Creating an EAL conscious school: recommendations for how international schools can develop collaborative practices between English as an Additional Language and the mainstream to best support English language learners

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Abstract

This thesis aims to develop a better understanding of how international schools can create a more integrated culture of language conscious teaching and learning through collaboration between English as an Additional Language (EAL) and mainstream subject teachers. The research in this thesis comprises three interrelated journal articles from research conducted at an international school in a major city in Ukraine. The research focussed on the importance of the need for a better understanding of EAL and the mainstream, the importance of the need for better understanding of EAL learners, and an understanding of how EAL and mainstream collaboration help to support EAL learners in the mainstream classroom. The first article drew on quantitative and qualitative data collected from a questionnaire sent to secondary teachers in the school where the study took place, as well as to other international schools in the Eastern European region. The questionnaire investigated English language training in education, attitudes to EAL in mainstream subjects and participants' collaboration with EAL teachers. Further follow up qualitative data collected from a focus group in the school in Ukraine investigated the topics of competencies, responsibilities and collaboration with respect to EAL in the mainstream classroom. The second article drew on qualitative data from interviews with individual EAL learners. The interviews investigated how EAL learners see themselves in terms of an EAL identity, how social status and community influence EAL learners, and how the home language and culture are influential in the language classroom. The third article drew on qualitative data from interviews and field notes with language & literature, science and EAL teachers. The interviews investigated how EAL and mainstream collaboration help support EAL learners in the mainstream classroom, which co-planning strategies most effectively encourage collaboration, and EAL and mainstream teachers' opinions and experiences about co-planning and working collaboratively. Building on these data, the conclusion of this thesis ultimately sets out a set of six recommendations for how international schools can develop

effective collaborative practices between EAL and the mainstream to best support English language learners.

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List of abbreviations and acronyms

AR: Action research

CEESA: Central and Eastern European Schools Association

DfE: Department for Education

DP: Diploma Programme

EAL: English as an Additional Language

ELICOS: English language intensive courses for overseas students

ELL: English language learner

EMI: English as a medium of instruction

ESL: English as a Second Language

ESOL: English for Speakers of Other Languages

IB: International Baccalaureate

ITT: Initial teacher training

MMR: Mixed methods research

MOI: Medium of instruction

MYP: Middle Years Programme

NC: National Curriculum

PD: Professional development

PEEL: Project for Enhancing Effective Learning

PI: Practitioner inquiry

TCK: Third Culture Kid

TESOL: Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages

TESMC: Teaching ESL Students in Mainstream Classrooms

WIDA: World-Class Instructional Design and Assessment

Declaration

I declare that the work presented in this thesis is my own and was conducted during my time as a PhD student at the University of Essex. Three chapters in the main body of this thesis are written as journal articles:

- Article One, presented in chapter 3, is written in accordance with the author guidelines of the Journal of Research in International Education and was published in August 2021: https://doi.org/10.1177/14752409211033749

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- Article Three, presented in chapter 5, is written in accordance with the author guidelines of the Journal of Research in International Education and will be published in December 2023.

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I wish to dedicate this thesis to the people of Ukraine who always made me feel welcome and who I thank for the incredible memories of a country that was a home to me. May your strength and fortitude persist in your struggle: Правда у воді не тоне і в огні не горить.

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Background to the research

Having originally trained as a teacher of German and English language in the UK and Austria in 2001, I have spent my professional life teaching language acquisition. From 2005 to 2022 I lived and worked abroad in Germany, Russia and Ukraine as an English language teacher; during this seventeen-year period I also considered myself a language learner, as I always felt that a vital aspect of overseas teaching is to learn and understand the local culture and language in order to better understand the environment in which I was teaching. The words of Kramsch (1996) resonated strongly within me in the context of an article on the cultural component of language learning, "If the ability to understand other cultures is itself mediated through language, then language teachers and learners may want to reflect on the social process of their own pedagogic enunciation." I developed great empathy with language learners that needed help and support to assimilate into a new culture, be that the culture of a school environment or moving to a new country.

I have taught English as an Additional Language (EAL) in a variety of education institutions, from secondary British and International Baccalaureate (IB) schools to adult English learners in the banking industry and upper primary school students in a private school. During this time, I began to observe key issues surrounding how EAL is implemented and started to wonder if there was much guiding research regarding EAL in international schools. Despite the wide range of research in EAL, in addition to English as a Second Language (ESL) and Teaching English to speakers of Other Languages (TESOL), covering a large area, research studies into EAL in international schools do not appear, in my experience, to inform EAL policy and practice. A study by Neal and Houston (2013) highlighted the lack of EAL research in international schools, especially with regards to EAL training for mainstream subject teachers.

I therefore began to explore the possibilities of planning and implementing my own research. I had, for example, observed that the relatively high turnover of staff in international schools frequently meant that students did not experience consistency in how their EAL lessons were implemented. The lack of guidance regarding EAL in both the British and IB international programmes meant that schools were largely responsible for the EAL programmes themselves and I observed how different these programmes were in schools, both in terms of policy and practice. I also began to wonder why so much EAL practice consisted of stand-alone English language support lessons that did not appear to be integrated into mainstream subject teaching; I wondered what exactly EAL lessons were supporting – were they for language acquisition in English, were they to improve students' grades in the mainstream? This did not seem clear to me and so I decided to embark on a Master of Arts degree in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL).

My MA TESOL course concluded in the final year with original research into a comparative analysis of stakeholders' attitudes of EAL as a subject in an international secondary school. The method of research that I used involved quantitative data collection by surveying five groups of stakeholders concerning EAL: parents of EAL students, secondary leadership including Middle Years Programme (MYP) and Diploma Programme (DP) coordinators, EAL teachers, teachers of English Language & Literature and teachers of other mainstream subjects. This was followed up with qualitative data from focus groups consisting respectively of EAL teachers, English Language & Literature teachers and teachers of other mainstream secondary subjects. The findings of this dissertation (Spencer, 2015) demonstrated that there were misunderstandings among some stakeholders regarding the purpose and practice of EAL within the school, that there were not enough EAL teachers despite the growing numbers of EAL learners within the school, and that some mainstream subject teachers did not recognise the language needs of their learners as strongly as the content knowledge that needed to be taught.

The dissertation concluded that international schools must support EAL learners with a clearly defined understanding of what EAL is for all stakeholders, and that more must be done to involve EAL departments in collaborating with mainstream subject teachers to support EAL learners. Upon completion of this original research I understood that I had many more questions that needed answering with regards to the teaching and learning of EAL in international schools and I decided to continue researching EAL by beginning a PhD in English language teaching and learning. I recognised that a teacher researcher can achieve a lot by pursuing continued action research (AR) while working in a school, and is well positioned to not only develop research questions at local level but also to be able to recommend changes and to develop an EAL programme to more effectively support EAL learners.

Developing my skills as a teacher researcher has been highly important to me in my teaching practice. As well as the professional growth and development it has allowed me, I believe it has made me a more reflective teacher and has further developed my understanding of the link between practice and student achievement. Furthermore, the nature of the action research I implemented, both at Master's and PhD level, provided me with the opportunity to contribute to the development of a professional community of collaboration between EAL and mainstream subject teachers and to raise the profile of EAL conscious teaching and learning within my school community.

This thesis begins with a literature review that draws on research surrounding the growth in English language provision in schools around the world, followed by a review of literature surrounding the increased movement of English language learners, as well as an insight into the recognition of diversity. Following a section on the development of the broad research questions for the thesis, the literature review continues with a look at the need for, challenges and benefits of action research. The main body of this thesis comprises three journal articles, formatted for individual academic journals. Following the main body of the thesis, the

conclusion begins with a reflection on the main substantive points from the research findings of each journal article. The conclusion continues with a detailed overview of the overall findings from the three articles, followed by a set of six recommendations formulated from the research findings. Finally, the conclusion ends with a coda on how international schools can utilise the recommendations set out in this thesis.

1.2 Literature review

This review begins by focusing on a definition of EAL learners, the growth in English language provision and the increased movement of English language learners worldwide. The text continues with a review of the recognition of diversity and how it affects teaching and learning, followed by a description of the development of the broad research questions for this thesis. The next sections of the review highlight the need for action research rather than theory, and reflect on the challenges of implementing AR and the benefits of AR in language teaching and learning.

1.3 Who are EAL learners?

Historically, there have been various terms to describe learners for whom English is not a first language. Leung (2012) described English Language Learners (ELL) as a term commonly used in the USA, learners who previously had been referred to as English as a Second Language (ESL) learners. Leung further described English as Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) learners, a term used for adult learners of English language in England, as well as the commonly used term English as an Additional Language (EAL) learners, used for school-aged students who had until the 1990s been referred to as ESL learners. Conteh (2015) described the acronym of EAL as an umbrella term, making the point that EAL learners are not one uniform group. The NALDIC glossary of terms (2015) described EAL as a term 'generally used to refer to learning English in an English-speaking environment, such as a school,' and that 'for some learners, English may be their third or fourth language.'

In this thesis, the term EAL is used as it not only reflects the name of the English language support course that student participants in this study were enrolled in, but also reflects the profiles of the multilingual students, many of whom learn English in addition to their home languages and languages they have learned living in other countries to Ukraine, where the

research took place. For many international school students English is not a second language as English is frequently a third or fourth language for such learners, as stated in the NALDIC (2015) glossary. As Conteh (2015) further outlined in a definition of EAL in connection with the profiles of English language learners, EAL learners can comprise ‘Learners who are in school settings with little prior experience of learning as bilingual pupils’ as well as those ‘who are already literate in their first languages’ (Conteh, 2015: 15). As Leung (2012) also stated, it does not necessarily matter which term is used as long as there is a consistently recognized term that can help to facilitate communication and disseminate information both nationally and internationally (Leung, 2012: 13). As this thesis seeks to research the practice of English language support within the context of a worldwide growing population of EAL learners, the notion of a consistently recognized term is highly important for the dissemination of the findings located within this thesis.

1.4 Growth in English language provision

EAL populations have grown exponentially in the last twenty years all over the world. With regards to curriculum inclusion of EAL learners, for example, the number of non-native speaker pupils in English schools was recorded in 2005 as 659,000, which was approximately 10 percent of the school population (Leung, 2005). This has now doubled to more than 1.6 million pupils who use EAL in maintained schools in England (Bell Foundation, 2022). Further afield, a paper by Benson, Chappell and Yates (2018) described what it is like for ELICOS (English language intensive courses for overseas students) students in Sydney, Australia. These students make up one quarter of all international students in Australia. The study aimed to explore how the city of Sydney is a context for language learning and to look at the relationship between the two (Benson, Chappell & Yates, 2018: 21). Sydney, with 35.8% of adults reported to also be fluent in another language other than English, can claim to be a multilingual city (Benson, Chappell & Yates, 2018: 21) – which is to say that ELICOS students are as likely to

encounter other languages as well as English in the areas of cities in which they live. Access and exposure to English outside of the classroom is naturally very important, yet many ELICOS students find gaining such access outside the classroom to be a challenge.

In addition to the growth in the need for English language learning in English speaking countries, the need for English language teaching has been expanding globally in non-English speaking countries in connection with the demand for international schools around the world. In 2013 alone, 45 new international schools opened in the United Arab Emirates and 43 opened in Brazil (ICEF Monitor, 2014). According to statistics from ISC Research (Hingston, 2022), the growth in international schools is stronger than ever, despite the COVID-19 pandemic. According to Hingston, as of August 2022 there were some 13,180 English-Medium international schools worldwide with 5.8 million students and 571,000 teachers; the rate of growth in the last ten years has been astounding, with the number of international schools and teaching staff increasing by 60% and the number of international school students by 53%. Possible reasons for the increase in the number of international schools include the perceived high quality of teaching and learning in international schools, as well as the increased wealth of many local families for whom an English medium education is high on the list of their priorities.

Despite this growth in international schools, there has been comparatively more research into EAL in the USA and the UK in the state school system than there has in international schools, as mentioned by Cameron (2006). This can be viewed as problematic when the majority of children in international schools are non-native speakers of English. In addition to this, Neal and Houston (2013: 2) observed that where EAL research in such schools exists, there are comparatively few studies in the development or integration of EAL within an international school context. EAL studies have generally focused on the role of the mainstream teacher rather

than how EAL functions as a support subject or department in international schools. Furthermore, Andrews' (2009) review of EAL research indicated in its findings that there are considerable gaps in the research of studies consisting of balanced qualitative and quantitative data and comparative studies.

The growing population of EAL learners is commensurate with the growing need to understand how best to meet their language needs. The rapid growth of EAL populations has seemingly not been met by a comparable growth in teachers trained in EAL strategies. There is, for example, in England no EAL specialism in initial teacher training (ITT) other than modules such as those provided by the Bell Foundation and no mandatory qualification (Leung, 2005: 98). Leung (2005) stated that by 2002 it was reported that only around 3% of specialist staff had appropriate qualifications to support EAL learners. Despite the fact that the National Curriculum (NC) for England's teaching standards clearly prioritise inclusion with regards to adapting teaching to respond to the needs of EAL pupils (DfE, 2011), there is a lack of training in ITT to enable student teachers to gain a clear understanding of how to expand their knowledge of the practicalities of EAL in a culturally diverse mainstream classroom (Sec-Ed, 2022). A study by Foley et al (2018) highlighted the value of EAL training in ITT with regards to the EAL Curriculum Extension course in Scottish PGDE (Professional Graduate Diploma in Education) training: 22 student teachers were involved in an optional EAL course, where they were instructed about ways in which they viewed the role of language in their subject fields, to explore sociocultural perspectives and practices, and to learn how to make effective use of this theoretical knowledge and apply it to classroom pedagogical practices (2018: 195). Of the 22 students who participated 77% of them rated the EAL Curriculum Extension as 'very useful indeed' (2018: 197), indicating that EAL training in ITT is both appreciated and beneficial to teachers entering education in terms of their ability to be able to support EAL learners in the classroom. A study by Conteh (2011) followed a student taking part in an EAL

additional experience pilot for primary student teachers at the University of Leeds where twelve out of fifteen students in the cohort said they would be interested in developing their knowledge of EAL in their career and pursuing professional development and higher qualifications in the field (Conteh, 2011: 33). It is therefore clear that there is a desire as well as a need on the part of student teachers to learn as much as they can to develop their understanding of how best to support EAL learners. An awareness of the frequent lack of EAL in initial teacher training, something students may not be aware of prior to courses and may experience in different ways in teacher training, as well as the reality that some teacher mentors are possibly not very aware of latest EAL practices, is crucial in understanding the root of a teacher's experiences of EAL.

1.5 EAL policy making

Clear and effective language policies regarding EAL practice are essential, considering the continued growth in need for EAL provision. However, there has frequently been a lack of consistency in the ways in which EAL policy has governed the teaching and learning of EAL. The greater consistency that there is regarding the implementation and interpretation of what EAL policy is, the greater the chances are that EAL learners will receive better coordinated EAL support (Foley et al, 2013). There is therefore a great need for a reform in how consistently EAL policies are implemented and followed. Ball (1997) stated the following regarding education reform policy, '…reform policies should operate in more or less the same way in whatever settings they are implemented' (1997: 265). Although there are many differences in the socio-cultural demographic of students and teachers around the world, Ball's message was that policies should be 'realised in the same way in every setting' (1997: 265). Ball further stated that problems, such as those issues related to supporting EAL learners, are often attributed to problems in the school rather than problems with policies, in other words that policies are seen as a solution and never part of the problem and that the problem is seen as

lying within the school (Ball, 1997: 265-6). Greater attention should be paid to the nature of appropriate and effective EAL policies in order to ensure greater consistency in supporting EAL learners effectively.

An example of the lack of consistency regarding EAL policy was highlighted in Guo's (2021) study surrounding the issue of EAL learner dropout rates in Alberta schools in Canada. Guo stated that the high dropout rate among EAL learners was as a direct result of unresolved tensions in EAL educational policy and practice (2021: 812), as there was a lack of consistency in EAL teaching and learning among schools in the province of Alberta, partly stemming from the fact that although policy and funding decisions regarding EAL are made at provincial level, it is for individual school boards to decide how EAL is delivered across districts (2021: 813). Furthermore, Demie and Lewis (2018) have described similar problems surrounding England's Department for Education (DfE) EAL policies, for example with regards to the way in which government policy has failed to recognize the positive force of diversity within schools (2018: 429). Additionally, Demie and Lewis have cited the DfE's policy in the past (DfE, 2012) of not encouraging schools to support an EAL learner's first language in addition to English, despite the wealth of research that supports the value of this (2018: 429-30). They also argued that more research is needed in order to understand how best to support EAL learners and that EAL researchers and professionals should be the ones to shape government policy (2018: 429-30).

Further afield, Rodriguez-Izquierdo and Darmody (2019) have argued for more consistent EAL school policies. In their study of policy and practice in language support for newly arrived migrant children in Ireland and Spain, they stated how there was no specific policy for supporting teachers who teach migrant students (2019: 47). They further stated that in both countries where the comparative study took place, the homogenous background of teachers was an additional disadvantage for teachers who had the responsibility for teaching newly

arrived migrant children due to the lack of understanding of their diverse backgrounds and cultures. The study argued for an official school policy on intercultural education that recognized the importance of the home language in connection with supporting EAL learners, and to ensure that EAL policies were created in order for all EAL learners to reach their full potential (2018: 49-51).

Furthermore, schools' EAL policies can appear somewhat elusive: a study by Foley, Sangster and Anderson (2013: 200) highlighted the issues for Scottish student teachers who struggled to find formal documentation on EAL in their practice schools or understand who had overall responsibility for EAL. A further study by Flynn and Curdt-Christiansen (2018) highlighted the issue in English state schools that mainstream subject teachers are frequently unaware or unsure of the EAL policies laid out by the Department for Education and consequently, as the findings show from the study's survey with teachers, interpret EAL policy at local level within the school. For example, the current DfE policy (2017) requires schools to collect data pertaining to EAL pupils' nationality and country of birth (Flynn & Curdt-Christiansen, 2018: 414). Furthermore, the Department for Education English Proficiency Scales (DfEPS), introduced in 2016, required schools to report data on EAL pupils' proficiency in English on a five-point scale. Flynn and Curdt-Christiansen (2018: 414) further explained that academies and free schools are not subject to any localised policy, for example in the teaching of EAL, and for state schools which are subject to localised policy guidance in EAL teaching is limited. A study by Premier and Parr (2019) demonstrated the role that clear EAL policy encouraged by a school's leadership team can play in nurturing collaboration between EAL and mainstream teachers.

International schools do not have to follow the same government laws or policies as, for example, state schools in the UK or US (Carder, 2008). As Lehman and Welch (2020: 1) have noted, it is frequently up to individual international schools to write their own formal language

policies, often for the purposes of achieving accreditation. They further described the common disadvantage that such an approach to policy making has, because when an EAL policy is seen as a means to an end, for example to gain accreditation, the purpose of the formal EAL policy can stop short of being implemented in practice (2020: 4). Crisfeld (2020) has further explored the nature of multilingualism in international schools, particularly with regards to the lack of general policies on bilingualism and has noted that support for bilingual development in international schools is 'voluntary, fragmented, and of varying quality and successfulness' (2020: 46). Coldham (2023) has more specifically focussed on EAL policy making in CIS-accredited international schools, highlighting the dominating monolingual and monocultural nature of some British international schools influenced by the English National Curriculum (NC). Such schools frequently hire UK trained teachers with experience teaching in the UK system before they relocate to work abroad, which generates a considerable 'UK culture' in the schools. Coldham stated that the teaching and learning experience such teachers received in the UK is then replicated in the environment of a British international school. Coldham argued that the negative impact of a British international school adopting English NC EAL policies with no thought to the linguistic and cultural identity of the country in which it operates translates into 'belief systems and national ideologies' which may not suit the cultural and linguistic environment of an international school far from the shores of the UK (2023: 9).

Carder (2014) described the changing nature of EAL provision in international schools. By the 1980s it was recognised that there was a significant number of EAL learners in international schools and that something needed to be done to improve on the contemporary models of pull-out classes, peripheral to mainstream subject classes (Carder, 2014: 2). Non-native speakers of English can be just as academically proficient as native speaker learners, and a lack of language skills should not be a barrier to accessing the mainstream curriculum. Carder further argued that, despite the fact that 90% of international schools are English medium schools, EAL is

given low priority, especially in IB Middle Years Programme (MYP) schools where there are no direct guidelines of instructions. Carder's criteria for a well-designed EAL programme are: maintaining and developing fluency in the mother tongue; providing training in linguistic awareness for all staff; and providing parallel classes for beginner EAL learners and 'sheltered instruction' for intermediate learners for mainstream classes through the EAL teacher (Carder, 2011: 52). The term 'sheltered instruction', as defined by Krashen (1991: 183), includes the following: there is a focus on subject matter, not language; teachers make input more comprehensible, by including more comprehension checks and including more input information in the form of pictures, charts and realia. Sheltered instruction remains, as stated by Buxton and Casswell (2020: 560), the most common method of supporting both language and content learning for multilingual learners; this is achieved by a process of integrating language supports into the mainstream classroom (Daniel & Conlin, 2015: 170). Carder additionally argued that motivation is a deciding factor in progress in language learning and that inadequate provision for EAL learners, resulting in poor grades merely due to lack of language skills, is highly demotivating.

