first discussion (D1) was in anticipation of implementing FLM-

courses and as such was more theoretically orientated. The second discussion (D2) took place once two of the four teacher-participants had launched FLM-courses and was more orientated toward the practical realisation of innovation. Combined D1 and D2 provide different orientations to pedagogical innovation. On a technical note, for each of the transcribed extracts and data references D1 or D2 indicate which discussion the quote or extract comes from, and the following number is the number of the utterance. For example D1:392 is from discussion 1, utterance 392. In the first discussion the teacher-participants were A, B, C, D, and E. In the second discussion A,B,C and F were present. The discussions lasted for approximately 1 hour 30 minutes each.

Data analysis

The fine-grained analysis of the data went through a number of phases illustrated in Table 1 and was the definition of a dialogic encounter defined as an “intense interaction, a *struggle*” (Bakhtin 1981, 346) was used as an important guide.

Phase	Steps	Outcome
1. Orientation phase	1. Transcriptions and re-readings	Detailed narrative maps of discussions 1 and 2.
	2. Division of transcriptions into titled subsections	
	3. Mapping of relationships between subsections	
2. Focussing in on struggles	4a. Identification of “struggles” - dilemmas, contradictions & questions	Identification of three key themes underpinning struggles
	4b. Writing of a memo noting issues involved in the struggle	
	5. Identification and categorisation of struggles	
3. Review of analysis	6. Producing a table with a column for each participant along one axis and the three key areas of struggle	Detailed overview of the struggles as individual and as shared phenomena (see Table 3)
	7a. Identifying struggles within the utterances of individual participants	
	7b. Identifying struggles shared by different participants	

Table 1: Analytical phases, steps and outcomes

Phase 1: Orientation

Following the initial transcription of the data and several re-readings of the text, the two discussions were divided into sections. The section headings came from the theme or purpose of the section, for example, “Speaking as an English teacher” (D1: 100-134) is followed by “Is it the Finnish way of learning?” (D1: 135-158). Dividing the discussions in this manner recognises that each utterance

belongs to a longer chain of speech communication (Bakhtin 1986, 69). Once the discussions had been divided with headings, separate lists were made of the headings and the relationship between each of the sections was critically considered and added to the listed headings. This was a useful step as some of the sections appeared to move backwards to earlier topics, whereas other sections introduced new ideas or questions. Listing the sequences and noting the relationships between the sequences created a narrative map for both discussions.

The narrative maps helped to maintain the sense “that an utterance is always an answer” (Holquist 1990, 60) and helped the researcher to have a sense of the overall structure of the discussions. Through this analytical process contradictions and dilemmas, that is struggles, within and between different utterances came to the fore, particularly recurrent struggles. For example, one section entitled “So how do you change?” (D1: 191-199) repeats this question twice and appears to be resolved by the conclusion “of starting small” (D1: 197) but the need for change recurs several times throughout the discussion as the teachers consider their early experiences of teacher education (D1: 716-780) and they critically consider different methods currently used (D1: 324-341).

Sometimes the contradictory nature of utterances appeared to be unseen by the participants, as the example in Extract 1 indicates. Each of these utterances are made by one participant within two minutes of each other.

Teacher B. It's so awful when teacher says, 'now speak with your pair, tell about your summer holiday'

...

Teacher B. I think it's not natural to Finnish people. (1:298:B)

...

Teacher B. But I think it's a problem, er, too in er Finnish lessons, because I don't know how it is now when they start school, I think they have more discussion than I had, we never discussed there.

...

Teacher B. But I have seen that now the seventh graders **know** how to do it, but they don't do it still. But, they, I think they have the skills.

EXTRACT 1, Discussion 1, utterances 296, 298, 313, and 315

In the analysis of the transcriptions, fluctuating thoughts as expressed here were seen to be indicative of the unresolvedness of the participant's contribution. These are not final words rather thoughts-in-progress as different understandings respond to each other. In keeping with this sense of struggle was the way in which utterances gave rise to further questions (Bakhtin 1986, 147), deepening rather than resolving the dilemmas faced by the participants:

Teacher A. So how do you do?

Teacher D. How do you change?

Teacher A. How do you motivate them?

Teacher D. Yes

Teacher A. How do you change?