Where EAL is well funded with specialist teachers and there is a strong sense of understanding in EAL policies, collaborative planning flourishes and benefits all teachers involved and, most importantly, EAL learners. Lack of collaboration between EAL and mainstream teachers frequently leads to a lack of the necessary strategies required to support EAL learners in the mainstream classroom. Leung's research (2005) surrounding inclusive education regarding EAL provision considered that expertise is in short supply and that the need for a differentiated curriculum regarding lexical support and academic genres has not been addressed. In addition, late entry learners have difficulty accessing the NC and that immersion in the mainstream without sufficient language support is a significant challenge for EAL learners. Although inclusion based on all learners being taught the NC English programme has done much to

eradicate the stigma of immigrant learners and racist attitudes (Leung, 2005), there has not been enough focus on language teaching for EAL learners in the mainstream. There is a need for more explicit development of EAL teaching and learning within the mainstream curriculum context.

1.6 Increased movement and identity of English language learners

The increase in movement in the post-World War Two era, alongside the continued domination of English as a global language, has seen an unprecedented demand for English language learning, as demonstrated by the rise in the number of international schools using English as a medium of instruction (EMI). The term 'privileged migrants' (Fechter & Korpela, 2016: 2), i.e. those who are professionals and choose to move around for economic and aspirational reasons, or for a more meaningful life, describes an identity that students bring to an international school. As described by Fisher, Evans, Forbes, Gayton, Liu and Rutgers (2022: 4) individual learner identity is influenced by the sociocultural environment they find themselves in. Tarhan and Balban (2014: 186) further expanded on the notion that institutional and contextual practices are key in terms of understanding EAL learner identity; understanding the relationships between individuals and their communities is important in the context of the linguistic community of an international school, which as Norton (2010: 350) mentioned, is relevant to understanding the relationship between language and identity. For EAL learners their language ability, or lack thereof, frequently defines who they are.

The complexities of understanding an EAL learner identity within an international school environment are many. Sears (2011: 74) mentioned how understanding such students with multiple identity positions is a very under-researched field. Students who have moved once or twice identify strongly with 'home' as the home country whereas those who have moved around a lot more consider 'home' as a shifting concept in a life of constant mobility (Sears,

2011: 81). Sears' study proposed that 'stories', i.e. life stories, were crucial regarding understanding such children's lives and identities, and that students expressing a narrative, understanding or exploring their own narratives, was key. The study concluded with the finding that young people find assurance in the normality of the international school community. Some students spoke of maintaining different parts of their lives, or identities, in a kind of balance (Sears, 2011: 84).

An additional factor surrounding international school students' identity is the phenomenon of Third Culture Kids (TCKs). The term Third Culture Kids was first applied in the 1960s by Useem, Useem and Donoghue (1963) to describe a study of Americans living in India who behaved differently to how they did back home in America. There are many more TCKs around now than when the concept was first introduced and these TCK students have been referred to as global nomads (Walters & Auton-Cuff, 2009: 1). Furthermore, the nature of TCKs as 'cultural chameleons,' as described by Tanu (2008: 3), can lead to them developing a high level of intercultural sensitivity, picking up knowledge of cultures, languages, mannerisms and the ability to blend into their surroundings. The cultural capital, a concept coined by Bourdieu (1977) to describe the social assets of a person, they can contribute is a strong force in international schools. Chalmers and Crisfield (2022) have commented on the irony of the monolingual culture that exists in many schools, especially when there are students who have experienced schooling in a number of different countries, as is typical in international schools, and they can have a positive influence on the learning environment of a classroom (Mali, 2021).

As well as certain advantages that they experience, such as the ability to adapt to different cultures as well as acquiring sensitivity to the cultures they find themselves in, one of the greatest challenges they face is finding a sense of self-identity (Walters & Auton-Cuff, 2009: 2). As Baumeister (2011: 48) has defined, self '…begins with the physical body, with acting and choosing as a unity, and as a point of reference distinct from others, and it acquires

meaningful content by participating in the social system.' As EAL learners in international school environments may have changed schools and countries several times, the social systems they face will differ and finding a sense of self-identity within new school contexts can prove to be a challenge. A rationalisation for this might include the fact that as they are always on the move, they may not completely understand a culture or develop fully within in it before they have to move on. They may ask themselves, "Who am I really? Where do I fit in? What is my place in this world?" (Walters & Auton-Cuff, 2009: 3). Their self-identity is in constant flux (Tanu, 2008: 4) and the identity crisis that many TCKs experience in international schools can present difficulties, particularly if they are EAL learners. EAL learners must navigate the difficulties of fitting into a new culture with the added burden of coping with the demands of settling into a school that uses EMI. Norton and Toohey (2011: 419-20) further referred to the notion of context pushing back on individuals and the identities they wished to claim, e.g. the rejection felt by EAL learners if they cannot cope with the demands of an EMI curriculum.

Nevertheless, increased movement is naturally not solely focussed on privileged migrants in international schools. Other kinds of migrant children with EAL needs must adapt to a new culture, such as mentioned in a study by Dewaele and Van Oudenhoven (2009) of seventy-nine young London teenagers from immigrant backgrounds. The research aimed to look at the psychological issues concerning TCKs and how they are able to adapt or fit in. The group consisted of some students who were born in London, of both Caucasian and Asian origin, and some who had moved there. All were in ninth grade at a Roman Catholic school in London. The students were given a personality questionnaire to complete: open-mindedness, cultural empathy, social initiative, flexibility and emotional stability were measured in a multi-cultural personality questionnaire. The results showed that certain personality traits lent themselves to multilingualism and multicultural understanding, such as a sense of open-mindedness and a propensity for cultural empathy.

It is therefore crucial to highlight the changing nature of identity with regards to the increased movement of English language learners. Despite the ability of many TCKs to find that balance in understanding between their home culture and that of the new culture, there are many who are conflicted between the two. For TCK EAL learners who have the added challenge of coping with the language of the mainstream subject classroom, it is vital to recognise that as well as a cultural need to fit in, there must also be a focus on how their linguistic needs play a role in allowing them to settle into the diverse environments of their schools.

1.7 Recognition of diversity

Broadly speaking, many societies in Europe and all over the world are culturally and linguistically diverse, frequently but not exclusively due to immigration (Gogolin, 2011; Tualaulelei & Halse, 2021). Silverman (2010: 295) referred to diversity as 'differences among groups of people and individuals based on ethnicity, race, socioeconomic status, gender, exceptionalities, language, religion, sexual orientation, and geographical area.' Many societies do not recognise these differences and therefore many education systems are based on a homogenous society that are all the same, or that singular cultures and languages are the norm. Consequently, issues related to cultural and linguistic diversity have remained at the margins of educational reform efforts in many countries (Cummins, 1997: 105). Sweden and Germany, both of which have significant numbers of migrant children in their schools and societies, are examples of western democratic societies that have such education systems (Gogolin, 2011). Going back to the 1700s it has been considered that a single language and a single cultural identity has always been interpreted as a nation with a strong sense of culture. Such school systems make difference look like a disadvantage (Gogolin, 2011: 240).

Many cultures exist, however, where such a notion of a linguistically homogenous society is not the norm; whereas such societies are not monolingual, education often is. Le Ha, Kho and

Chng (2013) described the politics of English as a medium of instruction (MOI) citing Kachru's (1985, 1986) 'three circles of English' (Le Ha, Kho & Chng, 2013: 59): the inner circle where English is the native language of instruction (Australia, Canada, USA, UK), the outer circle where English is used as a second or official language, e.g. in former colonies (Malaysia, Singapore, India), and finally the expanding circle where countries use English only as a foreign language (Japan, Vietnam, China). It is noted however that since Kachru and the increase in globalisation, the borders of these circles have been blurred (Le Ha, Kho & Chng, 2013: 59). Language policies of countries have also played a role in blurring these boundaries, such as in Indonesia or in post-Soviet countries. There are serious political issues regarding a country and its language policies in schools, such as social equality, cultural identity and ethnic and border relations.

Super diversity touches on, but not exclusively, similar themes to the aforementioned issues. The term super diversity is defined as a complexity of orientations, cultural and linguistic heritages which constitute reality in societies and, as a mirror of these, their schools (Gogolin, 2011: 241). Many attitudes towards diversity are strictly binary, whether monolingual or bilingual, or native speaker or not. This is frequently seen as a constant feature of schools and is a feature that is deeply embedded in many cultures. Super diversity by definition considers the changing nature of migration, such as the multiplication of variables (Gogolin, 2011: 241) that affect where, how and with whom people live, and in schools where, how and with whom people teach and learn. Super diversity can be viewed as a concept that has replaced the idea of multiculturalism. This means an increase in the categories of migrants, i.e. freedom of movement rather than the more traditional variant of economic migration. With populations communicating more and more in a variety of ways – Facebook, online games, using mobile phones – Blommaert and Rampton (2012: 14) have argued that societies should move away from 'language' in the strict sense towards 'semiosis,' in other words to allow for the

production of meaning in the learning of languages for the diverse and multilingual populations of English language learners.

The reality of super diversity in the twenty-first century demonstrates that in both state schools and international schools around the world linguistically diverse learners are the new norm. The recognition that language and culture are inextricably interwoven highlights a need to focus on language support for students who come from a wide variety of backgrounds and find themselves learning in a new culture that frequently differs greatly to their home culture. This has enormous implications for both EAL and mainstream teachers; from the perspective of EAL teachers this means supporting EAL learners to both develop their language skills and to collaborate with mainstream teachers to ensure that the context of their developing language skills are relevant to the content being taught in the mainstream classroom. For mainstream subject teachers there are significant implications: such teachers face the reality that not all learners in their classrooms can access the content that is taught due to the range of differing language abilities, the need to collaborate with English language specialist teachers to ensure that their lesson planning accounts for a balance between subject focused and language focused teaching (Stoller, 2002; Davison, 2006; Creese, 2010), and the need to have a clear understanding of their role in the EAL process (Neal & Houston, 2013).

1.8 Developing broad research questions for the thesis

As a result of the literature surrounding the increase in movement of professionals around the world and the growth in numbers of international schools, commensurate with the growing need for EAL provision in such schools, my research commenced with the following broad research question which aimed to understand from the mainstream teacher point of view their role in the EAL process:

What are mainstream subject teachers' experiences and attitudes towards EAL learners and EAL collaboration?

In order to approach an understanding of this from a mainstream subject teacher perspective, it was necessary to investigate the experiences and attitudes of mainstream teachers in my school who had responsibility not only for teaching their content but also for the language needs of their EAL learners. I wanted to determine how well qualified teachers were to conform to a profile that is claimed in many international schools: every teacher is a language teacher.

In addition to my investigations surrounding mainstream teachers, I surmised that it was imperative to involve the students themselves in my research project and to facilitate dialogues with them. As a result of the literature surrounding the recognition of diversity, I wished to understand from the students' perspectives what their understanding of EAL was in terms of a subject that is implemented to support them not only in their language acquisition but also as a mechanism of support across the curriculum.

We live in an age where the celebration of diversity is a key feature in many aspects of life (Aylward & Mitten, 2022; Eaton, 2022; Goering, Resnick & Bradford, 2022), and this research project aims to identify whether that celebration of diversity extended to international schools understanding and utilising the linguistic and cultural diversity that EAL learners contribute. I sought to understand how significant cultural capital, linguistic heritage and home culture are as innate elements of what it means to be an EAL learner at an international school. I wished to know what these elements meant to EAL learners and how they viewed the subject of EAL, as well as their place in the international school communities they found themselves in. I therefore developed the following broad research questions for this second stage of my research project:

How do EAL learners identify in the context of their learning community? What is their place in the international school community? What importance is placed on the home language and culture?

My aim regarding the broad research questions in connection with mainstream teachers and EAL learners was to understand as best I could what their experiences and attitudes were towards EAL from the perspective of the key stakeholders with whom EAL teachers work.

1.9 The need for action research rather than theory

In order to answer the research questions the necessary methodology was action research (AR). AR played a vital role in all three articles in my thesis. This section describes the literature that drove the research and data collection methods throughout my doctoral studies, culminating in the third and final broad set of research questions. AR was important in all stages of my research and the final stage, as described fully in a later section, involved an AR investigation into collaboration between EAL and mainstream teachers.

The implementation of AR is a common method of research for classroom practitioners, involving participation, reflection and empowerment (Berg, Lune & Lune, 2004: 195). Used in social science studies, often in study situations such as clinics and nursing, it can help to activate the kind of social change that may be necessary. Analogies have been made between the medical profession and the teaching profession, in other words that a teacher seeking to understand teaching and learning more deeply is rather like a highly qualified doctor that seeks to make patients better by interacting with them, rather than by lecturing on the subject and publishing articles on how doctors could make people better. Thus, Lytle (2008: 373-374) argued that practitioner inquiry (PI), a form of AR which focuses on the professional context as the research site and where practice is the focus of the study (Cochran Smith & O'Donnell, 2006), can help make learning better. The use of PI can also lead to a more positive

understanding of teaching in challenging circumstances. Furthermore, Lytle (2008: 376) argued that small, seemingly trivial, studies of students' attitudes can, over time, provide invaluable sources of communicative information that can elicit real change in educational practice. Such a method of AR can contribute to teachers' desires to activate change and to be proactive in doing something about it (Lytle, 2008: 378).

Much importance is placed on teacher-based research in terms of teachers being expertly positioned to understand what works in classroom practice rather than in theory. Bridging the gap between theory and practice is vital for English language teacher researchers to develop and implement changes in EAL programmes; for example, Alexakos (2015) cites Tobin's (2006) forays into the classroom and how difficult it appeared to be to put theory into practice regarding what he taught his student teachers. Research on teaching is described as objective and detached whereas research by teachers is subjective and personally involved (Alexakos, 2015: 26). The argument has been made that research should not only borrow from scientific methodology but should also be grounded in a creative and socially interactive way at one's institution (Alexakos, 2015: 27). Borg's (2009) research described English language teachers' conceptions and attitudes towards teacher-research. The study into these conceptions comprised a programme of research among 500 teachers from 13 countries. The aim of Borg's research was not to prove the importance of teacher research but to understand more about what is feasible with regards teacher research. A questionnaire was circulated enquiring about teachers' conceptions and understanding of research within their field, followed up by face-to-face interviews where teachers were given the opportunity to expand on their answers to the survey. Teachers highly rated the need to apply research findings in a practical way in the classroom, demonstrated a lack of understanding of the term 'making findings public' and a lack of a perceived connection between reflective practice and research.

Longer term research projects have investigated the roles of stakeholders in teacher research. Mitchell (2003) was involved for over fourteen years in the Project for Enhancing Effective Learning (PEEL), leading teacher research groups in local schools. Mitchell's study explored the roles of four different stakeholders in teacher research: teacher-researchers, school level admin, system level officials and university-based educators. Mitchell identified a continuum: at one end teachers who were engaged in acquiring higher level degrees and whose research projects enabled them access to guiding literature and at the other end teachers engaged in what he termed 'highly reflective practice,' i.e. teacher researchers who are not involved in gaining higher degrees but reflect on their own practice. Mitchell argued that the kind of research that continues year upon year is the kind that stems from reflective practice, in addition to which it was argued that teacher research can focus more on the way students learn and develop new practices to deal with lack of student engagement (Mitchell, 2003: 201). Wagoner (1993) likewise has stated that teacher research generates knowledge that is qualitatively different from that generated by academic research.

1.9.1 Challenges of implementing action research

There are significant challenges in creating a culture of teacher research within a school, such as cost, time, good will among staff, and peer and leadership support. Teacher research can be viewed as a separate genre to that of academic research as it cannot be compared to the given standards of academic research and such standards should not be imposed on teachers. Their ownership of independent research would be compromised by the input of the academic advice on how to share such teacher research. There are also significant challenges of conducting AR within the context of doing a full-time job, a clear example being the time constraints, as mentioned by Denny (2005: 9), of a teacher requiring an additional fifteen to thirty-four hours to complete a draft of findings from questionnaire data. Teachers frequently have a lack of research experience and the teachers on the research project about whom Denny wrote,

generally felt that input from colleagues regarding research methods rather than from more experienced researchers was not adequate for their research needs (Denny, 2005: 8).

Organisational challenges when working as a research team, e.g. balancing the roles of teacher, examiner and researcher and the time at which consent for research can be approved (Denny, 2005: 9), as well as organising data gathering tools are further problematic issues surrounding AR. A chapter by Burns (2009) titled 'What is Action Research?' described the difficulties for teachers as researchers. Time constraints and being put off academic research due to what was taught in teacher training being very different to the practice of teaching are a key factor in discouraging teachers to carry out AR. One model of AR described as 'Planning, Action, Observation and Reflection,' adapted from Kemmis and McTaggart (1998: 11-14) has been viewed by some as too prescriptive and AR should be viewed as being something flexible that should be done in accordance with the teaching situation. Some of the discussions, recommendations and conclusions from the experience of doing action learning and AR include an awareness of external pressures, such as power relations in a school, the need for release time to do the research, and the availability of appropriate resources, both technical and human.

1.9.2 The tangible benefits of action research in language teaching and learning

The ownership of and responsibility for teachers developing EAL strategies is a key issue for educational institutions. Innovation in EAL teaching which explores change, development, novelty and improvement is something that has long been perceived as being distinctly lacking and the sole responsibility of the EAL teacher (De Lano, Riley & Crookes, 1994). Researchers have argued that change has always been possible and is more likely to be accepted, and therefore effective, when all teachers at a given institution feel they have an active role in all stages of the process (De Lano, Riley & Crookes, 1994: 491). Individual teachers must play a

role in effecting innovation and must be involved at all levels in bringing about changes to their programmes with regards to implementing EAL strategies (De Lano, Riley & Crookes, 1994: 495). Innovation must change at all levels, it must be a cyclical process of revision and innovation should constitute improvement (De Lano, Riley & Crookes, 1994: 495). This kind of cycle highlights the possibilities of addressing language learning in the mainstream classroom, as well as allowing teachers the possibility to reflect and act upon changing practice in a methodological way. Nunan cited three main uses for AR within language teaching (Nunan, 2006: 4):

1. Teachers learn more about their own theories and frames and can modify them.
2. What counts is how theory becomes practice within their frames.
3. The teacher as researcher, or as in reflection in action, can facilitate change.

Nunan also cited the problems of teachers committing to AR, including a lack of time, lack of expertise, lack of ongoing support, and the fear of being seen as an incompetent teacher, as well as the fear of publishing their findings.

Further research has also assessed the merits of AR in language teaching. Burns (2005: 60-62) cited Brumfit and Mitchell (1989: 3) with regards to teachers and the responsibility of monitoring their own teaching and being engaged in research in their own classrooms. Since the late 1990s there has been a steep increase in the number of studies in language teaching by the classroom teacher (Burns, 2005: 62). However, Burns described the dangers of viewing AR as a professional growth model (as mentioned in Crookes, 1993) rather than benefiting from a gain in knowledge of pedagogy or curriculum and educational forms. There is a danger of AR becoming the very thing that AR seeks to avoid, when it should be implemented to bridge the gap between external academic research and the need to improve pedagogy at an internal level (Burns, 2005: 63). Nevertheless, Burns described further benefits of AR: Australian teachers

reported that AR encourages deeper engagement with one's own classroom practices, teachers experience less isolation and more sharing with colleagues. There is a raised sense of personal challenge and professional growth and a heightened awareness of the external factors which influence the classroom (Burns, 2005: 68). Teachers feel that they gain a deeper understanding of their subject by the growing reflective nature of their practice and gain more reliable feedback on their teaching rather than the more anecdotal kind (Denny, 2005: 9-10). The benefits to teachers being able to reflect on their current practice and how it can be improved, can lead to positive change and raise awareness of the complexities of one's subject (Burns, 2009: 6-7).

The two main aims of action research are suitable for the aims of my research project, firstly to uncover information, generate data and gain an understanding of EAL stakeholders in the school and, secondly, to enlighten and empower stakeholders, motivating them to take up and use the information gathered from the research (Berg, Lune & Lune, 2004: 197). Given the clear advantages that a practising EAL teacher possesses in being well positioned to implement research, I determined that as an international school EAL teacher researcher I would focus on implementing a change in how EAL functioned in my school. As head of department, I was in a position to be able to make significant changes towards developing a different, more collaborative, model of EAL support in the secondary school through co-planning and co-teaching with mainstream subject teachers who had EAL learners in their classes. I tracked this developing EAL model through my regular field notes in collaborative meetings as well as holding reflective discussions with my mainstream and EAL colleagues. I subsequently developed the following broad research question:

> Which co-planning strategies are most effective with regards to EAL and the mainstream?

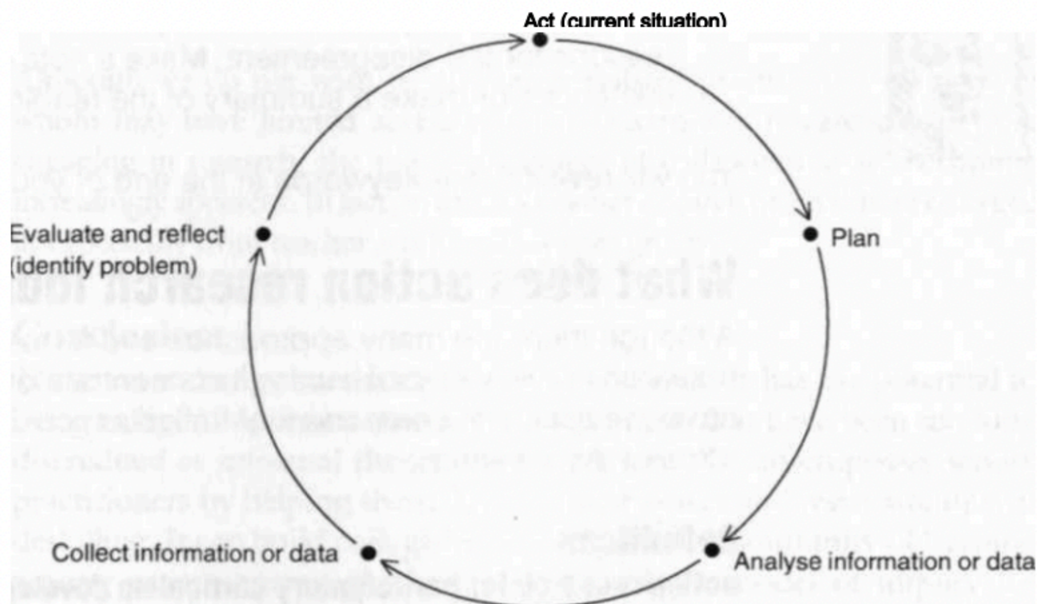
I have always considered my research project as a means to effect real change in the implementation of EAL. Implementing AR throughout my research project allowed me to not only understand the challenges of transforming EAL practice to be more collaborative at local level, but also to develop a set of recommendations as to how my research can be a catalyst for international schools to look at their own EAL programmes and potentially change the model they use based on my recommendations. Figure 1. below represents an overview of my research process using AR.

Figure 1. Overview of research process.

Article One
• First read of literature
• Literature review drafted
• Pre-piloting of quantitative questionnaire
• Piloting of quantitative questionnaire
• Quatitative data collection: my school & CEESA schools
• Focus group qualitative data collection
• Review of data, draft of findings
• Completion of article and submission to journal
Article Two
• First read of literature
• Literature review drafted
• Piloting of language portrait method and focus group with teachers
• Language portraits and student interviews
• Data coding using Taguette
• Review of data, draft of findings
• Completion of article and submission to journal
Article Three
• First read of literature
• Literature review drafted
• Co-planning and collaboration with lang & lit teachers
• Field notes made in planning meetings
• Reflective discussion on quarter one collaboration
• Begin co-planning with science teachers
• Begin field notes with science teachers
• War in Ukraine disrupts collaborative process
• Second reflective discussion on quarter two collaboration
• Reflective discussion with EAL teachers on collaboration with mainstream departments
• Transcripts of discussions made. Qualitative data coding
• Review of data, draft of findings
• Completion of article and submission to journal

As I developed and improved my AR research method, I followed an AR cycle method such as in Figure 2 below, as illustrated in Kerfoot and Winberg (1997: 31). Acting on the literature review and coding the emerging themes (see Appendix 9), I followed this by the planning of the data collection methods through piloting, analysed the data through a method of coding (see Appendix 17) to understand the emerging themes of the data before evaluating and writing up the data findings and completing each individual research article for the main body of this thesis.

Figure 2. The action research cycle (Kerfoot & Winberg, 1997: 31).



The action research cycle.

Figure 3. below demonstrates my own research cycle method that I developed as I completed the research for my three research articles. Using this method of a research cycle allowed me to develop a systematic method that considered an original inquiry of a current situation, followed by the implementation of a research design in the form of an answer to the research

questions I had developed, followed by the data findings written as a research article that I could publish in order to disseminate the information of my research findings.

Figure 3. Overview of research cycle.

The implementation of such an action research cycle allowed me to develop the questions I needed to ask teachers and students in my research studies by following an AR process as outlined by Rigsby (2005), as mentioned in Stipe and Yasen (2012: 21): the teacher develops the first question or puzzle, followed by the action research version of the question, culminating in the hypothesis or strategy version of the question. The intended aim of my implementation of AR would allow me to bring practical improvements to the teaching and learning of EAL in my school community (Ali, 2020). As Aytac (2016) mentioned, AR is a 'cyclical activity involving the examination of existing processes, change to the process and the monitoring of the apparent effects of the change and future change.' A key aspect of my research involved not only researching the current situation of EAL in my school, but also to effect long term change in practice with regards to how EAL learners are supported in the mainstream classroom.

1.10 Intended contribution of three articles

One important aim of the three articles in the main body of this thesis is to ultimately demonstrate the possibilities that are within the grasp of every EAL teacher that works in an international school setting. Whether a doctoral student or not, I believe that there are practices of research within this thesis that could be conducted by any EAL practitioner. Given the lack of AR surrounding EAL teaching and learning in the international school community, this thesis explores, through three research articles, the possibilities that are open to EAL and mainstream subject teachers with regards to developing the practice within their school communities by examining how EAL functions and how changes can occur in order to support EAL learners more effectively.

This thesis sets out to understand through the three articles why there is frequently a lack of understanding and collaboration regarding EAL and the mainstream. The issues surrounding mainstream teachers' understanding of EAL learners and how to support them are investigated. Further issues surrounding EAL learners' understanding of EAL and its purposes are explored, as well as the linguistic and cultural capital that EAL learners bring with them to an international school community and how effectively that knowledge is utilised with regards to English language support. Furthermore, an investigation of EAL collaborative strategies and the experiences of co-planning and co-teaching demonstrates both the challenges and the opportunities that are possible with regards to developing an EAL programme that has the support of the learners at the heart of a school's teaching and learning.

Finally, this thesis contains a set of recommendations drawn from the findings of the three articles for international schools to utilise as a way of reviewing and developing their EAL programmes. The concluding section sets out recommendations based on the improvement of understanding better practice in the mainstream for supporting EAL learners, recommendations

for enriching the learning environment through the understanding of EAL learners' linguistic and cultural capital, and recommendations for international school leadership teams to enable them to deliver more EAL conscious teaching in their schools through their language policies.

1.11 Three research articles as the main body of research

1.11.1 Article One. Understanding EAL: International Secondary School Teachers' Experiences and Attitudes in Ukraine and Eastern Europe

At a relatively early stage of this research project, I understood that the thesis by article route would be the most appropriate as I realised that there would be three clear parts to the research: research conducted with teachers, research conducted with EAL learners, and research into collaborative practice between EAL and mainstream teachers. The more I researched into the literature surrounding EAL and, more specifically, EAL research in international schools, the more I understood that I would primarily need to develop an understanding of how EAL functions in such schools from the point of view of teachers in the first stage of the research. It was important to understand attitudes towards and experiences of EAL from the perspective of mainstream subject teachers who teach EAL learners.

The first article aimed to highlight the need to understand mainstream international secondary school teachers' attitudes to and experiences of accommodating English as an Additional Language learners. The article also explored what current collaborative relationships there were between mainstream and EAL teachers in terms of co-teaching and co-planning. The following research questions were formulated following the literature review:

1. How well qualified are mainstream subject teachers in teaching non-native English speaking learners?
2. What are mainstream subject teachers' attitudes towards EAL learners?

3. How do mainstream subject teachers collaborate with EAL teachers?

The article drew on data collected from a quantitative questionnaire (see Appendix 1) sent out to secondary teachers in my school and to other IB international schools in Eastern Europe. The questionnaire investigated English language training in education, attitudes to EAL in mainstream subjects and participants' experiences of collaboration with EAL teachers. Following the quantitative data collection, further follow-up qualitative data were collected from a focus group in my school which further investigated the topics of competencies, responsibilities and collaboration with regards EAL in the mainstream classroom.

The use of a questionnaire as a quantitative research method allowed for analysis on the basis of asking a fraction of a particular population (Dörnyei & Csizér 2012: 74-75) and was informative about the following with regards to EAL: participants' opinions and attitudes concerning the language learning process; participants' beliefs about language issues, and knowledge of the issues in second language acquisition. Key strategies regarding the design of the questionnaire included the following: use short simple items; avoid ambiguous or loaded words and sentences; avoid negative constructions; avoid double-barrelled questions; stay within a four-page limit; personal background questions are best left to the end (Dörnyei & Csizér 2012: 78).

The questionnaire was pre-piloted via an online conversation with a group consisting of three PhD students specialising in quantitative data research and two lecturers from the department of Language & Linguistics at a university in the south of England, one a specialist in quantitative research and the other my research supervisor. The pre-piloting was invaluable in terms of the discussions surrounding the formulating of the items, or questions, the order of the sections of the questionnaire and general flow of the items from start to finish. The research students were then invited to submit answers to a copy of the questionnaire in order for me to

see how the collected data would look once submitted. The questionnaire was then piloted with primary teachers from my school (see Appendix 2), mainly in order to gain feedback as to how understandable the question items were. The feedback obtained was again invaluable in terms of having a fresh set of eyes looking at the flow and the wording of the question items for clarity of understanding. This was essential as the questionnaire was to be shared not only with secondary teachers at my own school but with secondary teachers at schools in the Central and Eastern European Schools Association (CEESA).

The selection of the participants for the questionnaire was centred on all secondary teachers in my school, including leadership, e.g. MYP and DP coordinators and secondary principal, giving a potential sample size of 31 teachers. The questionnaire was shared with all secondary teachers at my school via the secondary principal in a staff meeting and they were asked to complete and submit the form in the meeting or in their own time; a teacher consent from was attached via a link (see Appendix 3). In addition to this selection, the same questionnaire was subsequently shared with all 20 other CEESA schools in the region (see Appendix 4), allowing for an unspecified but much larger sample. The questionnaire was shared in two ways: firstly, through my secondary principal sharing the questionnaire via the CEESA headteachers' listserve email group, to be then passed on to secondary teachers in their schools. The next method of getting the questionnaire to as many teachers as possible in CEESA schools was through sharing the questionnaire via the CEESA EAL listserve email group and inviting EAL teachers to forward it to teachers in their secondary schools. This two-pronged approach of sharing the questionnaire was to ensure that as many teachers in the CEESA region as possible would voluntarily complete and submit the questionnaire.

Following the quantitative data collection from the questionnaire, I began to analyse the data collected for each question in order to understand which key findings were emerging (see

Appendix 5). As data collection began as a quantitative analysis of the research questions as an overview of a large sample of data from 21 schools, I wanted to follow up the first set of data with the qualitative method of holding a focus group, allowing for an extension of understanding from the data that arose through the questionnaire. For example, I wanted to understand if the focus group could voice opinions regarding the data surrounding EAL push-in and pull-out support (see Table 2, p. 97). As Baecher and Bell (2017: 54) have stated, push-in support is described as the EAL teacher providing EAL support to a learner or group of learners within the environment of the mainstream classroom. This is frequently viewed as a more collaborative and inclusive mode of EAL support (Baecher & Bell, 2012: 489) as the learners remain with their peer group, as opposed to pull-out support where the EAL teacher removes the EAL learners from the mainstream classroom and provides separate language support in an EAL only environment.

I began to assemble the findings and notes I had made from the quantitative data and formulated focus group questions which were coded and organised into themes, for example English language training in education and attitudes towards EAL in mainstream subjects (see Appendix 6). This method allowed me to develop a set of focus group questions based on the quantitative data, from which I would gather further useful qualitative data in order to answer my research questions. As there were so many questions which evolved from this method, I began to use a coding method in order to organise and condense the focus group questions into sections and develop a logical flow of questions to enhance the focus group discussion (see Appendix 7).

The design of the focus group followed these principles:

- Attendance was voluntary.

- The discussion was to be moderated by myself but allowed to develop into any topics related to EAL in the mainstream classroom.
- A discussion time of between thirty and forty-five minutes.
- Participants understood that the focus group was to be recorded.
- Participants understood that their anonymity would be assured.
- Teacher consent was required (see Appendix 3).

The selection of participants for the focus group was centred on inviting one teacher from each of the following mainstream subject areas (see Appendix 8): mathematics, science, design technology, individuals & societies and the arts. English and foreign language staff were not invited as they did not have EAL learners in their classes and neither the head of EAL nor leadership teachers were invited in order to allow the invited speakers to speak more candidly about their attitudes and beliefs towards EAL. The head of EAL was invited to submit written comments to the same questions that had been prepared for the focus group. This would give the focus group five participants, a manageable number which allowed each participant to have their say, and which represented a cross section of all relevant mainstream subject areas.

Richards (2009: 149) made the case that qualitative research is locally situated, is participant oriented, holistic and depends on a process of interpretation. Olsen (2004) argued that the use of both quantitative and qualitative research methods can be brought together to shed light on any social research topics (Olsen, 2004: 105) and that the use of triangulation often leads to multi-perspective meta-interpretations (Olsen, 2004: 115). Given that both the quantitative and qualitative data in this paper required significant interpretative analysis, the use of triangulation was necessary in order for the more remotely led quantitative data to be compared to the more personal qualitative data.

As a result of the data findings the discussion section of Article One found that there was a lack of clarity with regards to where and how participants had received any training in EAL strategies. Furthermore, the data highlighted a lack of understanding as to what constituted EAL training that was relevant to working as a mainstream subject teacher in an international school. In addition, the article found that the notion of 'international school teacher as language teacher' was not always upheld and that there were apparent contradictions between teachers' attitudes towards supporting EAL learners and actual practice. Finally, the discussion found that opportunities to collaborate were frequently missed, with lack of time being the most significant barrier. The article concluded that the main challenge was how to transform the apparent willingness of mainstream teachers to support EAL learners more and to collaborate more with EAL teachers to find more permanent and practical solutions to collaborative planning and teaching.

1.11.2 Article Two. The Other Third Culture Kids: EAL learners' views on self-identity, home culture and community in international schools

The second article aimed to develop a better understanding of the identity of Third Culture Kid EAL learners in international secondary schools. Having compiled an annotated bibliography surrounding student-centred research, six themes emerged which would drive the research questions for this article (see Appendix 9). The coding of the literature helped me to develop research questions surrounding the internal forces of home culture and self-perceived identities as well as the external forces of the school community and the classroom that influence EAL learners in their language acquisition. The following research questions were formulated following the literature review:

1. How do EAL learners see themselves in terms of an EAL identity?
2. To what extent do social status and community influence EAL learners?

3. To what extent are the home language and culture influential in the language classroom?

The article drew on qualitative data from face to face interviews with individual EAL learners. The interviews investigated how participants viewed EAL as a subject and themselves as language learners in response to the research questions. The method implemented for the collection of qualitative data involved individual interview discussions with EAL learners from grades 7 to 10. I wanted a cross section of participants across as many grade levels from the Middle Years Programme (MYP) as possible. As this research study took place during the COVID-19 pandemic, and certain constraints were in place in my school due to social distancing rules, it was impractical to include grade 6 EAL learners as their experiences of EAL in the circumstances of the pandemic were not consistent with the experiences of EAL learners whom I had taught pre-pandemic.

I began the process of data collection by piloting the method of using language portraits (see Appendix 10) to guide a discussion on EAL with secondary teachers at my school. Language portraits are an effective method to allow participants to create pictograms of their language backgrounds, including colours, flags, key words and objects associated with how they use language, and to reflect on the languages they speak, whether fluently or as a language learner (Kusters & De Meulder, 2019) in order to promote greater awareness of the linguistic and cultural backgrounds of EAL learners (Coffey, 2015).

A group of 7 multilingual teachers were invited to participate in a discussion to answer questions that had been formulated and coded according to the research questions (see Appendix 11) about their linguistic backgrounds. This not only gave me a chance to explore the efficacy and practicalities of assigning the task of completing a language portrait, but also to hone the questions I was planning to ask the student participants about their experiences and

opinions of issues related to EAL (see Appendix 12). I decided to show examples of language portraits to only three participants before the piloting took place, the other four participants were given a brief verbal explanation of what a language portrait is. My main concern was that if participants were shown specific examples of language portraits that this would impair their ability to think and reflect creatively in order to create an original portrait. The piloting demonstrated that a brief description of what a language portrait is was sufficient for participants to create an effective and detailed language portrait of themselves (see Appendix 13). The piloting of the interview questions also allowed me to understand how to fine tune the questions so that participants would not misunderstand or misconstrue what I was asking them.

As the participants in this study were minors, a letter was sent to parents (see Appendix 14) explaining the purposes of the research, along with an example of the language portrait template and a parental consent form (see Appendix 15) that had to be signed before I began the interviews. The method of completing a language portrait was also to allow participants time to reflect on their linguistic and cultural backgrounds – students were given a week to complete the task – which would allow participants to open up about their own linguistic backgrounds before responding to a set of questions centred around their experiences and opinions of EAL. The questions were finalised from the guiding literature and from the focus group piloting (see Appendix 16).

Student interviews, beginning with a discussion surrounding their language portraits followed by the interview questions from which data was to be collected, took place over a period of six weeks. The face to face interviews with participants were recorded in order that I could have transcripts made and would not have to take notes during the interviews; I was therefore free to focus on holding the conversations rather than recording responses during the interviews. Once I received the transcriptions of the interviews I was able to begin to code and cross

reference responses from different grade levels according to the research questions (see Appendix 17). As I coded the data from the transcripts I was able to generate tables, graphs and quotations from the qualitative data in order to demonstrate patterns and themes from the participant responses. Furthermore, this method enabled me to formulate the discussion of the data findings by cross-referencing them with the guiding literature (see Appendix 18).

The data findings demonstrated an invaluable insight into how EAL learners viewed themselves and the subject of EAL in relation to the research questions. As a result of these data the discussion focused on the disconnect between the internal and the external forces that TCK EAL learners experienced. The article found that this disconnect manifested itself thusly: the vast majority of participants did not believe that the cultural capital of their home language was useful in learning English. The data discussion found that despite much literature recognising the link between strong home language skills and the ability to learn other languages well, this message was not getting through to the participants. The conclusion of the article focused on the key message that policy makers, leadership teams in the case of international schools, must do more to ensure that students understand and utilise their cultural capital in order to gain access to academic success. Furthermore, more integrated collaboration between EAL and mainstream teachers would foster greater understanding of the internal forces and cultural capital EAL TCK learners bring with them to ensure more effective language learning in the external force of the language classroom.

1.11.3 Article Three. Working together: why language policies of international schools must evolve to incorporate collaborative strategies between EAL and the mainstream

The third article aimed to develop a better understanding of how essential collaborative relationships are between EAL and mainstream subject teachers at the international secondary school in Ukraine I was working in. The research focused on how EAL learners are supported

in the mainstream classroom through collaborative practices. In order to answer the broad research question surrounding which co-planning strategies are most effective with regards to EAL and the mainstream, the following research questions were formulated from the literature review:

1. How does EAL and mainstream collaboration help support EAL learners in the mainstream classroom?
2. Which co-planning strategies most effectively encourage collaboration?
3. What are EAL and mainstream teachers' opinions and experiences about co-planning and working collaboratively?

The article drew on qualitative data from interviews and field notes with language & literature, science and EAL teachers. Gathering data through the repeated practice of field notes and interviewing, as described by Copland and Creese (2015), allows for the collation of different descriptions of developing situations and events in order to record and track the experiences of collaboration. I wanted to investigate the real-world contexts of the realities of mainstream subject teachers' experiences from the participants' perspectives (Maybin & Tusting, 2011). It was therefore important to build strong relationships with mainstream subject teachers through regular co-planning sessions and to conduct reflective discussions on the practice of collaboration in order to better understand the nature of local instances of language use and the effect that collaborative strategies have on them (Perez-Milans, 2016). Developing such routines of practice (Hammersley, 2009) was key to gathering meaningful data on the developing collaborative partnerships between EAL and mainstream subject teachers.

Article Three described the changing nature of the EAL programme at my school. As all secondary school students were now to be enrolled in the language and literature course, including EAL learners, it was necessary to develop collaborative strategies between the EAL

and language and literature departments in order to support EAL learners in the subject. Developing a strong collaborative relationship between these departments would be key; firstly, because EAL learners had never studied the subject before and secondly, because any success in collaborative strategies could then be utilised with other mainstream subject departments. The first data to be collected with regards to the beginning of this collaborative relationship was a set of field notes that I made during our weekly collaborative planning meetings (see Appendix 19). Each set of field notes had a set agenda of points of discussion surrounding collaborative planning, as well as notes and observations made during each meeting.

Following the first quarter of collaboration between the two departments, I developed a short set of reflective questions for a focus group discussion (see Appendix 20). I wished to maintain consistency with the questions I asked and, although the questions were altered due to the nature of the developing collaborative strategies, the four questions in the first reflective discussion were asked in every subsequent focus group discussion. The COVID-19 pandemic continued to significantly impact on teaching and learning, as well as my continuing PhD research, and my school closed for three weeks in November 2021 due to a spike in COVID numbers. I therefore adapted my method to holding the focus group reflective discussion online in order to ask the questions (see Appendix 21). Following the focus group discussion, I had transcripts made of the focus group data and began to code and organise the responses under different headings, such as ‘helpful,’ ‘positive,’ ‘time.’ The coding enabled me to compare the reflective discussions to my field notes in order to understand the themes which were emerging through the developing collaboration (see Appendix 22). After quarter one, I began to work with the science department and also implemented the same method of field note-taking and organised weekly co-planning meetings. My intention was to begin collaborative planning between the EAL department and all mainstream subject departments throughout the school

year and to build on the development of effective collaborative strategies throughout the secondary school.

The threat of war in Ukraine in February 2022 significantly disrupted my research process as teachers and students had to leave the country with immediate effect. Following the outbreak of war in Ukraine, the nature of the developing collaborative relationships was adversely affected as the school went into remote learning mode and teachers had to cope as best they could with the situation. The disruption to the developing collaborative strategies meant that the roles of mainstream subject and EAL teachers reverted back to the previous roles of a disconnection between language and content: mainstream teachers sought to continue their content teaching under extremely challenging circumstances and EAL teachers attempted to attend their lessons as a source of support, for example in breakout rooms, to support EAL learners. Nevertheless, the reflective conversations surrounding the collaboration that had taken place before the period of remote learning continued and data was collected through online discussions with EAL and mainstream subject teachers.