EXTRACT 2, Discussion 1, utterances 192-196

This short extract illustrates the participants' awareness that change is necessary and desirable, and also indicates the relationship between teachers and pupils: change in teachers is to support pupil learning. The layering of one question on top of another, however, highlights the sense of uncertainty about what to do. The complex relationship between pedagogic commitment, institutional expectation and classroom reality repeatedly feature in the dialogic struggles.

Phase 2: Focussing in on struggles

Atlas.ti software was used to support a more systematic analysis of the struggles. The struggles were identified in different ways in the recorded discussions, primarily as contradictory utterances, unresolved dilemmas or questions stated by the participants. Each time a struggle was identified a memo was added to the Atlas.ti file. The aim of the memos was to trace the different themes present in the struggles. Through this analysis three key dimensions of pedagogic innovation came to the fore: 1) the relationship between subject paradigms and pedagogic innovation, 2) the relationship between pedagogic innovation and institutional expectation, and 3) teacher perceptions and experiences of the relationship between pedagogic innovation and classroom realities.

To check the validity of these three aspects a table was produced with the issues individually listed in the left-hand column and the teacher-participants listed across the top of the table (see Table 2).

Key dimension	Teacher A	Teacher B	Teacher C	Teacher D	Teacher E	Teacher F
How do teachers use subject-based paradigms to respond to pedagogical innovation?						
How do teachers experience the encounter between pedagogical innovation and institutional expectation - past or present?						

How do teachers perceive and experience the relationship between pedagogical innovation and classroom realities?							
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Table 2: Key dimensions and teacher references

The transcriptions were then re-read and each struggle was added to the table aligned with the appropriate participant and key dimension. Once both transcriptions had been surveyed in this way, additional rows and columns were added to the table (see Table 3) to indicate how shared and/or varied the struggles were. In this tabulated form the dialogic struggles could be traced both 'vertically' and 'horizontally'. The vertical struggles refer here to the contradictions and dilemmas within the utterances of one participant and horizontal struggles refer to the contradictions and dilemmas shared by the different participants. The final analytical step was to identify which of the vertical struggles (dilemmas within individual utterances) most clearly resonated with the horizontal struggles, that is the dilemmas shared by the participants as a group.

Key dimension	Teacher A	Teacher B	Teacher C	Teacher D	Teacher E	Teacher F	Horizontal struggles between participants
How do teachers use subject-based paradigms to respond to pedagogical innovation?							
Vertical struggles between utterances							
How do teachers experience the encounter between pedagogical innovation and institutional expectation?							

Vertical struggles between utterances							
How do teachers perceive and experience the relationship between pedagogical innovation and classroom realities?							
Vertical struggles between utterances							

Table 3: Individual and shared struggles

The recurring struggles in relation to the second dimension are reported in this paper and the discussion addresses the role dialogic struggles can play within pedagogic dialogues.

Results

The two discussions that provided the data from this research were motivated by the teacher-participants desire to introduce FLM-courses within their school. During the discussions the teachers shared why they were interested in this innovation - it was rewarding for the pupils (Teacher A, D1: 200), taking pupil capacity to another level (Teacher A, D1:206), motivating pupils (Teacher D, D1:211), challenging them to think more (Teacher F, D2:732) and to concentrate (Teacher B, D2:746). No additional salary, resources or training was on offer beyond the voluntary discussion groups held with the researcher. As the teachers met together with the researcher to discuss FLM pedagogy and talk in education, a recurring theme in the discussions was the relationship between pedagogical innovation and institutional expectation. The teachers appeared to speak openly and honestly together, as one teacher said in relation to in-service training opportunities, 'sometimes there are such beautiful ideas, and so super things, and somebody tells I did that or that, and then you go, oh God (groan)...' (D1: 255). The teachers raised questions, concerns, shared stories and objections. The teachers queried whether they expected enough from pupils (D1: 135-158, D2: 746-770) and questioned what kind of enlightenment might be needed to change the way lessons are conducted (D1: 167-190).

Assessment: we have to give a number!

Some of the dialogic struggles identified in the analysis arose in response to researcher-prompted topics (Extract 3 and Extract 5), but the other struggles arose in response to questions between the teacher-participants. In response to an overview of interthinking (e.g. Mercer & Littleton 2007) the participants critically responded together:

Teacher A. ... I was thinking that, if you er do this interthinking in a group, perhaps, erm you can't see the results, but if you do exercises written you know you've completed two pages.

Several. *Laughter*

Teacher A. Somehow we have to rely on er that er the students still learn things, even though you can't see written results.