As a result of these data the discussion of Article Three focused on the great value that EAL and mainstream subject teachers placed on co-planning, as well as the complementary roles both teachers can have in the mainstream classroom as long as lessons have been carefully co-planned in advance. The discussion also found that there had been a significant shift in focus towards language in the language and literature classes, which had been achieved through the use of differentiation strategies. Furthermore, the data found that as positive the experience of collaboration had been, finding the time to co-plan was challenging. Some teachers also voiced frustrations that the support EAL learners were receiving was disproportionately high to that of non-EAL learners who they felt also deserved attention and guidance. Additionally, the field notes data demonstrated that some mainstream subject teachers did not always understand their role in the language process and were keen to offload the responsibility for planning and

differentiating onto EAL teachers. The article concluded that although effective collaborative strategies often exist and can be developed between EAL and the mainstream, school language policies need to include scheduled collaborative planning time between EAL and other departments. Furthermore, the conclusion of Article Three found that professional development in EAL strategies for mainstream teachers is a necessity in order to negate the frustrations that were voiced in the study. The article argued that such training should be led 'in-house' by EAL teachers who know the school and the teachers well. Mainstream subject teachers trained in up to date EAL methodology would contribute greatly to fostering more balanced content and language classroom teaching in order to better support EAL learners in the mainstream classroom.

1.12 Thesis outline

Chapters 3, 4 and 5 present three original research articles as the basis for the main body of this thesis. Each article refers to the literature surrounding the broad research questions set out in this introduction, describes the methodology of the research implemented and the focussed research questions based on the literature, followed by a discussion of findings section and a conclusion. Article One in chapter 3, published in the Journal of Research in International Education in August 2021, was written and formatted according to the author guidelines for that journal. Article Two in chapter 4 was published in TESOL Journal in February 2022 and written and formatted likewise according to the guidelines of that journal. Article Three in chapter 5, written and formatted according to author guidelines, was submitted to the Journal of Research in International Education in September 2022 and will be published in December 2023. Chapter 6 outlines the conclusion of the thesis, with a description of the substantive points and the overall findings drawn from the three journal articles, followed by a set of recommendations for how international schools can develop an effective EAL programme. The

thesis ends finally with how international schools can utilise the recommendations set out in this thesis, as well as future directions in EAL.

Chapter 2: Methodology

2.1 Introduction

This chapter will demonstrate how the research methodology guided the data collection and analysis for the three articles in this thesis. Chapter One offered a literature review regarding guiding literature surrounding English language teaching and learning, as well as the literature surrounding AR. This chapter will demonstrate how the knowledge gained from the guiding literature was transformed into an action research study through a mixed methods research design. As mentioned by Kivunja and Kuyini (2017: 26), a research paradigm includes the beliefs and principles of how a researcher wishes to act and interpret practice within their worldview. I will demonstrate in the following sections how and why a mixed methods approach was formulated in order to implement the data collection and analysis for the three articles in this thesis.

This chapter will include sections on the research paradigm and design, as well as on researcher reflexivity. The data collection methods, as well as a description of the data instruments and a rationale for those, will be described. Furthermore, a description of the research ethics will follow regarding the issues surrounding this study. The chapter will continue with a description of the data collection procedures, data collection site and participants, followed by a justification of the data analysis and a section on trustworthiness. The chapter will conclude with a section stating how the research methodology impacted on the three articles in this thesis.

2.2 Research paradigm

The chosen methodology in this thesis is formulated from the notion, as suggested by Atkinson and Coffey (2002: 803), that a research paradigm is dependent on the research problem as to

which data collection methods are best served. Mixed methods research (MMR) involves collecting, analyzing, interpreting and reporting both quantitative and qualitative data (Dawadi & Shrestha, 2021: 26), and it has been argued in much of the literature on research methodology (Bryman, 2006; Cresswell & Garrett, 2008; Khaldi, 2017) that the method of combining both quantitative and qualitative data leads to a better understanding of research problems.

Mixed methods research (MMR) focuses on what is appropriate and what works in relation to specific research questions and the contexts in which they are asked (Riazi & Camdlin, 2014: 138). MMR aims to bridge the poles of positivism, for example studies of society that rely specifically on scientific evidence using experiments and statistics, and constructivism, wherein researchers seek to understand the experience of research participants in order to discover the participants' truth or perceptions (2014: 138). This thesis therefore follows a pragmatically-oriented MMR approach which, as described by Hafsa (2019: 46), allows researchers to focus on the research problem rather than concentrating solely on methods and procedures, allowing researchers to utilize all approaches to probe into a research issue. As Dawadi and Shrestha (2021) have further argued, Pragmatism allows the researcher to gather all sorts of data to best answer the research questions using a MMR design approach. Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009: 86) asserted that Pragmatism rejects the dogmatic either-or choice between positivist and constructivist paradigms, and searches for the most practical answers to questions that intrigue the researcher. Creswell and Plano Clark (2011: 41) further stated that Pragmatism is 'pluralistic and oriented towards what works and practice,' an approach which enables the researcher to utilize methods that are guided by the research problems rather than entirely guided by the dogma of a research methodology. The research paradigm of Pragmatism in conjunction with MMR therefore drove the research design in this thesis.

2.3 Research design

Research design, as described by Faryadi (2019: 770-1), generally includes the following:

1. Topic of research
2. Research problem, questions and hypotheses
3. Review of current literature
4. Theoretical framework or methodology
5. Data collection and testing if any
6. Data analysis
7. Results

As this thesis follows the article-based thesis approach, the three respective articles as presented in Chapters 3, 4 and 5 utilized these research design principles, although not identically and the MMR data collection was different in each article. The research questions for each article were drawn from the guiding literature, and the methods used for data collection in the three articles differed. For example, Article One (see Section 3.4, p.90) utilized both quantitative and qualitative data collection which, as argued by Hashemi and Babaii (2013), enabled the use of triangulation, the rationale for which firstly enabled a strength and validity to the research through mixed methods (Olsen, 2004; Richards, 2009; Khaldi, 2017; Pardede, 2019), and secondly allowed the results of one method, the quantitative data, to inform the shape or use of another method, the qualitative data (Hafsa, 2019: 45-6; Dawadi & Shrestha, 2021: 28), referred to as explanatory sequential design. The implementation of explanatory sequential design in Article One, the method of beginning with quantitative data collection followed by qualitative data collection on the basis of the quantitative data findings, allowed for the drawing of integrated findings after combining two sets of results after the qualitative phase was completed (Hashemi & Babaii, 2013; Hafsa, 2019; Dawadi & Shrestha, 2021: 29). This method proved crucial in order to elicit more detailed data through participant focus groups following the emerging themes from the quantitative survey datasets. This extension of

data findings following a MMR approach allowed for a greater understanding of the validity, meaning and reliability of the quantitative dataset.

The framework of explanatory sequential design was similarly implemented in Article Two (see Section 4.5, p.114-15). Data collection in Article Two involved the use of individual participant interviews and generated qualitative datasets which, as Richards (2009) has argued, make significant contributions, especially in the form of mixed methods research. Although the data collection for this article consisted solely of qualitative data from participant interviews, the transformation of a qualitative dataset into counted codes in the form of tables and figure graphs was presented in the data findings as quantitative data (Dawadi & Shrestha, 2021: 29). This enabled the research findings of multiple participant interviews to be presented in a clear and concise way in order to understand the patterns and themes that emerged from the data in accordance with the research questions. The research design for Article Three, similarly to Article Two, consisted solely of qualitative data collection, but in a different way. The nature of the data collection differed as it consisted of a set of field notes compiled during frequent co-planning meetings between myself and mainstream subject teachers, as well as the qualitative data collected from reflective focus group discussions. The qualitative data collection in this third and final article can be viewed as a contribution to the overall MMR methods used throughout this thesis; the differing approaches in the research design of each article demonstrates the flexibility that a MMR approach allows in order to answer the overall research questions, and gain a better understanding of the research problems (Cresswell & Garrett, 2008: 322; Hafsa, 2019: 46; Dawadi & Shrestha, 2021: 26) as stated in the introduction section to this thesis.

2.4 Researcher reflexivity

There are significant implications for the design of a research study in the role of a teacher researcher. Considering the factors that influence the construction of knowledge in the research process, reflexivity, as mentioned by Guillemin and Gillam (2004: 275), involves 'critical reflection of how the researcher constructs knowledge from the research process…and how these influences are revealed in the planning, conduct, and writing up of the research.' As a teacher at the international school where my research took place, there were significant implications during the research design as to what effect my role as a teacher and a colleague would have on the participants in this research study. There is a myriad of questions a teacher researcher may ask of themselves, as cited by Davis (2020), regarding the intentional and unintentional influence a teacher researcher may have on participants who are their colleagues and students, ranging from 'How does my professional background influence my relationship with the participants?' and 'What are the possible advantages/disadvantages that I have in terms of personal history and professional competence?' to 'What might be the triggers that my personal/professional history can influence during the research?' (Davis, 2020: 12).

I was aware while I prepared and subsequently distributed the questionnaire for the data collection for the first article that the styling of the question items must set the right tone in order to avoid problems faced by interviewees, such as not understanding the questions or being unwilling to answer them (Becker & Geer, 1957). It was therefore crucial to formulate questions that were not only straight forward to understand without any jargon, but also did not come across as judgmental in any way. Likewise, a reflexive approach was needed while preparing for the focus group discussion. As mentioned by Guillemin and Gillam (2004: 276), it was crucial as part of the reflexive process to predict consequences that may have arisen from how I organized the focus group discussion. I purposefully did not invite the head of EAL to take part as I needed the participants to feel comfortable enough to answer the discussion questions as honestly as possible without fear of offending anyone. Likewise, I sought to echo

the qualities of a good researcher as listed by Davis (2020: 6): be a good listener, be sensitive and compassionate.

As my research was entirely conducted at the school where I worked and, in Article One, with schools that had close ties in the surrounding region of eastern Europe, the notion of positionality and the implications of my relationship to my participants played a significant role. As Fenge, Oakley, Taylor and Beer (2019) have stated, positionality involves the insider-outsider relationship that the researcher has to their participants within the community they are located. My role as a colleague and a teacher to the participants in my research has parallels with the many insider-outsider studies that have been conducted in relation to positionality; for example, Lam's (2018) study of an EAL teacher who had responsibility for teaching EAL students who had a similar immigrant background to himself, reflects my own background as a language learner in relation to my EAL learner participants. This understanding of my student participants allowed me to formulate my research design with the compassion, patience and understanding that I knew was required when conducting student interviews. However, I was also an 'outsider' regarding the different perspective my state school education allowed me in comparison to the privately educated students I interviewed.

Pang (2018) has further discussed the advantages and disadvantages of the insider/outsider positions that researchers experience. For example, when interviewing my own EAL students for Article Two, I was aware that some students might be answering the questions according to how I, as their teacher, expected them to answer. I therefore endeavored to keep the questions as neutral in tone as possible and to keep questions based on opinion to a minimum. The position of 'insider' researcher further allowed me to reflect on any uncharacteristic behaviour on the part of my students and colleagues during the qualitative data collection in Articles Two and Three. As I conducted my field notes and held reflective discussions with my colleagues for Article Three, I was able to observe over a lengthy period of weeks and months how themes

and patterns emerged in their responses to questioning in planning meetings and reflective discussions. I was frequently aware, because I was working in the school, of any extenuating circumstances that may have led to uncharacteristic behaviour. I therefore attempted to maintain a healthy balance between being an 'outsider' researcher, i.e. keeping a neutral and professional stance as a PhD student during all data collection, and being an 'insider' researcher, i.e. forging close working relationships with colleagues from whom I could regularly request the good will and extra time required of them in order to conduct my research.

2.5 Research ethics

In all stages of the research for the three articles in this thesis, I received ethical approval from the University of Essex in order to procced with data collection. With this ethical approval I was able to approach the principal at the school where the research took place in order to seek permission to commence data collection with both colleagues and students. Regarding the ethical issues surrounding the collection of data at the school, a guiding principle, as stated by Cacciattolo (2015: 55), involved ensuring that participants were safe from harm, and that at no stage of the data collection process and subsequent completion and publication of the data findings should participants feel vulnerable and exposed (2015: 56). For example, it was crucial while interviewing students in Article Two that they not feel pressurized into participating and that their anonymity was ensured. Likewise, it was important when compiling the research findings or writing the data presentations regarding colleagues who participated in Article One and Three not to be overcritical and to maintain a neutral and distanced tone in the completed articles (De Costa, 2014).

In addition to the procedural ethics, as described by Guillemin and Gillam (2004), involving the macro-ethical consideration of ethical approval from both my university and principal, the micro-ethics of the practice of conducting the research were followed, such as supplying a

project information sheet or a consent form. Once permission was granted in writing by the University of Essex and, at local level, by my Principal, at each stage of the research participants received an email from me briefly describing the nature of the research which explicitly stated that all participation was voluntary (see Appendix 2). For those participants willing to take part in the research, an information sheet and a consent form (see Appendix 3) requiring a signature were provided for participants. In the case of research conducted with students who were minors, the information sheet and consent forms were taken home by students who had agreed to participate to be signed by their parents. At all stages of the research such ethical practices were followed, as well as clear and transparent methods that allowed participants and parents of participants to ask any further questions via my own email address that was provided as well as that of my supervisor's. At no stage of any part of the research for this thesis did I lose any participants due to their not being happy with the ethical procedures. Once all ethical procedures were implemented, I was thus equipped to commence data collection.

2.6 Data collection methods

Implementing a MMR approach, the three articles comprised quantitative and qualitative data collection. Article One utilized both methods of data collection, firstly with a quantitative survey in the form of a questionnaire, and secondly with a focus group from which qualitative data was collected. The data collected from a questionnaire allows for the collection of meaningful data from a large number of respondents of a given population (Oxford, 1996; Codó, 2008; Yonggi, 2016). The use of questionnaire as a quantitative research method in the first article allowed for analysis on the basis of asking a particular teacher population and to inform about the following with regards to the EAL learning process (Dörnyei & Csizér 2012: 74-75): participants' opinions and attitudes concerning the language learning process; participants' beliefs about language issues; and knowledge of the issues in second language

acquisition. Key strategies regarding the design of the questionnaire included the following: use short simple items; avoid ambiguous or loaded words and sentences; avoid negative constructions; avoid double-barrelled questions; stay within a four-page limit; personal background questions are best left to the end (Dörnyei & Csizér 2012: 78).

The questionnaire was pre-piloted via Skype conversation with a group consisting of three PhD students specialising in quantitative data research and two lecturers from the department of Language & Linguistics at the University of Essex. The pre-piloting was invaluable in terms of the discussions that were had involving the forming of the items or questions, the order of the sections of the questionnaire and general flow of the items from start to finish. The research students were then invited to complete a copy of the questionnaire in order to see how the collected data for the items would appear once submitted. The questionnaire was then piloted with primary teachers from my school, mostly in order to gain feedback as to how understandable the question items were; the use of piloting was implemented in order to increase the quality of the research and inform the research process (Sampson, 2004; Malmqvist, Hellberg, Möllås, Rose & Shevlin, 2019). Once more, the feedback obtained was invaluable in terms of having a fresh set of eyes look at the flow and the wording of the question items for clarity of understanding. This was essential as the questionnaire (see Appendix 1) was to be shared not only with secondary teachers at my own school but with secondary teachers at schools in the Central and Eastern European Schools Association (CEESA).

In addition to the questionnaire, a focus group was subsequently formed from teachers in my school. The focus group was a means of discussing the various outcomes and themes that derived from the quantitative data more deeply. The advantages of forming a focus group at my school, as Richards (2009: 149) has mentioned, were that it was locally situated, participant oriented, holistic and inductive. The design of the focus group followed these principles: attendance was voluntary; the discussion was to be moderated by myself but allowed to develop

into any topics related to EAL in the mainstream classroom; a discussion time of between thirty and forty-five minutes; participants understood that the focus group was to be recorded; participants understood that their anonymity would be assured. The design of the focus group questions was formulated through coding the responses to the quantitative questionnaire data (see Appendix 6) and a potential flow of questions was designed (see Appendix 7) in order to maximise both the flow of discussion and the amount of qualitative data that could be collected in the limited time allowed.

Data collection for Article Two comprised of qualitative data from individual student interviews. As stated by Atkinson and Coffey (2002: 809), the use of interviewing is a method of generating accounts that have their own properties; in other words, they are a way of eliciting remembered accounts about previous actions. The questions for the student interviews were first piloted with a group of multilingual teachers at my school. The question items were created using coding from the research questions and were thematically put into order according to the codes (see Appendix 9). Teachers were invited prior to the group discussion time to create individual language portraits (see Appendix 13), the purpose of which was not to generate data but to enable participants to open up about their language profiles first so as to create an expansive mood and initial discussion about language acquisition. The piloting was invaluable in terms of gaining an insight as to how understandable the question items were, given that the data collection would come from students who would not be used to discussing language issues at length. Furthermore, it allowed me to understand how useful the implementation of language portraits was as a springboard into getting the participants used to talking about language before answering the interview questions (Coffey, 2015; Lau, 2016; Kusters & De Muelder, 2019). I subsequently followed the same method when interviewing students in terms of asking them to complete individual language portraits, eliciting an initial discussion based on the portrait, and then following up with data collection based on their responses to the interview questions.

The third and final article comprised of qualitative data collected by means of field notes and reflective discussion groups. The purpose of data collection for Article Three consisted of tracking an understanding of the evolving collaborative partnerships between EAL and mainstream teachers regarding co-planning. Furthermore, reflective discussions were also necessary as a means of understanding the efficacy of the emerging collaborative relationships and planning methods. Therefore, a linguistic ethnographic approach was used for this third article; linguistic ethnography, as defined by Hammersley (2007), views language as communicative action functioning in social contexts in ongoing routines of people's daily lives. In order to undertake an ethnographic study into the working relationships between EAL and mainstream teachers, it was necessary to develop qualitative collection methods which, as mentioned by Costley and Reilly (2021: 1042-3), allowed me as a teacher researcher to investigate the specifics of the institutional, policy and social contexts of my school. I therefore undertook a process of recording field notes during co-planning meetings, thereby developing a means of recording participant observations and conversations at the core of my data collection (Dewilde & Creese, 2016). As the processes of co-planning and collaboration between EAL and the mainstream were new in the school, it was crucial to use field notes to gather empirical data from the real-world context of regular planning meetings. It was necessary to collect data on the meanings and functions of human actions to try and understand participant perspectives (Maybin & Tusting, 2011: 539). After each stage of data collection in the form of field notes, approximately after each quarter during the school calendar year, focus group discussions were held in order to reflect on the efficacy of the collaborative processes that had been developing. The purpose of these reflective discussions was to ensure, as stated by Copland and Creese (2015: 41), that more interpretation and opinion could be elicited than was gained through observation field notes. The interviews also generated new angles and

findings regarding how mainstream teachers felt about the collaborative co-planning processes that had taken place (Copland & Creese, 2015: 29).

2.7 Data collection procedures

Data collection for Article One commenced with sending out the quantitative questionnaire. Having created the questionnaire on the school email domain, it was shared with secondary staff members in my school during an after-school staff meeting by the secondary school principal. It was explained that participation was entirely voluntary and that staff members could either spend time completing the questionnaire during the meeting or at a later time convenient to them. A reminder was sent out after one week, inviting any potential participants to complete the survey voluntarily. Once data collection was completed in my school, the same questionnaire was sent out to CEESA schools. The method of asking colleagues in CEESA schools was pursued in two ways: firstly, an email (see Appendix 4) was sent out by myself to ask EAL heads of department in each school through a CEESA EAL listserve group if they would forward the questionnaire to colleagues in their schools, this method was chosen as I had decided that many EAL heads of departments would not only find this research of interest but also would like to see the results; secondly, my principal also agreed to send the questionnaire and email out to secondary principals on their CEESA listserve which could potentially achieve as satisfactory a response in participant numbers as I had achieved in my own school through the staff meeting.

After the quantitative data collection was completed from my own school and participating CEESA schools, I invited a group of teachers from my school (see Appendix 8) to participate in a focus group in order to discuss in more detail the outcomes of the questionnaire data. Teachers were invited to a 30-40-minute focus group discussion which was recorded. The analysis of the transcripts of the recorded discussion formed the basis for the qualitative data

that would be used in conjunction with the quantitative data from the questionnaire in the findings of Article One.

Following the piloting of the qualitative research methods for Article Two, I asked EAL learners in grades 7 to 10 if they would like to participate in some EAL research. Students were given a blank language portrait to complete, along with an information sheet, consent form and letter to parents (see Appendices 14 & 15). Students were interviewed individually during class time and the interviews were recorded. This was made possible at the time because, due to COVID restrictions in place in the school, EAL and foreign language classes were mixed into independent study classes as students had to stay in the same cohort in the same room all day. This ruling meant there were a maximum of nine students in each classroom, allowing for a quiet environment in which to record interviews. The transcripts of the interviews were analyzed which formed the basis for the data findings in the second article.

Data collection for Article Three commenced at the beginning of the academic school year 2021-2. I began to make detailed field notes (see Appendix 19) every time the EAL and mainstream subject departments had collaborative planning meetings; such meetings typically took place every two to three weeks. The field notes generally were organized into a brief agenda for the meeting and what we needed to collaboratively achieve in our planning, followed by notes I took on what was discussed, and ending in my own observations about how the meeting went and points to move forward regarding future planning.

Following each quarter, I organized reflective discussions with mainstream subject colleagues. The purpose of these discussions was to collect qualitative data which could be recorded. I prepared a set of four simple reflection questions (see Appendix 20) in order to ascertain colleagues' opinions with regards to how they felt the previous planning stage had worked out in the classroom. These reflection questions were the basis for each of the reflective discussions

that took place over the school year, although they were modified according to the challenges of online learning once the war in Ukraine had begun. Once I had transcripts made of the discussions (see Appendix 21), I was able to create notes for the purposes of analyzing the qualitative data in connection with the field notes data I had collated.

2.8 Data collection site and participants

All of the data was collected at the international school where I worked in a major city in Ukraine; the exception was Article One where data was collected from my school and from CEESA schools. Table 1. below demonstrates the breakdown of participants for the quantitative and qualitative data collection for Article One.

Table 1.