Teacher C. Evaluation and and and

Teacher E. Yeah,

Teacher C. How to evaluate?

Teacher E. How to evaluate

Teacher C. Yeah...

Teacher E. If they are just blah blah blah

Teacher D. Yeah, we have curriculum, we have to give a number

Teacher E. Yes!

Teacher D. To their test report.

Teacher E. That's the big problem.

Teacher D. That's why we do things the old fashioned way.

EXTRACT 3, Discussion 1, utterances 548-560

In this exchange the different teacher-participants almost unify as one voice, the voice of the institution. The location of this struggle between the institutional culture and the desire to be innovative is, however, of the greatest significance. The teachers are voluntarily participating in these dialogues because they are interested in pedagogic innovation. In this sense the protest is not aimed at the researcher, but reflects a struggle shared by the participants experiencing conflict between two deeply meaningful commitments.

For these teacher-participants, the established features of schooling caused repeated struggles, despite the fact they had belonged to this institutional culture for years. As Extract 3 indicates, the role of testing as an obligatory part of the institutional school culture was loudly present in the utterances and reappeared at other points as well. Whilst no national level tests are part of comprehensive schooling in Finland, test weeks are regularly held throughout the upper comprehensive school year. In this particular school test weeks were held four times a year as the timetable rotated and the results are reported to parents. The dialogic struggle around testing was not resolved during these discussions.

A different perspective on assessment was provided in the second discussion. At the start of D2 one participant described the stress and dilemmas she had faced launching her first FLM-course. Whereas with the English-speaking classes the teacher reported,

Teacher F. ... I can just concentrate on chemistry. But er in CLIL teaching, at least in this chemistry group, there are so many students that they don't know English very well, so at the same time I feel like a kind of language teacher, so I need to figure out how they would understand me. ... It is sometimes difficult, and kind of, searching out what is the level that I can start

EXTRACT 4, Discussion 2, utterance 6

In the midst of this dilemma the positive test results according to the conventional test system provided much needed reassurance: "I was so stressed. But now it is kind of coming easier, we had an exam last week and I was relieved, they did it well anyhow so" (Teacher F, D2:31). In this instance the conventional test did not appear to be merely obligated practice, but a structural support that was relied on and appreciated.

The pupil perspective

In contrast to the seeming inflexibility of assessment as presented in Extract 3, during D2 the challenge of non-native speaking pupils was raised and the idea of testing through practical activity rather than conventional written tests was briefly considered:

Teacher F. For example ... there is a question, how do you separate er sand from salty seawater, and they couldn't answer it, ... but I think that if I just give them like equipment, maybe this kind of salty water, sandwater, so they could do it, ... they don't need to write it down.

Teacher B. I've been thinking the same because we have had er slices and cubes and in the exam they have to draw them and everyone knows how to draw a slice of bread or a slice of cheese but X and X they can just cut

Teacher F. mmm.

Teacher B. The slices and cubes, we have the same problem with them, but it's easy when they can show something.

EXTRACT 5, Discussion 2, utterances 364-367

As these two participants look from the pupil perspective they are prepared to consider deviating from conventional practice providing an interest contrast to the seemingly monologic commitment of Extract 3. This not only reiterates the teachers' commitment to offering good education, but also indicates how innovative ideas can be born within the institutional context itself. This suggestion being raised by the teachers within their own dialogues sees potential change, rather than the lack of possibility the established system allows. This potentiality can be somewhat tempered, however, by the resistance of another significant member-group within institutional education, namely the pupils.

Within the dialogues the way in which pupils relied on the established system also came to light. In the first FLM history course the teacher overheard pupils discussing test results and previous experiences to frame future participation: "What's your number? What's your number in English?" (Teacher C, D2:52). Similar reports of highly successful FL pupils in terms of formative tests refused to speak English throughout upper comprehensive school, resisting all the incentives of the teacher (Teacher A, D2:597). This seemed to surprise the teacher as she had overheard 'regular' pupils using English apparently for fun during break-times (D2:597-604). The science teacher shared a similar anecdote from a previous school in which she had practiced teaching through English with regular Finnish pupils in anticipation of working

with international classes. In her experience, the pupils with the best test results in English refused to use English with her, while the less formally successful pupils willingly used English (D2:679-686). The pupil anecdotes reported by the teachers are interesting as they are also indicative of struggles within the system, although not perhaps *with* the system. In these stories, successful pupils within the established system are the least willing to risk innovation. This perhaps suggests that success rather than supporting diversity, narrows the playing field, in effect making the cultural system increasingly monologic. Another intriguing point may be that success within the established system does not provide pupils with confidence to be innovative.