Summary of total number of participants in the study

	International IB school in Ukraine	CEESA schools	Focus group
No. of participants	23	33	5

The participants for Article Two data collection comprised secondary EAL learners from grades 7 to 10. Table 2. below demonstrates the breakdown of participants for Article Two as well as a breakdown of their language acquisition phase level ranges.

Table 2.

Summary of total number of participants in the study.

Grade	Numbers of males	Number of females	MYP English Language Acquisition phase level range
7	0	5	3-5
8	2	1	3-5

9	2	4	3-5
10	2	2	5

The participants for Article Three data collection consisted of mainstream subject and EAL secondary teachers. Table 3. Below demonstrates a breakdown of the departments I worked with regarding data collection field notes and reflective discussions.

Table 3.

Summary of total number of participants in the study.

Language & Literature teachers	Science teachers	EAL teachers
3	4	2

A further important aspect of time spent in data collection throughout the third and final article is demonstrated below in Figure 1., which shows the timeline of the data collection process throughout the school year. The information in Figure 1. also highlights the challenges to data collection with relation to the ongoing school closures due to the COVID-19 pandemic, as well as the commencement of the war in Ukraine.

Figure 1.

Timeline of data collection with participants.

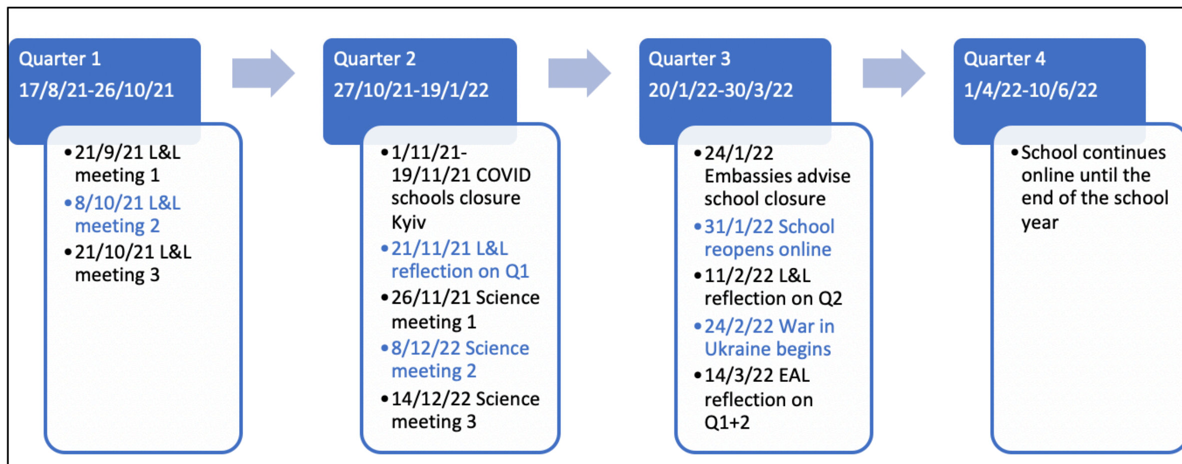


Figure 1. represents the debt of gratitude I owe to my colleagues who continued to meet with me online after the war started. Because of their generosity and dedication to the collaborative planning processes that we had begun, I was able to continue to hold reflective discussions with my colleagues despite the challenging circumstances of teachers and students being relocated around the world in different time zones.

2.9 Data analysis

Upon completion of the first phase of data collection for Article One, I compiled the quantitative data from the questionnaire onto a new document (see Appendix 5) for both the data received from my own school and from that of CEESA schools. Alongside the quantitative data findings, I made comments in the form of observations regarding the emerging themes in order to ascertain, for example, how consistent the two data sets were with each other, or how they differed. Furthermore, I was able to observe how the data findings looked in relation to the research questions that had been developed following the literature review. This analysis of data regarding the responses to all the questionnaire question items was crucial in order to move onto the next data collection method which involved preparing questions for the focus group discussion. The analysis of the quantitative data allowed me to formulate questions according to the codes that had been developed from the questionnaire data (see Appendix 6).

The next step was to create a potential flow to the focus group discussion for the purposes of facilitating a discussion that would enable qualitative data collection in order to answer the research questions, for example the first set of coded questions were organized into a section (see Appendix 7) that would investigate teacher competencies regarding the teaching of EAL learners and this served as a means to gain qualitative data regarding the first research question: 'How well qualified are mainstream subject teachers in teaching non-native English speaking learners?' With both quantitative and qualitative datasets completed, I was able to compare the similarities and differences between the two datasets in relation to the research questions; this analysis following a mixed methods approach was crucial in order to better understand the data findings in relation to the research questions as I was able to establish significant differences between responses from the quantitative data and the qualitative data. For example, where participants in the quantitative data had expressed overwhelming support for push-in and pull-out strategies with regards to supporting EAL learners, the qualitative data from the focus group revealed significant concerns regarding such strategies. The analysis of comparative datasets therefore allowed for a more comprehensive and detailed discussion of the data findings in the discussion section of Article One (see Section 3.6, pp.101-2).

The analysis of the qualitative data in Article Two was aligned closely with the method of developing the research questions from the literature review. I had begun the process of developing the research questions by a process of coding a student-centred annotated bibliography (see Appendix 9). Once I had highlighted the emerging themes from the literature, I was able to develop three research questions based around the emerging themes. The questions that were subsequently developed according to the coded themes formed the basis of the piloted focus group questions (see Appendix 12) that would ultimately be developed into the interview questions for qualitative data collection with student participants. With the completion of qualitative data collection, I analysed the transcripts of the student interviews

across the four grade levels by a process of coding student responses according to the interview questions in relation to the research questions. For example, with regards to the research question of ‘How do EAL learners see themselves in terms of an EAL identity?’, I coded the responses in relation to the interview questions ‘What makes an EAL learner? What is an EAL learner in your own words?’ in order to discover common factors in the data across all grade levels (see Appendix 17). This allowed me to count the frequency of responses in order to formulate the data into representative tables and graphs for the purposes of demonstrating the data findings. Furthermore, the overview that this analytical method of qualitative data allowed me, aided the development of the discussion section of Article Two by comparing my data findings to the literature that had guided the original research questions (see Appendix 18.).

Data analysis for Article Three involved a comparative qualitative data analysis of field notes and reflective focus group discussions. Following the collation of field notes at each stage of the research process, a reflective discussion was held regarding the collaborative planning process between EAL and mainstream teachers. Transcripts were made of the discussions and I was subsequently able to analyse the responses and code the data according to emerging themes in relation to the research questions. For example, quotes from the quarter one reflective discussion were coded into subsections, such as ‘helpful’, and ‘positive’ (see Appendix 22). I was therefore able to analyse how teachers viewed the collaborative support strategies in connection with the first research question of ‘How does EAL and mainstream collaboration help support EAL learners in the mainstream, classroom?’ The duality of coded focus group quotes alongside quotes from my field notes allowed for a clear presentation of both qualitative datasets in response to the research questions.

2.10 Trustworthiness

There are a number of key considerations regarding trustworthiness in relation to this thesis which uses a mixed methods approach. As Anney (2014) mentioned, there have for some time been numerous discussions surrounding the trustworthiness of qualitative data collection methods. Anney (2014: 273) further stated that trustworthiness in quantitative research proposes reliability, objectivity and validity to ensure trustworthiness, in contrast to that of qualitative research which proposes dependability, credibility, transferability and confirmability.

A number of procedures supporting trustworthiness were followed throughout the process of research in this thesis. For example, in order to create the questionnaire for quantitative data collection in Article One, I met with a group of postgraduate research students online from the University of Essex. As Elo, Kääriäinen, Kanste, Pölkki, Utriainen, and Kyngäs (2014) have stated, to ensure credibility the researcher must choose the best data collection methods possible in order to answer the research questions. By discussing my quantitative data collection methods in the form of a draft quantitative questionnaire, I was able to hone and improve the methods by which I would collect the data. Furthermore, after the initial quantitative data collection for Article One, the responses from the questionnaire were shared in discursive form with the focus group during the qualitative data collection process. This method of member checking, described by Kornbluh (2015) as consisting of researchers following up with participants to verify that the findings reflect the participants' meanings, was crucial as a means of informing the discussion of the focus group for the purposes of qualitative data collection. This method also aided in the purpose of sharing the background as to why I was asking the specific questions in the focus group that were derived from the questionnaire data. The reliability of the data was therefore strengthened as the discussion among professional colleagues concerning the quantitative data outcomes enabled an open discussion with regards to the themes and issues surrounding EAL. This enabled a robust method of

qualitative data collection regarding an educational topic that was familiar to them in their professional working lives and which could be framed according to the outcomes of the quantitative data.

A further example of the sharing of ongoing data collection involved the process followed in Article Three with regards to the focus group discussion. It was made clear to participants that field notes were being written during the collaborative planning sessions and the notes were discussed in connection with the discussion questions during the reflective discussions. This aspect of confirmability of data (Anney, 2014: 287) in the form of a reflexive journal aided me as a researcher to cross check both sets of data and, subsequently, to write the third and final article. As more and more colleagues became involved with the research that contributed toward the final article, it was crucial to ensure that data collection via my own field notes and the reflective discussions was done in an open way to enable trust with the participants and to share the developing themes that were emerging in planning meetings as well as in focus group discussions.

Throughout my time as a PhD researcher, I was fortunate enough to be involved in an annual EAL conference where I twice presented posters to conference participants of my ongoing research, including my data collection methods and outcomes. Furthermore, I presented the completed third article at one of the conferences where I was able to share the outcomes of the completed data collection and participants were able to question and challenge me on my findings regarding the completed article. Such a form of peer examination aimed a focus on both dependability and transferability (Anney, 2014: 284-5); firstly, the peer examination at a conference allowed me to gain feedback from fellow researchers whose critical questioning and feedback further contributed to my deeper reflexive analysis, and secondly, by presenting a clear description of my methodology and context in thick description, fellow researchers in

similar circumstances would be able to replicate my research studies according to their differing contexts and settings.

In addition to the more public discussion of my research methods and findings, the open nature of all stages of data collection allowed participants to ask questions about not only the data collection methods but the results of data collection either in person or through my email address that was made available to them. At every stage it was clearly stated to participants that while any feedback and discussion of the developing research was most welcome, it was entirely voluntary and participants could, as mentioned by Shenton (2004: 66-67), be encouraged to contribute their own ideas and reflections on the research data, but could at any moment withdraw from participation. The consequences of such an approach allowed both for the safeguarding of participants and to maximize the potential for willing participants who were genuinely interested in the themes, findings and outcomes of the research, leading to more trustworthy datasets.

2.11 Conclusion

This chapter has demonstrated how the chosen mixed methods research paradigm was utilized for the research design and subsequently informed the data collection methods, procedures and analysis in the three articles which constitute the main body of this thesis. The pragmatic-oriented approach to MMR, as demonstrated, allowed for the flexibility of the implementation of an overall MMR approach throughout the three articles without being tied to one specific method of data collection article by article. This holistic approach to the MMR paradigm also allowed for the individualistic nature of the development of the three separate articles at each stage of the overall research cycle, also enabling the three articles as a whole to tie in with the broad research questions as stated in the introduction to this thesis. The reflexivity and ethical procedures implemented contributed to the efficacy of the research undertaken to ensure the

quality of the mixed methods approach. Each article in the following three chapters demonstrates how the chosen mixed methods were implemented in order for effective data collection and analysis to occur to answer the individual research questions in each respective article.

Chapter 3: Article One. Understanding EAL: International Secondary School Teachers' Experiences and Attitudes in Ukraine and Eastern Europe

3.1 Abstract

This article highlights the need to understand mainstream international secondary school teachers' attitudes to and experiences of accommodating English as an Additional Language (EAL) learners, and what current collaborative relationships there are between mainstream and EAL teachers in terms of co-teaching and co-planning. The article draws on data collected from a questionnaire sent to secondary teachers at an international school in a major city in Ukraine and to other international schools that offer International Baccalaureate programmes in Eastern Europe. The questionnaire investigated English language training in education, attitudes to EAL in mainstream subjects and participants' collaboration with EAL teachers. Further follow-up qualitative data collected from a focus group in the school in Ukraine investigated the topics of competencies, responsibilities and collaboration with respect to EAL in the mainstream classroom. Building on this data, the discussion ultimately focuses on the challenges for mainstream teachers and how collaboration with EAL teachers is often confused and lacks definition in terms of current practice and ways forward. Recommendations for next steps of research are made.

3.2 English as an Additional Language contexts

The population of English as an Additional Language (EAL) learners around the globe is expanding. In his *Review of Research in English as an Additional Language* (2009), Andrews cited figures drawn up by the National Association for Language Development in the Curriculum (NALDIC) from an audit of EAL implemented in 2008. The review stated that from 2004 to 2008 there was a population increase in EAL learners in the UK of twenty five percent. The audit findings indicated a population of over one million EAL learners, who speak some three hundred and sixty languages in primary and secondary schools (NALDIC, 2014: 3). As of 2020 there are 1.56 million EAL learners in England aged five to sixteen, and in around one in eleven schools EAL learners constitute over fifty percent of the school population (The Bell Foundation, 2020).

Schools in Canada, the USA and Australia are comparable with regards to expanding populations of EAL learners. Recent figures (Cardoza, 2019) describe thirty percent of state school children in Canada as immigrant or having one immigrant parent, with twenty three percent of school children in the USA also falling into that category. A study in Australia by Gilmour, Klieve and Li (2018: 172) demonstrated that forty nine percent of the population were either born in another country or had one parent born in another country. Twenty one percent of the population spoke a language other than English at home, thus demonstrating an ever-increasing number of school children classed as having English as an Additional Language or Dialect (EAL/D). The growth in EAL learners in schools is therefore a global one and not confined to any one English-speaking country or region.

There is a wealth of teacher-led action research undertaken in the USA (see for instance De Lano et al, 1994; Mitchell 2003; Lytle et al 2009; Borg, 2009) and Canada (as discussed in Giampapa, 2010; Cummins & Persad, 2014), promulgating a clearer understanding of EAL, as

much of the research comes directly from classroom practice. Such papers commonly describe school districts that have a very high percentage of immigrant children who are EAL learners. Evidence of the problems involving EAL in mainstream classrooms in the US is palpable – mainstream being defined as the central portion of students and classes that do not have special educational needs, such as learning disabilities or language needs (IGI Global, 2019). Descriptions of the varying degrees of success of teacher-led models, involving collaboration between EAL and main- stream subject teachers, are evident in the research.

In comparison to the studies relating to EAL in the USA and Canada, Australia and the UK have seen comparatively little teacher-led research into teachers' attitudes to EAL learners in the mainstream classroom (Dobinson & Buchori, 2016). There is a lack of recognition of EAL/D learners' needs in the monolingual classroom (2016: 33) as well as a lack of a clear plan for how EAL teachers should support mainstream teachers (Carder, 2008). This is despite the growth in numbers of EAL/D learners, which is as high in Australia as it is in the USA and Canada. The UK has also been indicated as having specific gaps in EAL research with regards to understanding how EAL is implemented in the mainstream classroom. This is in addition to the training needs there might be for better supporting EAL learners in mainstream subjects and encouraging more collaboration between EAL and mainstream teachers. Despite the growing need for EAL provision in the UK, the NALDIC audit also indicated the following specific gaps in EAL research (Andrews, 2009: 9):

1. a) Little research into pedagogic practices has been conducted in EAL teaching involving more than individual case studies, involving larger-scale studies, longitudinal studies, studies with a balance of qualitative and quantitative date and comparative studies.

2. b) There is a gap in studies that focus on the 11-18 age group; there is little or no research into the professional development needs for teachers involving EAL issues.

3. c) A lack of research into plurilingualism and its practices. All in all, this leaves a picture of highly differing levels of research into EAL in English-speaking countries around the world.

As well as in English-speaking countries, there is a significantly high number of EAL learners in international schools. In addition to the sharp increase in the EAL populations in the UK, USA, Canada and Australia, Brummitt and Keeling (2013: 27) recorded that in the year 2000 there were 2,584 international schools worldwide with approximately 988,600 students. By 2013 the total market had risen dramatically to 6,400 schools and 3.2 million students. Although there are no reliable figures for the number of EAL learners in international schools, it is clear, as noted by Sears (2015), that students in international schools come from a wide variety of linguistic backgrounds, many of whom need EAL provision. In addition, Neal and Houston (2013: 2) observed that despite a significant increase in research in international schools there are very few studies on the development or integration of EAL within an international school context. EAL studies have generally focused on the role of the mainstream teacher rather than on how EAL functions as a support subject or department in international schools. Carder's (2008) recommendations for an EAL model based on observations of the development of EAL in the USA, Canada and Australia did go some way to address this concern by calling for a 'three programme model' (Carder, 2007). This involves a programme taught parallel to the mainstream, a programme of language and content awareness for mainstream teachers, and a mother-tongue programme. This is a model that exists in many international schools on paper, although to what extent it is fully implemented in all three areas is not clear and requires further research. Furthermore, the wide variety of curricula offered by

international schools, from one or more of the International Baccalaureate (IB) programmes to the curriculum of America, Canada, England and Australia, means that there are many ways in which international schools form their language policies, including their EAL policy and programme. There is clearly a pressing need for more teacher-led research into how EAL teachers can best support mainstream teachers by developing more integrated and collaborative programmes.

3.3 Supporting EAL learners: training and collaboration

It is essential for mainstream teachers that, along with successfully delivering their curriculum content, they are equipped to cope with supporting EAL learners in the classroom. Due to a lack of specific training in EAL there is 'a tendency to treat EAL in terms of classroom strategies' (Leung, 2001: 45). In other words, mainstream teachers need to understand their role in delivering not only mainstream content but also language content.

The Teachers' Standards in England do not require teachers to have taught EAL learners but only to have experienced understanding and awareness of EAL learners (Costley, 2014: 288). The NALDIC Guidance for Initial Teacher Training (Davies, 2012) applauds the explicit recognition in Standard 5 (still current as of 2020) of the Teachers' Standards (Department for Education, 2011: 12) that every teacher should be able to make appropriate provision for pupils with EAL in their classroom (Davies, 2012: 7). It is crucial to recognise the discrepancy between the need for provision for EAL learners in the mainstream classroom and the lack of training in EAL provided in initial teacher training (ITT). As yet there is still no national pre-service education regarding EAL in England (Leung, 2016: 170). In-roads have however been made in the Scottish education system whereby a Curriculum Extension is now offered on a voluntary basis in order for student-teachers to understand education issues beyond their main subject, such as for EAL in the mainstream classroom (Foley et al, 2013: 194). This forms a

part of ITT in the shape of two-hour weekly sessions in each of the eighteen weeks during which student-teachers are at university. It covers lectures on theory, debates concerning EAL issues and specific case studies on the needs and issues of EAL learners (Foley et al, 2013: 196).

In addition to the issues of pre-service education in EAL, as well as the lack of training that newly qualified teachers have in EAL, specialist EAL teachers (for example in the UK and in many international schools) are often not used to supporting EAL learners, and language assistants are used (Carder, 2014). The question therefore also arises as to whether such language assistants are receiving specialist training in order to support EAL learners. The following examples represent some of the inconsistencies in the training of EAL language assistants: in Scotland BTAs (Bilingual Teaching Assistants) are trained at local level and there exists no mandatory national level training (Foley et al, 2013: 193). In Ireland LSTs (Language Support Teachers) are also given training at local level, although as recent studies suggest (Wallen & Kelly Holmes, 2006; Murtagh & Francis, 2012), LSTs often feel that they have not been given adequate training to deal with the often complex nature of supporting EAL learners new to the country. Classes frequently have high teacher-student ratios; for example, in a study in seventeen Galway schools the average teacher- student ratio for EAL was 21.3:1 (Wallen & Kelly-Holmes, 2006). In a comprehensive study in the north of England of EAL provision in primary schools, conducted in accordance with six local authorities by Wardman (2012), it was found that schools were often unaware of the local funding and training available to them. There were significant differences (Wardman, 2012: 10-11) in the training and support available to EAL teaching assistants. A clear picture is forming that, although there are direct recommendations in the Teachers' Standards on a national level and there is funding available, if in an inconsistent way, at local level, there is no mandatory and consistent teaching of pre-service EAL provision for mainstream teachers and language teaching assistants in England.

In comparison, trying to determine the pre-service training in EAL that teachers in international schools have had is highly challenging, for the following reasons: the teacher turnover rate is much higher, making consistent data collection more problematic; with over 6,400 international schools worldwide there is no one governing body and the nature of EAL policies and programmes differs from school to school. Carder (2015) argues that it is paramount for international schools to have highly qualified EAL teachers and an EAL department with equal status to other departments, providing professional development sessions within schools (Carder, 2011; Carder, 2015). The importance of recognising and understanding pre-service EAL training of mainstream subject teachers (or lack thereof) and how, if any such training is evident, it can be nurtured in collaboration with an EAL department is a profoundly important question that needs answering.

Furthermore, a common situation in international schools is that many mainstream teachers are unaware that they are a part of the EAL process (Neal & Houston, 2013) and that greater awareness is needed on the part of mainstream teachers regarding language provision. There is therefore a need to understand the abilities that mainstream teachers in international schools have to deal with the language needs of the EAL learners in their classes, including understanding any EAL training they have received going all the way back to their ITT. Once such abilities – or, likewise, training needs – are identified, the basis is formed of a platform from which meaningful and more effective support and collaboration between an EAL department and mainstream subject departments can take place.

There is a growing awareness and need for EAL to be less on the periphery of and more integrated into the mainstream curriculum, especially in international schools where EAL learners are more frequently in a non-English speaking environment outside of school (Alderfer & Alderfer, 2011; Carder, 2014). There is the added complication for many international school

students, besides keeping up the native language and learning English, of also coping with the local language. As mentioned by Davison (2006), there has often been a general focus on teaching techniques in supporting EAL learners in the mainstream classroom rather than on co-planning and co-teaching. A more long-term planning approach, where the EAL teacher regularly meets with the classroom teachers, would help both the mainstream teachers modify the language of their content and EAL teachers to use the content of mainstream lessons for their instruction. As studies have shown, non-native language acquisition is a long-term process (Scott & Erduran, 2004) and attempts to hurry along such a process under pressure from parents or leadership can be highly challenging or at worst unrealistic (Murtagh & Francis, 2012). As data from further studies have shown, it can take two years for EAL learners to acquire social English fluency but full academic competency, whether in the National Curriculum of England or in international programmes, can take between five and seven years (Cummins, 1999; Demie, 2013).

Processes of collaboration do exist, such as the EAL Profile of Competence introduced in schools in England, which is updated and reviewed twice a year by EAL teachers in collaboration with classroom teachers (Foley et al, 2013). This enables teachers to track progress made by EAL learners in listening, talking, reading and writing through stages of competencies (which may differ in description from region to region). However, this is largely a collaboration in assessment and observation rather than a collaboration in planning and teaching. Davison (2006) recognises the challenges of collaboration, especially if it is mandatory collaboration imposed by leadership rather than more meaningful collaboration whereby EAL and mainstream teachers regularly meet to plan together. There can also be the added challenges of a lack of time to meet and plan, as well as a lack of support from school leaders. As Carder (2014) also mentions, staff and leadership turnover in international schools

is frequently higher than in other schools, and when collaboration already exists it can disappear or not continue with the full support of the incoming staff.

One of the most important prerequisites of EAL teachers collaborating with mainstream teachers is the understanding of each other's role in the EAL process. Dove and Honigsfeld's (2010) descriptions of the St Paul district in Minnesota and its English as a Second Language (ESL) co-teaching models present an example of how the EAL teacher's and mainstream teacher's roles can become interchangeable. They have established seven models of co-planning and co-teaching. In accordance with such models, teachers share the students and take responsibility for the class, rather than having a group that is permanently withdrawn for extra language support. The model put into practice depends on the needs of the students and requires regular scheduled collaboration (2010: 10). Leadership must also provide for teachers to be given the opportunities to plan for collaboration, involving teachers both alternating between being the lead teacher and support teacher, and assigning different groups between themselves.

While presenting an undeniably thorough list of possible ways for EAL and mainstream teachers to collaborate, a key feature for the success of such a model has to lie in the amount of time that teachers are able to devote to planning. In addition, the relationship between teachers and mutual willingness to work closely together are crucial. Finally, the type of school (such as, for instance, English National Curriculum, US, or International Baccalaureate) must surely also play a role when determining a model for more integrated EAL teaching and learning. Mainstream teachers naturally bring their experiences of classroom practice into the school in which they work, and their previous approaches to teaching EAL learners will play a role in the setting up of collaborative models of supporting language in the mainstream classroom.

3.4 Context of the research

The context for the research described in this article is an international school that offers International Baccalaureate programmes in a major city in Ukraine, together with other schools that are also members of the Central and Eastern European Schools Association. The school comprises approximately four hundred and fifty students in grades K-12 from more than forty nationalities, with a local population of around thirty percent Ukrainian students, and was founded by a group of expatriate parents to be run as a not-for-profit organisation. The school has been authorised since 2000 to offer three of the IB programmes: Diploma Programme, Middle Years Programme and Primary Years Programme. The school is a member of the Central and Eastern European Schools Association (CEESA), which comprises thirty two schools, all of which offer one or more IB programmes.

At the time of writing there are fifty one EAL students in the secondary school, accounting for approximately eleven percent of the secondary school population from grades 6 to 12. The secondary school has its own EAL department, consisting of two full time teachers and one full time teaching assistant. As the school is an English medium school it is vital that all students can access the curriculum in that language, and that new learners of English who join the school are given sufficient EAL support in order to be able to complete successfully the Primary Years Programme, Middle Years Programme and Diploma Programme.

From the literature review above, the following research questions were formed:

1. How well qualified are mainstream subject teachers in teaching non-native English speaking learners?
2. What are mainstream subject teachers' attitudes towards EAL learners?
3. How do mainstream subject teachers collaborate with EAL teachers?

The research uses quantitative and qualitative methods, comprising a quantitative method based on a questionnaire, followed by the qualitative structured interview undertaken with a focus group. The questionnaire for the school in Ukraine and CEESA schools included questions on the topics of English language training in education and initial teacher training, attitudes to EAL in mainstream subjects, participants' experience collaborating with EAL teachers, and participants' background information. The focus group interview that took place in the school in Ukraine included questions derived from the findings of the questionnaire and focused in more detail on the topics of mainstream teachers' competencies to deal with EAL learners, responsibilities of teaching EAL learners in the mainstream classroom and how participants collaborate with EAL teachers.

The selection of participants for the questionnaire was firstly based on all secondary teachers, including leaders (Middle Years Programme and Diploma Programme coordinators and secondary headteacher), giving a potential sample size of thirty-one teachers. In addition to this selection, the same questionnaire was then to be shared with all thirty-one other CEESA schools, allowing for an unspecified but much larger sample. The selection of participants for the focus group was based on inviting one teacher from each of the following mainstream subjects: mathematics, science, design technology, individuals & societies, and the arts. English and foreign language staff were not invited as they do not have EAL learners in their classes, and neither the head of EAL nor leadership members were invited in order to allow the invited speakers to speak more candidly about their attitudes and beliefs towards EAL. The head of EAL was invited to submit written comments to the same questions that had been prepared for the focus group. This gave the focus group five participants, a number that was manageable so that each participant could have their say, and which represented a cross-section of all relevant mainstream subject areas.

The questionnaire was piloted with primary teachers from the researcher's school, mostly in order to gain feedback as to how understandable the question items were. The feedback obtained was invaluable in terms of having a fresh set of eyes look at the flow and the wording of the question items for clarity of understanding. This was essential as the questionnaire was to be shared not only with secondary teachers at the researcher's own school but also with secondary teachers at other schools in the CEESA region. After sharing with all secondary teachers at the researcher's school, an identical questionnaire was sent out to all schools in the CEESA region. The questionnaire was shared in two ways: firstly, through the researcher's secondary headteacher sharing the questionnaire via the CEESA headteachers' listserve (an email group), to be then passed on to secondary teachers in their schools. The next means of sharing the questionnaire with as many teachers as possible in CEESA schools was via the CEESA ESL listserve and asking EAL/ESL teachers to forward it to teachers in their secondary schools. This two-pronged approach of sharing the questionnaire was intended to ensure that as many teachers in the CEESA region as possible would complete and submit the questionnaire.

Once the data had been collated from both questionnaires, a focus group interview was implemented in order to discuss more deeply the findings of the quantitative data. Eleven questions were developed from data from the three main research areas of the original questionnaire in order to elicit more detailed responses and gain qualitative data. The design of the focus group followed these principles: attendance was voluntary, and the discussion was to be moderated by the researcher but allowed to develop into any topics related to EAL in the mainstream classroom. Discussion time was allowed between thirty and forty-five minutes, participants understood that the focus group discussions were to be recorded, and participants understood that their anonymity would be assured. The qualitative findings came from a small sample and the findings are therefore not generalisable. A mixed-methods approach was used

in order to gain deeper insight into the findings of the quantitative data and to help generate the discussion, implications for further research and conclusion. Table 1 below summarises the data collected.

Table 1. Summary of total number of participants in the study

	International IB school in Ukraine	CEESA schools	Focus group
No. of participants	23	33	5

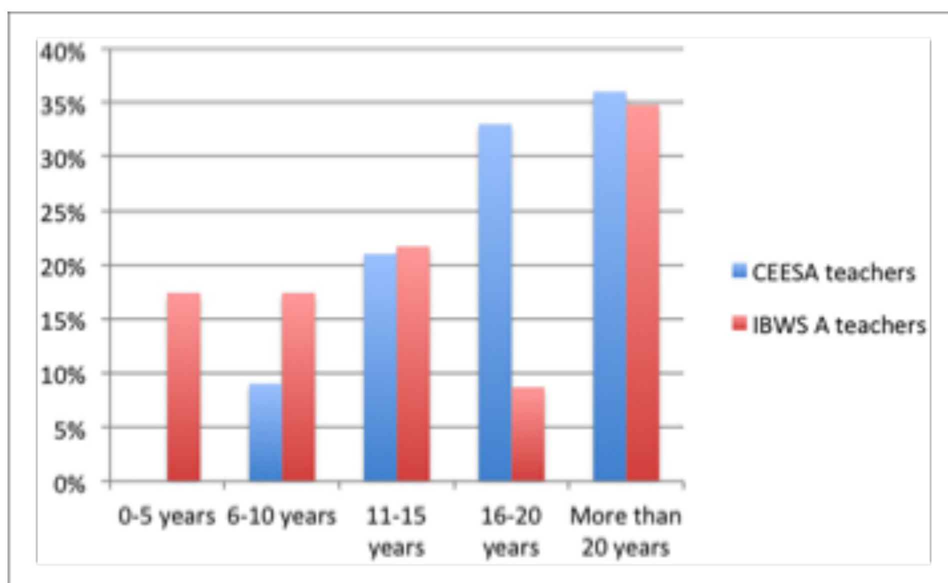
3.5 Presentation of results and analysis

Based on analysis of the results, what follows is the presentation and analysis of the following topics: teacher profiles, examining teaching experiences and training in EAL; teacher attitudes towards EAL, regarding responsibilities of planning for EAL learners and the type of support such learners receive both in and outside of the classroom; collaboration between EAL and mainstream subject teachers, involving co-planning and co-teaching.

To clearly differentiate between data from the international IB school and that from other CEESA schools, the former school is referred to as IBWS A (International Baccalaureate World School A). Focus group speaker participants are referred to as FGS and their corresponding number from the transcript of the discussion; for instance, FGS3 is focus group speaker three. IBWS A and CEESA schools' data will be compared with regards to how participants responded to questions generated from the research questions in order to consider consistency of the data between the two data sets.

Participants were asked how long they had been teaching. Figure 1 below shows that for both IBWS A and CEESA teachers the highest percentage of teachers had been working for more than 20 years. The data for CEESA teachers show a steadily increasing percentage from 9% of participants with 6-10 years' experience to 36% with more than 20 years' experience, with a generally increasing percentage of IBWS A teachers from 17.4% with 0-5 years' experience up to 34.8% with more than 20 years' experience. The only exception to the general increase in percentage was that of IBWS A teachers with 16-20 years' experience which was 8.7%.

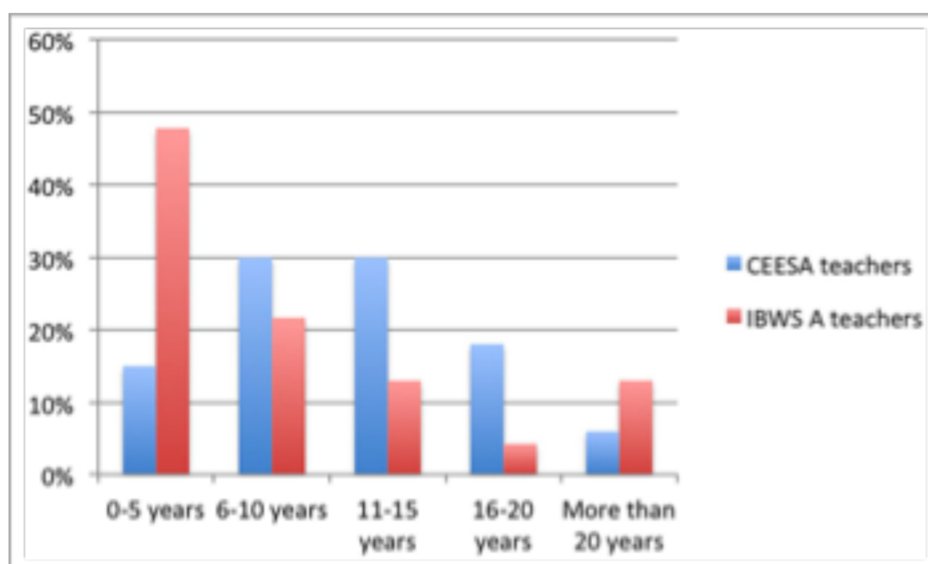
Figure 1. IBWS A and CEESA teachers' years of teaching experience.



Participants also reported how long they had been teaching in international schools. The data for IBWS A teachers in Figure 2 below show a general decrease in percentage from 47.8% of teachers who had 0-5 years' experience in international schools to 4.3% of teachers who had 16-20 years' experience, followed by a slight increase up to 13% of teachers who had more than 20 years' experience in international schools. The data for CEESA teachers showed that after the 15% of teachers with 0-5 years' experience in international schools, the percentages of teachers' experience gradually falls from 30% of teachers having 6-10 and 11-15 years'

experience respectively down to 6% of teachers having more than 20 years' experience in international schools. Figure 1 and Figure 2 clearly show a difference between the number of years teaching in total and the number of years teaching in international schools. Such an inverse trend invites the question as to how important the kind of experience of teaching is to an EAL learner.

Figure 2. IBWS A and CEESA teachers' years of international school teaching experience.



Asked whether they had received any training in English language provision for non-native speakers in their initial teacher training, 56.5% of IBWS A teachers answered that they had not and 43.5% that they had. In response to the same question, 39.4% of CEESA teachers answered that they had not received such training and 60.6% of participants answered that they had.

The next question asked those who had received such training to give a brief description of the nature of their EAL training in initial teacher training; participants gave short written responses to these questions. Only one participant each gave the following answers: workshops, public school district in-house, licensure process, teacher orientation week, classes in school, professional development (PD). The most frequent answer given, written in a variety of ways,

involved courses for the provision of English for non-native speakers, which thirteen participants gave as their answer. The next most frequent response was that of BA/MA degrees in EAL and linguistics, from six participants. The third most frequent response was CELTA/DELTA/TESOL/TEFL/TESL certification, from five participants. Such qualifications are English language teaching qualifications and, while they are often attractive to potential employers when considering applicants for international school posts, they are not a part of any initial teacher training programme and are not generally offered as professional development for international school teachers. Such a high response level regarding training that clearly is not part of initial teacher training indicates a high level of misunderstanding or misinterpretation of what constitutes EAL training in initial teacher training. This demonstrates a lack of consistency in teachers' understanding of what qualifies them to teach EAL learners.

In addition to the wide range of what participants believed to be inclusive of EAL training, there were varying responses in the focus group discussion regarding experiences of training in how to teach EAL learners in pre-service initial teacher training: two participants who had trained in Florida reported that EAL training had been mandatory (FGS4) and that it was necessary to renew your teaching licence (FGS2). The teacher from California had had little in the way of EAL training but felt it would have been very helpful (FGS3). The teacher from Ontario, Canada had participated in some ESL courses when training, which were mandatory (FGS5). These responses highlight the differences in mainstream teachers' experiences with regards to EAL/ESL training in initial teacher training and paint a similar picture to responses from the questionnaire.

Asked whether it was the responsibility of mainstream subject teachers to be aware of the type of subject-specific vocabulary EAL students needed in lessons, the majority of IBWS A participants agreed, with 17.4% strongly agreeing, 56.5% agreeing and 13% partly agreeing.

CEESA participants also agreed in the majority, with 30.3% strongly agreeing, 39.4% agreeing and 27.3% partly agreeing.

Focus group participants discussed in further detail the extent to which thinking about vocabulary to support EAL learners was a part of regular planning. They indicated that when vocabulary is implicit in unit planning it is often regarded as new for all students. One teacher said there was a vocabulary component in unit planning but it was not specifically for EAL learners (FGS4). Another teacher said that they used support for words by showing examples through images of mathematics vocabulary, which is a regular part of their planning and teaching (FGS2).

Participants were asked how much they were in favour of push-in support, whereby the EAL teacher or teaching assistant supports EAL learners in mainstream classroom subjects, or pull-out support, whereby the EAL teacher or teaching assistant takes the EAL student out of a mainstream classroom to provide additional English language support. The three prompts (with the same numbering as in the questionnaire) that participants were asked to comment on in terms of whether they strongly agreed, agreed, partly agreed, partly disagreed, disagreed or strongly disagreed, are as follows:

8. Beginner level EAL students benefit from having an EAL teacher supporting them in the classroom in all mainstream school subjects
9. EAL learners who have a beginner's level of English benefit from individual pull-out support
10. EAL students benefit from having teaching assistants supporting them in all mainstream school subjects

Table 2 below shows the results of the three prompts for both IBWS A and CEESA participants, based on combined percentages of strongly agreed, agreed and partly agreed responses.

Table 2. Combined percentages of participants who strongly agreed, agreed or partly agreed with EAL push-in and pull-out support.

Questionnaire prompt no.	IBWS A teacher responses	CEESA teacher responses
8.	91.3%	94%
9.	95.6%	97%
10.	86.9%	81.8%

Focus group participants were asked to discuss why some questionnaire respondents might have only partly agreed or disagreed with push-in and pull-out support. The discussion highlighted concerns that mainstream teachers have with another teacher/a teaching assistant being in the room, with concerns potentially focussing on 'an outsider' coming into the classroom. One teacher expressed concern about the efficacy of having one-to-one push-in support, describing situations they had experienced with regards to students who had become too dependent on the support they received from the teaching assistant in the classroom. The quantitative data regarding attitudes to weekly collaboration to plan lessons between EAL and mainstream teachers were overwhelmingly in favour of weekly collaborative meetings to plan modified content for EAL learners, with 13% of IBWS A participants strongly agreeing, 39.1% agreeing and 34.8% partly agreeing. 27.3% of CEESA participants strongly agreed, with 24.2% agreeing and 27.3% partly agreeing.

IBWS A and CEESA participants were then asked how they had collaborated with EAL teachers, and gave written responses. Only one participant each gave the following answers: planning an interdisciplinary unit; there is not time to collaborate. Three participants answered that they emailed EAL teachers or shared information through Google docs; six participants answered that they collaborated by asking, speaking to, referring to EAL teachers in an informal way or to share ideas. Seven participants answered that they had weekly or monthly planned meetings with EAL teachers, and eleven participants answered that they regularly met with EAL teachers to plan, but not in scheduled meetings.

In connection with the quantitative data, focus group participants were asked to explain how they had collaborated in terms of regular planning sessions with the EAL department. One teacher said that they regularly met to talk about EAL learners (FGS5), while another teacher felt that although there was awareness about the issues of EAL learners, there was no collaboration between teachers in terms of sharing strategies with each other regarding individual EAL learners and building on what works from subject to subject (FGS3). The main reason for lack of collaboration cited in the quantitative data was lack of time, and teachers in the focus group suggested they wanted to be able to access EAL support materials easily for their subjects (FGS5). They proposed stream- lined, bite-size strategies that EAL teachers could pass on to mainstream teachers on an individual basis, allowing teachers to find a suitable time together to review language content and EAL strategies rather than EAL collaboration being based on structured weekly meetings. The quantitative data findings indicate that although the vast majority of teachers (95-98%) agree to a greater or lesser extent that strong collaboration is important between mainstream and EAL teachers, there appears to be far less willingness to co-teach with EAL teachers, with 30.5% of IBWS A teachers in particular disagreeing to a greater or lesser extent.

In the focus group discussion, one teacher suggested that some teachers do not want to give up their power or space, or that if another teacher is in the room then a mainstream teacher might feel they have time taken away from what they themselves need to cover in the lesson. Another said they were in favour of having someone there to co-teach, as an EAL specialist, because as a language specialist they would be able to best teach the language that students need to learn. They added that it might be a problem at IB Diploma level (grades 11-12) because of the 'high stakes tests' that they need to pass and the pressures of covering content. However, at IB MYP level where there are no end of course examinations the pressure was less, and having a co-teacher could work. The first teacher also added that two different teachers can 'play off each other' when they come with differing teaching strategies (FGS3). Another teacher suggested that two teachers co-teaching might not come to a consensus on how to deliver the lesson, and that a possibility would be for the mainstream teacher to present what they have planned to the EAL teacher and the EAL teacher could 'come in and say "Okay, these are the ways I can help you to deliver that more effectively, especially to the EAL learners"' (FGS5).

Asked what an incentive might be, given the difficulties, for a mainstream teacher and an EAL teacher to collaborate on planning and co-teaching, the following responses were given by the focus group. One teacher felt that 'lightening the load' would be needed as the teaching load would be increased, and that if that were the case more support would be needed and the workload would need to be cut in other areas. The same teacher struggled to think of existing lessons that an EAL teacher would be able to cope with teaching. Another teacher noted that although they had taught 80-minute lessons that had mostly covered language and vocabulary, they were unsure how much time would be freed up as the mainstream teacher would still need to meet with the EAL teacher for planning purposes. The same teacher reiterated that they felt it was necessary to streamline how strategies were disseminated to save time, for example making PD training more practically-based in terms of what mainstream teachers can take

away and use in the classroom. FGS2 expressed the same view. FGS5 also mentioned the ease of using and usefulness of resources such as the readability tool (a tool for gauging reading level of a text) on the school website. FGS2 suggested using the EAL students as a resource by having them come to the EAL lesson with the new vocabulary they had learned in mainstream lessons that week, and participating in an EAL lesson based on those new words.

3.6 Discussion and implications for further research

In this section each of the research questions and associated findings will be considered in turn.

1. How well qualified are mainstream subject teachers in teaching non-native English speaking learners?

With regards to teacher profiles, the comparison of years of general teaching experience to years of teaching experience in international schools paints a picture of a group of teachers who have substantial teaching experience but an inverse amount of experience of teaching in international schools. As argued by Carder (2015), staff turnover at international schools is generally higher than that of other schools and EAL training and collaboration is paramount for the effective support of EAL learners in the mainstream classroom; given that teachers in international schools inevitably experience challenges of teaching their content to EAL learners, one question to be addressed is how experienced are teachers in their ability to modify the language of their lessons in order to support EAL learners?