Contrary dynamics and innovation

The teacher-anecdotes in both of the dialogues underlined pupil dependence on the established system. Working with the international classes, rather than FLM classes, was perceived as completely different as, “you don’t have to discuss about it” (Teacher C, D2:75), that is, why deviate from the norm. The teachers appeared to feel not only responsible for, but also answerable to, the pupils in many respects.

Teacher D. I’m full of these experiences, trying to start the lessons **just** the way she described, not just to say it’s all open, but like more how do you say the construc+

Researcher. constructivism

Teacher D. Like we’ve been taught to teach nowadays. *Sigh*. But, in my subject this is very common, that I don’t start giving the right answers, I try to put them to think. I’ll give you an example. What kind of a person is mentally well? This was my question to a ninth grader class. Describe, - first they had to think it in their notebooks by themselves, what do I think? What kind of person is mentally healthy. And then let’s, let’s talk about your ideas. And it was just, I’ll just give up.

Several. *Laughter*.

Teacher D. Because they criticised the whole **question!**

...

Teacher D. They challenged everything! And they, I tried, let’s see, ok, take it back, ok, these are just your ideas, it’s ok, I’m going to write them down here and we’ll see what comes out of them. No way! If somebody said, a mentally healthy person is like balanced, ... what is balanced?? ERRRR!

Several *Laughter*.

Teacher D. And again and again and again. ...

Teacher D. ...Honestly, I was so tired after that lesson.

Several. *Laughter*

Teacher D. And I decided I will **never ever** do a lesson with this group like this.

EXTRACT 6 Discussion 1, utterances 583-587, 597-607

In this anecdote whilst the teacher eagerly used an approach complementary to her subject-matter, the pupils posed a significant challenge. Kinchin (2004) outlines the possible frustration created when teacher and pupil expectations run counter to each other, however, this teacher was faced by aggressive

hostility that undermined her pedagogical beliefs and came at a high personal price, “honestly, I was so tired”.

The pupil-anecdotes, as well as the teacher-participants, indicated struggle between what is, what has been and what might be. In response to an explanation on exploratory talk (e.g. Mercer & Littleton, 2007), the teacher-participants began to question why they did things the way they did (D1:716-780). It came to light that for some initial teacher education had required scripted lessons prior to practice periods. One teacher asked in disbelief, “What happens if there is a surprising answer?!” (Teacher B, D1:770) and was humorously responded to with, “You have to be prepared!” (Teacher E, D1:774) before the talk dissolved into (disbelieving) laughter. During this exchange the teachers on the one hand expressed horror at this requirement (Teacher A, D1:729, Teacher C, D1 :749, Teacher A, D1:780), whilst on the other hand acknowledging that “here we find the roots!” (Teacher D, D1:730). Within and through these dialogic struggles the teachers appear to be beginning to give voice to the seemingly pervasive, often unaddressed, practices of the institutional culture. Voicing these views appeared to allow the teachers to begin to ask questions about these assumptions and to even begin reconsidering them together.

Asking questions

The role of questions has received a significant amount of attention in educational research (Mercer & Howe 2012) and within these dialogues significant struggles around the role of questions in educational culture arose. At several points the dilemma of how to initiate discussion without surrendering control (Teacher C, D2:402) or being exhausted (Teacher D, D1:603, Teacher A, D1:799) came up. Different causes were considered, whether it was part of Finnish nature to discuss (Teacher B, D1:298), whether parents discussed with children (Teacher E, D1:672), whether early education prepared pupils for discussions (Teacher D, D1:435). As a response to this dilemma, the research-participant suggested giving pupils the responsibility to ask questions, rather than the teachers.

Researcher. I wonder what would happen if you said to the students, you ask me the questions

Teacher A. Oh yes,

Researcher. And I will answer them. And completely turn it on its head.

Teacher A. Turn it on its head, yes. Yes, that would be one possibility. I should try that.

Teacher C. Cos they say that it is so difficult to make questions sometimes,

Teacher A. Yes, that too.

Teacher C. Oh this is so difficult, don't do ever this anymore, we don't, we hate that because they have to think.

Several. Yeah, yes.

Teacher B. I think there are some pupils who like to think,

EXTRACT 7, Discussion 1, utterances 800-807.