With around 50% and 60% of teachers answering that their initial teacher training had not included the provision of support for EAL learners, there appears to be a contradiction in how well- trained teachers originally are in providing EAL support in their mainstream classroom in contrast to the environment of largely non-native speakers in which they work. With the third most common response in the quantitative data being

CELTA/DELTA/TESOL/TEFL/TESL certification, there was also a lack of understanding for some participants as to what was meant by the question regarding training for EAL provision in initial teacher training. This indicates that for some teachers, training in EAL provision for mainstream teachers is still often viewed as something that is not provided during initial teacher training but rather is acquired through professional development or postgraduate studies; such an indication supports the view that many teachers do not have a clear understanding of their part in the EAL process (Neal & Houston, 2013).

With the highest proportion of teachers surveyed having 20 or more years' experience, it is most likely that these are teachers who were not initially trained to provide EAL support and yet have gone on to teach in international schools. The qualitative data also suggest that there is a lack of consistency with respect to which teachers have received EAL training in ITT, as previously identified by Leung (2001, 2016) and Foley et al (2013); the focus group findings indicate that whether there is any training available can depend upon where teachers come from, and whether such training is a requirement for renewing a teaching licence, for instance, rather than for supporting EAL learners.

The implication of these findings is that the relative lack of international teaching experience does not necessarily give EAL learners access to the best qualified teachers according to their language needs. In addition, the lack of clarity as to what constitutes appropriate EAL training in international schools, as well as the potential lack of EAL training in ITT that international school teachers have experienced, suggests that the leadership of international schools need to be more aware of issues relating to EAL and their staff. A further question arising from these findings is whether teacher attitudes are forged more strongly by their initial training or by work experience. It would be invaluable to research more deeply how the EAL needs of

particular schools are met by leaders actively employing teachers best qualified not only to teach their subject but also to consider the language needs of their EAL learners.

2. What are mainstream subject teachers' attitudes towards EAL learners?

The findings on teacher attitudes towards EAL provision in the classroom indicated inconsistencies between attitudes and practice. Participants' answers in the quantitative data with respect to awareness of subject-specific vocabulary for EAL learners, which were overwhelmingly in agreement, were inconsistent with responses in the qualitative data. Focus group findings paint a picture of the kind of planning that includes new vocabulary for all students, methods of introducing this vocabulary and modelling vocabulary through pictures on wall displays, but does not involve planning for modified vocabulary for EAL learners. This demonstrates how participants can answer in theory one way and yet provide an answer with respect to practice and experience in a very different way. The 'awareness of subject-specific vocabulary' that teachers have does not translate into actual planning of modified vocabulary content.

The implementation of push-in and pull-out support, which participants overwhelmingly favoured, similarly showed differences between the quantitative and qualitative data. When asked about the concerns that might have been expressed by the small number of teachers who had disagreed that the provision of such support was a good idea, the focus group elicited responses such as: teachers being protective of their space, the room getting too crowded, EAL learners being too dependent on push-in support teachers or, as similarly mentioned by Carder (2014, 2015), assistant teachers not being effective or viewed as being effective. This again represents the contradictions between a seemingly unified and overwhelmingly positive response in the quantitative data and a very different data set from the focus group. When the surface is scratched as to which concerns teachers might have, even a relatively small focus

group of teachers reveals a whole host of concerns that are not reflected in the questionnaire data.

The implication of these findings is that mainstream subject teachers in this international school do not always uphold the notion of 'international school teacher as language teacher'. Given the apparent contradictions between mainstream teachers' practice and their intentions, a further question arises as to how the professional culture of the school can be steered by leadership. Additional research into how a culture of 'subject teacher as language teacher' could be fostered as a whole school culture would be beneficial to the EAL learners of such schools.

3. How do mainstream subject teachers collaborate with EAL teachers?

With regards to collaboration between EAL and mainstream subject teachers, the quantitative data suggested general agreement that weekly planning meetings between EAL teachers and mainstream teachers are important. In addition to expressing their view, participants were asked to provide a written response as to how exactly they collaborated in terms of planning with EAL teachers. Given that scheduled planning meetings was only the second most frequent answer – after more informal, unplanned meetings – it appears that the favourable view of weekly planning meetings is contradicted by the actual practice of regular, but unplanned and more informal, collaboration. This is supported somewhat by the qualitative findings which again demonstrate how collaboration happens, not only in the generally informal and ad hoc way suggested by the quantitative data, but also indicate a lack of consensus as to whether such collaboration consistently takes place. Some participants disagreed that they had experienced much collaboration with the EAL department, and noted lack of time as a factor, as well as a preference for sharing related resources rather than setting up formal, weekly meetings.

In addition, factors such as lack of time for planning and issues of having another teacher in the room seem to be real concerns that teachers have when asked if they would co-teach with an EAL teacher. Further concerns highlighted in the focus group discussion included that EAL teachers may not have the necessary content knowledge of a mainstream subject lesson and that, as well as the time it would take for the two teachers to plan such a lesson, it might take up more of the class time that the mainstream teacher has to cover all the curriculum content with their students, reflecting much of what has already been written (Davison, 2006; Foley et al, 2013; Carder, 2014) about EAL in the mainstream classroom and the lack of co-planning and co-teaching that can exist between EAL and mainstream teachers.

The implication of these findings is that opportunities for mainstream teachers and EAL teachers to collaborate are missed. In order for mainstream teachers to be satisfied with both the appropriate allocation of time to cover course content as well as the ability of the EAL teacher to co-teach course content in connection with meeting students' English language needs, there needs to be a more structured professional culture of effective collaboration. Such a culture is necessary in international schools to foster effective planning and teaching in collaborative partnerships. Further research is needed as to which methods would be most effective according to both curriculum and language needs.

3.7 Conclusion

There is a definite case to be made that further research needs to be undertaken in order to find a solution to the challenges of EAL and mainstream teachers planning and collaborating to support EAL learners to the fullest potential. The main challenge appears to be how to transform the willingness and desire of mainstream teachers to work more closely with EAL departments into more practical and permanent solutions of collaborative planning and teaching. With many EAL departments in international schools being relatively small in size,

and the time pressures and high expectation for academic results cited by mainstream teachers as further challenges, there is a need for research into practical solutions to aid EAL teachers as professionals whose role it is to support EAL learners in their time at school. The mainstream subject teacher will ultimately benefit from their EAL learners having stronger and more integrated English language support to enable them to better access mainstream curriculum content. With an ever-increasing population of international school EAL learners, it is essential that the message now be made very clear: more must be done to support EAL departments and mainstream teachers in order for EAL learners to cope better in the mainstream classroom. The small scale of this study has highlighted the concerns in one region of eastern Europe; it is imperative, as a global concern, that such issues regarding EAL be more thoroughly researched at local level around the world.

Chapter 4: Article Two. The Other Third Culture Kids: EAL learners' views on self-identity, home culture and community in international schools

4.1 Abstract

This article aims to develop a better understanding of the dynamic identity of third culture kids (TCKs) who study English as an Additional Language in an international secondary school in Ukraine. The research focuses on the internal forces of home culture and self-perceived identities as well as the external forces of the school community and the classroom that influence EAL learners in their language acquisition. The paper draws on qualitative data from interviews with individual EAL learners. The interviews investigated how EAL learners see themselves in terms of an EAL identity, how social status and community influence EAL learners and how the home language and culture are influential in the language classroom. As a result of these data the discussion focuses on the disconnect between the internal and the external forces that TCK EAL learners experience. The paper concludes that more integrated collaboration between EAL and mainstream teachers would foster greater understanding of the internal forces and cultural capital EAL TCK learners bring with them to ensure more effective language learning in the external force of the language classroom. The authors conclude with recommendations for further steps.

4.2 Introduction

The incremental growth of global mobility has given rise to a particular kind of learner that feels at home both everywhere and nowhere: *the third culture kid* (TCK). The concept of TCKs, first applied in the 1960s by Useem, Useem and Donoghue (1963) in a study on how U.S. families behaved in the culture of India, can incorporate children of expatriate families. Typically working overseas as diplomats, in business or in the military, such families are described by Fechter and Korpela (2016) as *privileged migrants*. The children of these privileged migrant families that choose to relocate for economic or aspirational purposes, learn to adapt expeditiously and cultivate sensitivity to multifarious cultures (Walters & Auton-Cuff, 2009: 762), existing as "global nomads." According to Lijadi and Van Schalkwyk (2014:1), there are three cultural statuses that embody the profile of a TCK: a country of origin, a different current country of residence or host country, and belonging to a transcultural phenomenon. This third status is transient and less tangible than the first two and TCKs share this status with their third culture peers, for example, the culture of an English-medium international school. Such a culture invariably requires TCKs to integrate into the learning medium of English, as well as the new social constructs of peers from wide-ranging backgrounds.

Despite the privileges and advantages that TCKs enrolled in international schools enjoy, distinct challenges remain. Tanu (2008: 3) characterised how these global nomads become "cultural chameleons," adept at developing a high level of intercultural sensitivity, garnering knowledge of languages, mannerisms and an ability to blend into their surroundings. They can, however, experience identity crises in international schools with an identity in constant flux (Tanu, 2008: 4). The movement between cultures can contribute to identity crises for TCKs for although they are capable of adapting to diverse cultures, they frequently do not reside long enough in one place to wholly understand or acquire knowledge of a culture or develop within

one place before relocating. TCKs may ask themselves, "Who am I really? Where do I fit in? What is my place in this world?" (Walters & Auton-Cuff, 2009: 3).

The term *third culture kid* is used in this paper as opposed to *cross-cultural kid* (CCK) as the concept of CCKs comprises the all-encompassing umbrella of refugees, children of immigrants, and international adoptees as well as business, diplomatic and military migrant families (Van Reken & Bethel, 2005: 3). This article focuses on the concept of TCKs as the profiles of the international school participants in this study fit most closely within it. TCKs can include native speakers of English and non-native speakers of English. Although it is common for many non-native speakers of English at international schools to have sufficient skills in English not to require additional English language support, there are a significant number of learners to be found in international schools around the world that fall into the categories of both TCK and EAL (English as an Additional Language) learner. The question therefore arises as to whether an EAL learner is as skilled as adapting as freely to the third culture as a native English speaker and whether international schools enable academic success for such learners. Although there has been a wealth of research on TCKs around the world (Lijadi & Van Schalkwyk, 2014; Fechter & Korpela, 2016), there has been little research conducted in international schools regarding the added complexity of how TCK EAL learners view their identity as children who have the additional challenge of learning English (Carter & McNulty, 2012).

4.3 Internal forces: home vs. new culture and EAL learner self-identity

The internal forces of a learner have a great impact on EAL teaching and learning. Although EAL learners frequently originate from multilingual background cultures, they can lack confidence where the medium of instruction is English. Learners have been observed to rely heavily on their home language, for example via discussion in their first language (L1) with

their peers, which might explain why they lacked the confidence to speak more English in the classroom (Chaparro, 2014). Despite the use of L1 in teaching and learning becoming more of a feature in the classroom in recent years, EAL learners can feel trapped between two cultures, feeling isolated and lonely when confronting a new culture and language. The cultural barriers (Spack, 1988) that many EAL learners experience can range from the disconnect between a home country learning style and that of a new country (Ortmeier-Hooper, 2008) to the prejudice that lack of linguistic knowledge implies lack of academic knowledge and an inability to transfer the home culture to new contexts due to their cultural specificity (Safford & Collins, 2007). All such cultural barriers are prevalent in international schools, which are invariably unique with their individual and respective core values, goals and ethos.

At some point during the language acquisition process EAL learners also acquire knowledge and understanding of the new culture (Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005; Dewaele & Van Oudenhoven, 2009; Benson, Chappell, & Yates, 2018). In the case of EAL learners in international schools, this may mean not only the cultures of several schools but also the cultures of several countries; a child of a diplomatic or business family might expect to move countries multiple times during their schooling. EAL learners tend to acquire English language skills through assimilation, as described by Watts-Taffe and Truscott (2000: 259), which requires learners to replace some aspects of the native culture with the new one, or through acculturation which allows learners to learn a new culture while still maintaining their own. Assimilation in international schools frequently manifests itself as losing the home culture and language, taking on the mannerisms of their peers, while acculturation typically occurs as long as a mother tongue programme is developed.

Understanding the identity of the EAL learner is paramount. Hawkins (2005) contended that the identity a learner develops at school is inextricably linked to the learning context. Norton (2010: 2) similarly stated that literacy is not only a skill to be learned, but also a practice that

is socially constructed and locally negotiated. Learner identity has multiple meanings and is a concept that is invariably in flux; this is a key feature of how EAL learners are perceived and how they react to their learning environment. Hawkins also asserts that young learners are identified and labelled as early as the fourth grade. Some children negotiate an identity that allows them to be a success, whereas others negotiate one that marginalizes them (Hawkins, 2005: 62). There is a danger therefore that young EAL learners can be labelled as failures from an early age if a lack of English language ability is mistaken for a lack of academic ability. Once children take on the identity of an effective learner they gain increased access to the discourses of the classroom environment; the social status of the child leads to participation which leads to language development and learning (Hawkins, 2005: 65). Conversely, those children that take on the identity of an ineffective learner risk alienation in the classroom and compromising their access to language development and learning. In this study, the term *social status* is used to refer to how EAL learners feel within the social constructs of the mainstream classroom.

EAL learners' understanding of their identity can crystallise differently, whether through the context of family, community or the mainstream classroom (Conteh & Meier, 2014). The streaming of students in the US system of education through standardised tests and previous school attainment records means that newly arrived EAL learners are frequently put into low-track classes as they are less linguistically demanding. Harklau (1994) tracked how EAL learners were able to advocate for their own learning, despite low expectations and some hostility from teachers, and push themselves up into higher track classes. Such "pushers" could see the difference in expectations between their higher track maths and science classes and their lower track English classes and accordingly take responsibility for their language learning in the context of the mainstream classroom. This was observed to be a necessity in the context

of the study as it was discovered that there was no tracking system for newly arrived EAL learners as there was for their native speaker peers (Harklau, 1994: 355).

EAL learners frequently endure negative connotations and stigma that come with the label of *EAL learner*, as observed by Ortmeier-Hooper (2008), for example, by being isolated through pull-out classes which can affect their self-esteem. There is a significant distinction between an EAL learner who has arrived during or after high school and one who has been present all through elementary, middle, and/or high schools. However, frequently little distinction is made between such learners, and the identity that is forced on EAL learners can repeatedly be undiscerning. For example, Generation 1.5 students – from a U.S. perspective, students who immigrated in their pre-teen or teen years who are fluent in social English (Thonus, 2003), or bilingual but less skilled in academic English (Harklau, 1999) - and newly arrived EAL learners in U.S. universities are frequently put into the same EAL class despite their different backgrounds and language needs. The newly arrived students are in many cases stronger in English than the Generation 1.5 students, for whom few elementary and secondary schools are able to provide adequate linguistic support (Matsuda, 2003: 71). Furthermore, some Generation 1.5 EAL university students no longer self-identify as EAL learners (Ortmeier-Hooper, 2008) as they have been through the U.S. state school system and have successfully graduated despite an ongoing need for English language support. It is therefore important to recognise that there are also significant differences among EAL learners in international schools. Learners should not all be labelled in the same way given their different experiences regarding the number of years and the types of schools they have attended. EAL learners' individual linguistic needs should be better understood, and a more comprehensive understanding of their individual identities is needed to achieve this.

4.4 External forces: community and the language classroom

Distinct examples of external forces influence EAL teaching and learning. The EAL classroom has been portrayed as a communal platform where EAL learners should be encouraged to share, collaborate, and cooperate (Watts-Taffe & Truscott, 2000). Peer modelling can be a highly effective way for EAL learners to challenge each other's points of view and build on each other's knowledge. Hu (2005), moreover, describes how training in peer reviewing can foster a more active role for the EAL learner, encouraging collaboration and support among peers. Spack (1988) likewise describes how imperative it is for students to learn how to collaborate and how to respond to each other's work. Such classroom structures are vital for improving communication in English; however, the successes of the EAL classroom may not always translate into successful communication in the wider school community.

While EAL learners assimilate linguistically and socially into the school community in which they learn, it is commonly challenging for them to socialise with their peers due to their lack of confidence in small talk and social discourse. Chaparro (2014) contended that critical language awareness teaches students explicitly about language, including its social dimensions. EAL learners frequently do not make social connections with their English native speaker peers, in part because they find it easier to make such connections with students from their own linguistic background. Safford and Costley (2008) expanded on the notion that EAL learners are frequently isolated and can suffer a period of being "silenced," whereby they do not have sufficient communicative skills and feel psychologically and socially cut off. How EAL learners interact with their peers within the confines of the mainstream classroom could depend on factors such as the seating plan and the possible use of the home language with peers from the same linguistic background. The implementation of scaffolded activities, as investigated by Kayi-Aydar (2013), encourages communication and collaboration between EAL learners and their peers, for example through conversational models, reflections on the achievements of EAL learners and explorations of their beliefs with regards to learning.

In addition to EAL teachers assessing their learners' best learning strategies and characteristics (Oxford, 2002), it is imperative for all subject teachers to consider the role the classroom itself plays in fostering effective language learning. Nunan (2002) asserts that the language classroom, which could mean any mainstream subject classroom for an EAL learner, should have a dual focus: not only should language content be developed but language learning should also be developed. EAL learners need to negotiate for themselves the identity of a successful learner, which can be achieved through the environment of the language classroom. A key aspect of how this can be achieved involves the recognition and awareness of encouraging the right kind of social structures within the classroom, such as through seating plans and groupings. As Harklau (2000) has discerned, social structures generated within the language classroom contribute towards shaping language learners' identity. Subtle, and usually unintended, socialising of EAL learners into the image of individuals who are underachieving academically (Harklau, 2000: 38-9) can lead to negative social roles. This can have a detrimental effect on learning, and subject teachers need to foster positive social structures in the classroom to allow EAL learners full access to developing their language learning.

This paper explores the experiences of EAL TCKs through the relationship between internal and external forces and how they influence EAL learners. The research undertaken focused on understanding how such students experience EAL from the learner's perspective. The questions which derive from the issues surrounding internal and external forces that drive the research are presented here:

1. How do EAL learners see themselves in terms of an EAL identity?
2. To what extent do social status and community influence EAL learners?
3. To what extent are the home language and culture influential in the language classroom?

4.5 Context of the research

The context for this research is a K-12 International Baccalaureate (IB) World School in a major city in Ukraine with a student roll of approximately 500, comprising 47 nationalities. It was founded as a not-for-profit school by a group of expatriate parents. Families at the school typically work in diplomacy, the military, business, and charitable organisations. The majority of teachers at the school are from North America and Europe, with a sizeable number of Ukrainian teaching assistants and language teachers. The medium of instruction is English.

EAL is a subject in both the primary and secondary schools. The term EAL is used rather than ESL/EFL as it is a required support subject in addition to the learners' own home language; it is not a graded subject and is not a part of the IB curriculum. New students are placed in EAL for English language support if they have a composite score (speaking, listening, reading and writing) below 5.0 out of a maximum 6.0 in the World-Class Instructional Design and Assessment (WIDA) standardised test and are expected at some point to be exited from the EAL programme and to then begin learning an additional language of French, Spanish, or Russian. No updated WIDA level data was available at the time of the study due to the COVID-19 pandemic and remote learning, although Middle Years Programme (MYP) English Language Acquisition phase levels were updated.

As of September 2020, there were 53 EAL learners in middle and high school from a student population of 175, giving an EAL learner population of approximately thirty percent. The research took place in the middle school with students from grades 7 and 8 and in the high school with students from grades 9 and 10. The selection of the participants was based on EAL learners from grades 7 through 10 in order to determine how consistently or differently participants respond to the research questions according to differences in age. Participants were selected according to Lijadi and Van Schalkwyk's (2014:1) profile description of TCKs. The

18 students who voluntarily participated consisted of Ukrainian students who had been in one or more international schools, as well as Russian, Lithuanian, Dutch, Tajik, Israeli, and Polish nationals. There were 18 interviews in total and all interviews were conducted in English (see Table 1 below).

Table 1. Summary of total number of participants in the study.

Grade	Numbers of males	Number of females	MYP English Language Acquisition phase level range
7	0	5	3-5
8	2	1	3-5
9	2	4	3-5
10	2	2	5

Before each interview a language portrait drawing task (see Figure 1 below), based on a template (see Appendix 10) by Kusters and De Meulder (2019), was given to students approximately one week in advance of a follow up interview with the researcher.

Figure 1. Language portrait example.

Language portraits are an effective method (Coffey, 2015; Lau, 2016; Kusters & De Meulder, 2019) to allow learners to construct pictograms of their language profile, potentially including colours representing flags and associated emotions, foreground and background illustrations to represent exterior elements in their language profile and a focus on body parts to represent how each part of the body may play a role in the languages they speak and understand. This tool is an effective method in understanding learner identities (Kusters & De Meulder, 2019) and allows students to reflect on who they are as learners in order to aid discussion while participating in 10-20-minute interviews.

The use of language portraits and interview discussions was first piloted with a group of seven multilingual secondary teachers who all completed language portraits and then participated in a group discussion. In this study, the piloting allowed for an understanding of how discussions centred around language portraits would encourage participants to reflect on themselves as

language learners and help them respond to interview questions. Once participants had discussed their language portraits, they were asked ten interview questions (see Appendix 16) that addressed the research questions. All interviews were recorded and the anonymity of participants was preserved. The interview transcripts were coded by tags, and the labelled coded data were then compiled into tables and graphs for the data presentation.