The teacher-responses fluctuate here between optimistically seeing potential change, and pessimistically denying the possibility of change. The first response is polite agreement, the second response denies the potential of this suggestion. The first teacher then agrees with this contradictory contribution although another teacher counters this response: pupils can actually enjoy thinking! The challenge of “thinking pupils” then becomes the focus of the dialogue leaving the dialogic struggle around questions unresolved to resurface later.

Towards the end of D2 the theme of questions arises again. This struggle arises after a rather enthusiastic exchange involving all of the participants about the possibility of developing their own FLM culture within the school. The domestic science teacher shares her vision, “And I think that in my subject, the erm the questions are very easy so, ... I really hope that they would ask” (D2:636) adding soon after, “...I hope they are going to ask them in English, because I know that they can ask in English, so” (D2:642). The collegial-responses voice the institutional perspective: pupil questions indicate a need for attention and reassurance (Teacher C, D2:643, 649, Teacher A, D2:646), pupil questions betray a lack of self-confidence in pupils (Teacher A, D2:670,674).

Teacher A. Yeah! I don't know, they just they just need a lot of,er

Teacher C. Yeah

Teacher A. Er encouragement,

Teacher C. Yes

Teacher A. and you are doing just fine, and please go on

Teacher C. Yeah, trust yourself,

EXTRACT 8, Discussion 2, utterances 662-667

From this perspective pupils use questions as relational tools, not learning tools as such and encouraging pupils to ask questions perhaps steers pupils away from working independently. Once again the dialogic struggle is partly with the established way of being and seeing. Within this dialogic struggle the ambiguous nature of questions, the contradiction between institutional and innovative perspectives, came to the fore.

Belonging

This notion of belonging to an established framework recurs in other dialogic struggles too, “... we have this 25 years!” (Teacher A, D1:190). Even in the midst of positive innovation one teacher reported the struggle this created:

Teacher C. I think that also in our culture, sometimes when I see for example today ... we have some examples, and then they start to talk, ... and first I thought yes this is very good, and then I was very frustrated, because I, I didn't control the situation anymore, because they are talking, and even I **knew** that most of them were talking oikain asiaa [on topic], ok?

Several. Yeah *laughter*

Teacher C. But still I thought that, 'yes, shut up!'

Several. *Laughter.*

Teacher C. Don't speak anything, let me speak, cos we have this - it's not my fault it's the education's fault of course, the traditions, that we have to control the class,

Teacher A. Yes,

Teacher C. and I think that's a difficulty.

EXTRACT 9, Discussion 1, utterances 402-408

"It's not my fault, we have this system" could be the same excuse offered in defence of the pupil responses in Extract 6. Within these utterances different struggles are present: the role of the teacher, engagement with and between pupils, and the institutional framework systematically linking the past with the future. This tension between the past and present is reiterated in another teacher's struggle with "the tradition that the teacher knows the right answer" (Teacher A, D1:409), "But, I don't actually, ... it's not always possible to say this is right and this is wrong, and really some pupils have difficulties accepting that, you are the teacher, you should know" (Teacher A, D1:415). Indeed most school subjects belong to "living" communities that continue to change over time, whether through scientific breakthroughs, societal change, the uncovering of new evidence or development of new methodology and yet the myth remains that knowledge is stationary and contained. In the dialogic struggles the dilemmas that surfaced in face-to-face encounters with pupils were most keenly felt, in these examples catching the teachers between being a trustworthy authority according to the system or educators mediating between the demands of the system, the subject and the nature of learning.

The dialogic struggle around the tensions of dealing with change perhaps draws attention to a fundamental problem at the heart of institutionalised education. On the one hand, as the future is always unknown, it is the responsibility of educators to prepare pupils to positively encounter change. On the other hand, teachers are working with a defined curriculum towards determined outcomes for which they are accountable. As with the other dialogic struggles reported here, no resolution to this apparent contradiction was found. Recognising this feature of educational culture, however, as a *shared* dilemma perhaps repositions the teachers as responsive colleagues engaged in the mutual endeavour of education.

Discussion

The view provided by these two discussions reported here indicates the multi-layered complexity of institutionalised education as a genre, as well as signifying the different dynamics at play within educational culture. Although the participants can reasonably be described as 'multiple insiders', the dialogic struggles presented here reveal that this position does not automatically support dialogue with or within the system. Indeed it is perhaps this 'extreme insideness' that underlines the need for dialogues within which teachers can reflect together on what they do and why. In these discussions the dilemmas

that teachers customarily live with appear to be brought to the fore and addressed directly, rather than remaining hidden in uncomfortable silence: “I don’t stress [anymore], I just feel guilty” (Teacher C, D2:296).

As the teachers discussed together, the dilemmas and contradictions in their talk seem to suggest the start of a change in the teachers’ relationship with the system. The teachers began to question why they behaved in a certain way, why things were difficult to change, why they desired change. These questions and the thoughts-under-development can be understood as the teachers beginning to step outside familiar frames of reference and roles, to witness themselves and their understanding, creating a greater possibility for change: ‘Because in a group like this where everybody is eager to learn something you get good discussions and you learn new things’ (Teacher A, D1:197). The following section addresses the role and value of dialogic struggles within pedagogic dialogues.

The role of dialogic struggles

The notion of dialogic struggle as presented in this research played two roles. In the analysis of the data, the notion of dialogic struggle offered a frame of reference sensitive to the dilemmas of teachers as educators. The sensitivity of this analysis accords with a dialogic approach to focus group research (Marková, et al. 2007). With regard to the findings of this research, the recurrent struggles shed light on the contradictory commitments of the teacher-participants, in effect their ‘dual membership’ and the different dynamics at play in educational culture. The teacher-participants were accountable members of the educational institution as well as conscientious educators. Whilst it might be assumed that this dual-membership is complementary, it is perhaps this assumption that minimises dialogue about *hows* and particularly the *whys* of education. This lack of dialogue in turn allows the monologic tendencies of the institutionalised system to dominate, furthering limiting the responsive responsibility of cultural members, “it’s not my fault, it’s the education’s fault” (Extract 9).

The historically agreed way of being was another recurrent struggle. As an institutionalised system education clearly has a distinct past. With the socialisation of pupils into educational culture, the past has a voice in the present. With the written curriculum, predefined learning outcomes and testing norms, the future of the system seems similarly stable. From this perspective institutional education provides clear boundaries, at least for the *whats* and *hows* of education. What is not accommodated within this system, however, is the teacher-participants’ conviction that innovation is needed whether as a result of the changing demographics, developing learning theories or as teachers recognise more potential in pupils. This dynamic, changing nature of educational need and provision is the other side of teachers’ dual commitment and it is this dynamic dimension of education that this institutionalised genre struggles to accommodate. Arguably this struggle can only be resolved within the person of a teacher, a responsible, responsive pedagogue invested in pupils’

learning, and yet rather than exploit this resource teacher commitment is directed to the framework: "... we have this 25 years!"

The keenness of this contradiction comes to light most dramatically in the classroom anecdotes shared in the dialogic struggles: I was so tired (Extract 6), I was so stressed (Extract 4), I was losing control (Extract 9). The freedom provided by the pedagogic dialogues to share thoughts-in-progress and to critically consider why and how both innovative and traditional approaches were used, was not available face-to-face with pupils. In these instances the teachers appeared to resort to the institutionalised way of being. Two critical points come to light here. On the one hand, a teacher introducing innovative change alone can face hostile resistance detrimental to the learning goals and well-being of the educational participants. Change introduced within an educational community as a community would presumably be more successful at re-aculturating pupil-participants to accept change. The problem with this, however, is that this would also be a monologic imposition. From a dialogic perspective, voicing the struggles between what has been and what might be needs to be permitted to support engagement with the possibility of change.

It was this notion of 'supporting engagement with the possibility of change' that prompted these teacher-dialogues, however, the richness of the view afforded by the participants' dialogic struggles was not anticipated. As the extracts illustrate the teacher-responses were complex constructions of what has been, what could be and whether the teachers' can responsibly respond to the multifarious demands of the system, the pupils and themselves. Attempts at innovation had seemingly resulted in conflict, not enrichment.

With regard to pedagogical innovation these dialogic struggles indicate the different layers of conviction these teachers needed to adopt a different approach: is it feasible? Is it believable? Is it worthwhile? These are in addition to the demands of timetabling, material availability and topic suitability (Moate 2011a). What is interesting, however, is the way in which innovative suggestions prompt 'cultural-norm' responses that reduce rather than enrich thoughts-in-progress: "we have to evaluate" (Extract 3), "it's too much hard work for pupils" (Extract 7). If these utterances are allowed to have the final word, then indeed the dialogic struggles become monologic reductions. Having the opportunity to engage in dialogues together, to listen to one another, to respond to one another and to one's own views enriched the dialogues. Sharing different anecdotes perhaps widened the dialogic space shared by the participants, however it was the dialogic struggles, especially when recognised as shared struggles, that enriched the dialogues, encouraging participants to look from different perspectives. It could be suggested that in these dialogues, the dialogic struggles increased both the opportunity and need to respond responsibly. Voicing dilemmas and hearing contradictions arguably requires further understanding, if not resolution. Just as the classroom encounters intensified the sense of conflict between what has been and what might be, so the shared dialogues intensified the need to address the dual commitments of the teachers, rather than to accept uneasy compromise.

Being able to look from different perspectives complement not only the “dual-membership” of teachers, but also the notion of institutional education as generic structure in a Bakhtinian sense. If the inherent tensions between stable and flexible ways of being are permitted, the response does not perhaps need to be either/or: teachers either adhere to the system or risk innovation. This in turn requires continued dialogue, and dialogic struggles between, theoretical educational theory, institutionalised educational culture and the practical realisation of education in the classroom: what could work, how could this work, why should this be invested in? The expectation that these issues can and should be addressed by teachers seemingly compliments the role of dialogic struggles identified in these teacher-dialogues. The role played by these dialogic struggles suggests that: a) such struggles are worth sharing and addressing together, b) that unresolved silence is less enriching than unresolved talk, and c) that dialogue within and with a genre such as institutional education is beneficial to the overarching aims of education.

The value of dialogic struggles in pedagogic dialogues

Exploring the different levels of change pedagogical innovation demands of teachers in these dialogues provides a cross-sectional view of teacher responses at a particular time and place. Acknowledging the value of dialogic struggles within collegial talk, however, suggests that ‘thoughts-in-progress’ are valued resources. This is a very different conceptualisation of learning to that which is often sort via formal assessment procedures. Furthermore, the dialogic struggles of the teacher colleagues often became shared endeavours, rather than individual problems. This view underlines the notion of dialogue as an on-going process, not a product, and it also highlights the courage required of teachers to participate in discussions, just as courage is required of a child in a classroom. During the D1 following a description of a dialogic discussion one teacher exclaimed, ‘... we experience the same thing here, ...I didn’t know what it meant, ... I was trying to guess, ... and I was brave enough to throw my idea ... and that happens to a child as well, (Teacher D, D1:334-342).

Dialogic approaches continue to find favour as one way of “expanding awareness and developing in students a capacity to question and to be able to think for themselves” (Wegerif 2010a, 340) or using talk “to shape children’s thinking, and to secure their engagement, learning and understanding” (Alexander 2008, 92). Teachers are an important link in the chain when implementing innovation, and for understanding the ramifications of innovation. For teachers to be able to make the most of the opportunities dialogic approaches offer, they need to know what it means to really engage in dialogue. Talk-based innovations such as FLM education make the need to address the “yawning gap” between theory and practice all the more pressing. From the teacher contributions here, however, clearly the classroom is an inappropriate forum to work through such dialogic struggles if the cultural institution itself does not permit this. If pupils understand tests as frames for future possibility, rather than indicators of past progress; if teachers are expected to authoritatively reproduce subject narratives, rather than to offer

dialogic engagement with new understanding, then the frontline encounter between teachers and pupils is understandably difficult.

Limitations and future possibilities

Just as the teachers in this study were ultimately interested in positive learning experiences and outcomes for pupils, this research is similarly interested in how dialogic concepts, such as 'dialogic struggle', could benefit classroom-level education. Starting with teachers, however, is motivated by the belief that if teachers are not familiar with dialogic struggles as participants in dialogic struggles, there is little hope of such a concept making its way into classroom dialogue. It would seem self-defeating to introduce such a notion through a top-down approach, criticised in classrooms and professional development initiatives (van Driel, Beijaard, & Verloop 2001) alike. The sample group here, however, was a small cohort of teachers interested in innovation. It would be interesting to use this notion with different teacher groups, and to follow pedagogic dialogues over a longer period of time to see where and how dialogic struggles can develop as themes and as means for enriching understanding of phenomena as well as a process in itself. To then follow dialogic struggles into classrooms with and between pupils would then hopefully not only create different opportunities for pupil participation, but new windows into the thinking of pupils.

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