4.6 Data analysis and preliminary findings

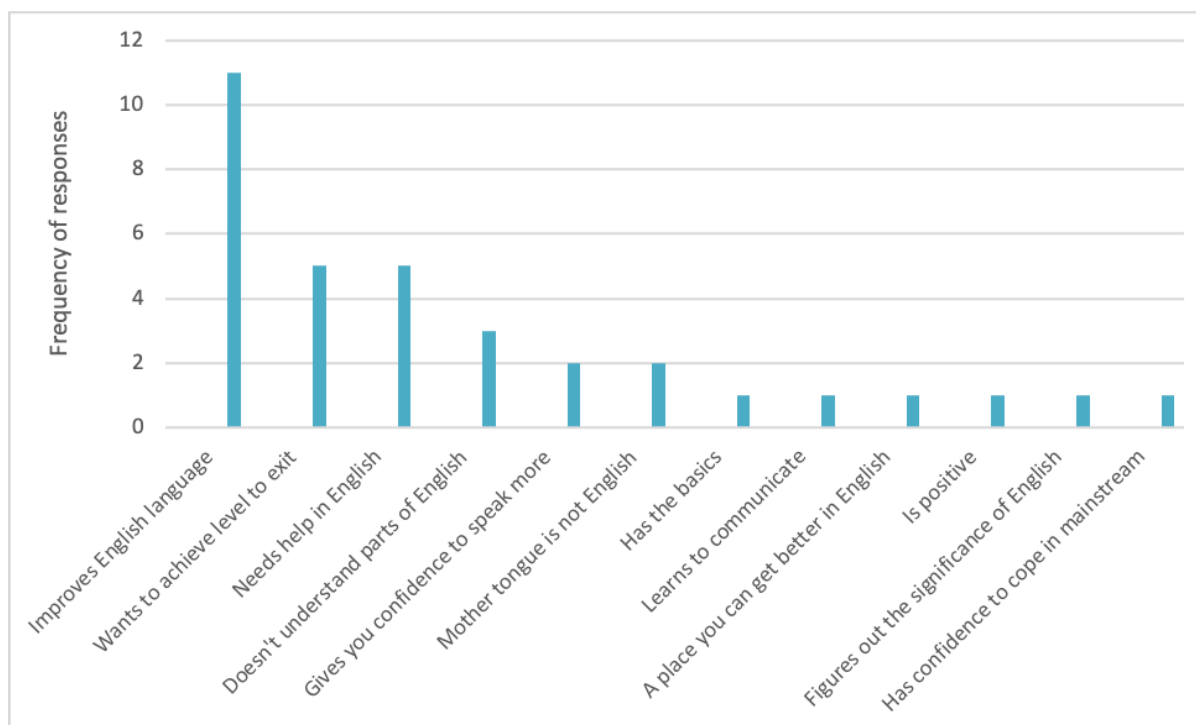
The data are presented according to the responses of the 18 participant interviews. Data are presented in three different ways to capture the different dimensions of responses to the research questions:

1. Frequency of codes according to responses from all participants.
2. Responses that were congruent and consistent in all grade levels.
3. Data that show significant differences between middle school and high school participant responses.

This method of data presentation highlights answers according to most common frequency codes, comparing them to grade-level common frequency codes and making comparisons between middle and high school participants. In order to ensure the participants' anonymity, student quotations are labelled by their grade level plus a reference number (e.g., G7–01).

Asked what they thought an EAL learner is and what the goals of EAL learners are, participants responded in a variety of ways. The most frequent responses were that the purpose of EAL learning was to improve English language skills, helping learners to achieve the appropriate level of English to exit the programme or to assist those students who need help in English. Figure 2 below shows all responses and their frequencies.

Figure 2. What makes an EAL learner?



Three dominant themes emerged across all grade levels. Firstly, students described an EAL learner as someone who needs to improve their English: “So EAL is a language, like a second English language in which we improve our grammar and vocabulary skills” (G8-03); “When I’m in EAL I improve my English” (G10-02). Secondly, further definitions consisted of EAL learners as those students who need help: “An EAL learner is a person who needs help in English” (G7-03); “…they still need some help in order to do better as an IB learner in general” (G9-06). Thirdly, EAL was defined as for learners who don’t have a high level of English: “I think it’s the person…person, not with really good skills” (G8-02); “But usually I think they need to learn it more because they didn’t reach the level of English they could reach” (G9-02). These three themes demonstrate participants’ understanding of EAL as a support subject both in terms of the kind of support that is given them as well as the reason they are in EAL class.

When asked how much longer they saw themselves being in EAL, participants responded it would be for another year or that they would be exiting the EAL programme within the year.

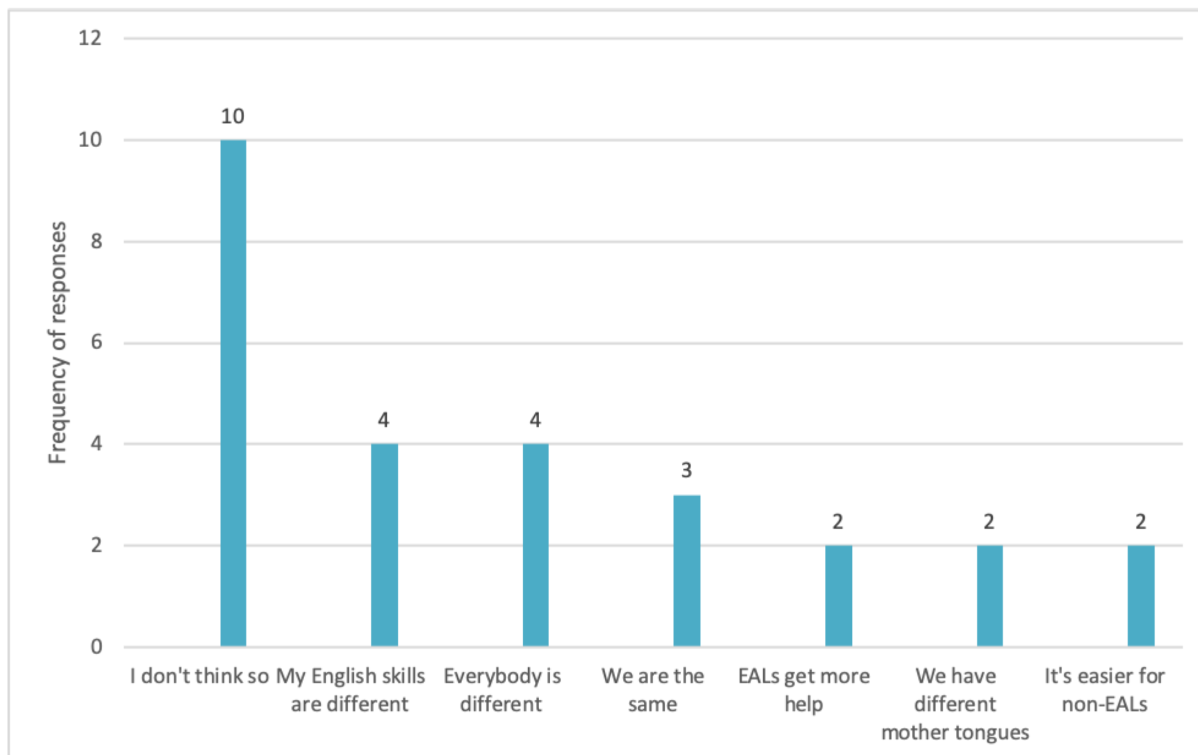
Table 2 below shows the five kinds of responses among participants with “a year” being the most frequent. The responses indicate that participants view EAL as a temporary status.

Table 2. How much longer do you see yourself being in EAL?

Response	Frequency of code
A year	11
Not long, hoping to stop soon	2
It depends	2
A couple more months	1
This semester	1

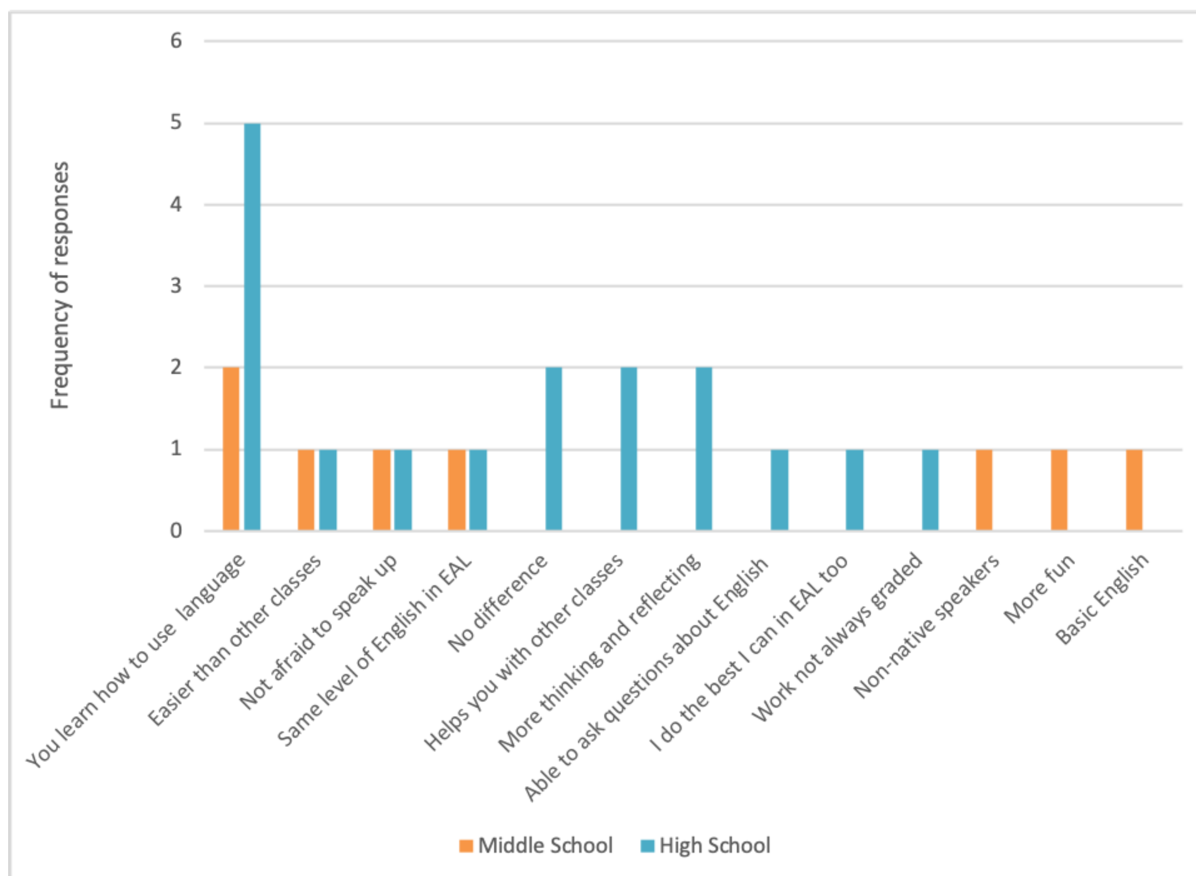
The next question participants were asked was whether they thought they were different to other students in their class or grade. The most frequent answer was that they did not think they were different. Figure 3 below shows further answers and their frequencies, with the next most frequent answer being that participants thought they had different language skills and that everybody is different.

Figure 3. Do you think you are different to other students in your class or grade?



There were 13 different types of responses from participants, six of which had a frequency of only one, regarding how differently they thought of EAL compared to their other classes. Figure 4 below compares responses from both middle school and high school participants. Only middle school participants responded that EAL was for basic English, was more fun and for non-native speakers. Only high school participants responded that EAL was a class where work was not always graded, they did their best in EAL, it was a class where they were able to ask questions about other classes, there was more thinking and reflecting, EAL helps you with other classes, and there was no difference between EAL and other classes.

Figure 4. How is the EAL class different to your other classes?



Regarding other things in school that help EAL learners develop their English language skills, a frequent answer across all grade levels was that all classes help to develop their English language skills. Table 3 below demonstrates how those responses were expressed in four ways with "I think every subject helps" as the most frequent.

Table 3. What other things are there in school that help you develop your English language skills?

Response	Frequency of code
I think every subject helps	8
For example, in I&S and Science we write a lot of essays	1

Every class and every break	1
The whole community	1

A dominant theme across all grade levels highlighted writing as something in school that helped participants develop their English language skills: “For example, in Individuals & Societies and Science we write a lot of essays there and it improves our writing, grammar and those, in terms of writing” (G9-01); “And definitely Science helps as well to expand my knowledge of English because we have to write lab reports” (G10-01).

With regards to how the home language and culture of an EAL learner are influential in the EAL classroom, the most common answer across grade levels as to whether they thought that there is a difference between a Ukrainian EAL learner and, for example, a French one, was agreement that there was a difference. Participants answered that due to different mindsets and backgrounds of EAL learners, there is a difference: “Maybe, because we have all different mindsets and accents, and they all need improving” (G7-03). In addition, a common answer was that some participants believed that some native languages are quite similar to English: “…so maybe it’s easier in some languages because the words can be the same in English” (G8-03). These data hint at the variety of ways participants responded to the question. Table 4 below shows the highest frequency answer overall: that students thought there is no difference.

Table 4. Differences among EAL learners.

Response	Frequency of code
I don’t think so	5
Different mother tongues	4

How prepared they have been	4
Those who speak Latinate languages have it easier	4
Different accents	3
Everyone is different	3
Different approaches to learning	2
Different for those who speak the local language	2
Different interpretations of English	2
Different mindsets	2
Different knowledge of English	1
Nationality plays a role	1

However, the differences mentioned are presented in the table with 11 types of responses as to how different national backgrounds demonstrate differences among EAL learners. 10 coded responses from participants demonstrated that their native languages and English were completely different, with a further 9 responses across grade levels demonstrating that participants did not think their native language skills helped their English language development. Table 5 below shows the frequencies of both responses across all grades.

Table 5. English language development and native language ability.

Response	Frequency of code
The two languages are completely different	10

I don't think it helps/not really	9

Figure 5 below presents all the responses and their frequencies. In comparison to the responses recorded in Table 4, there were 6 response types that supported the idea that native language ability helps in English language development. Three participants responded that some words are the same. Two participants responded that their mother tongue ability helps with learning other languages. Further responses demonstrated ways in which native language skills help with English language development: two participants responded that translating helped them, two participants responded that they make connections between the languages, one that grammar helps, and one that the native alphabet was similar.

Figure 5. Is there anything in your native language ability that helps you in EAL/your English language development?

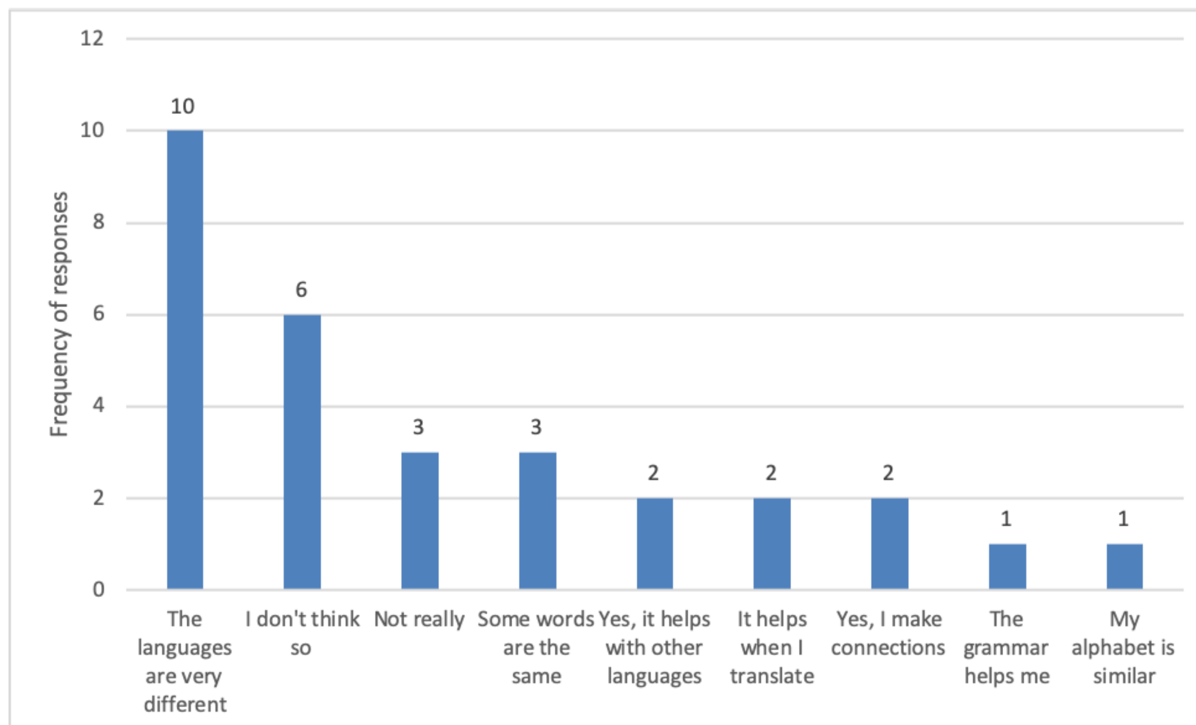
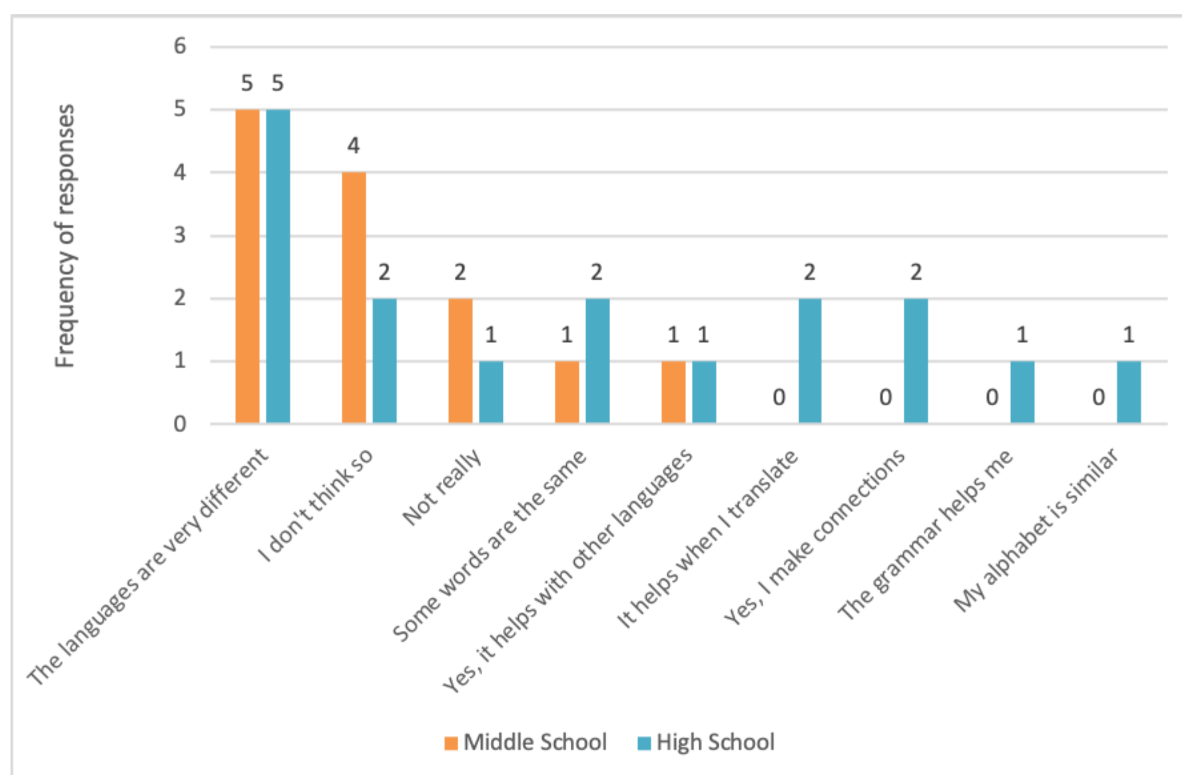


Figure 6 below demonstrates differences between middle school and high school responses. Only high school participants responded that native language ability can help English language development through translating, making connections between the languages, the grammar helping and the alphabet being similar. Regarding the question about whether native language ability helps with EAL, only one middle school participant and one high school participant responded affirmatively.

Figure 6. Is there anything in your native language ability that helps you in EAL/your English language development?



Regarding the need for a separate EAL pull-out class, participants across all grade levels supported the need for a separate EAL classroom, with the most common reason being that it is necessary in order to improve their language skills for other classes. Table 6 below demonstrates the different ways in which support for a separate EAL classroom was voiced:

Table 6. The need for a separate EAL class.

Response	Frequency of code
Improves your English language skills for other subjects.	9
Necessary for beginners/those with low level of English.	3
EAL learners feel more at ease in an EAL classroom.	3
Focus on EAL in mainstream lessons would be a distraction for the non-EAL students.	3
The EAL teacher knows how to teach English better than subject teachers.	1

4.7 Discussion and implications for further research

In response to the first research question, as to how EAL learners see themselves in terms of an EAL identity, the data indicate that students interpret completing the EAL programme as heading towards a higher-level English language course. The data similarly imply that, as well as a distinct understanding of what EAL is for (i.e., to improve their English skills), there is a connection between learner identity, as Hawkins (2005) stated, with the learning context in the manifestation of their beliefs as EAL learners that they need to exit and “move up” to the next level. The data indicate a recognition of aspirational motivation among the participants that EAL is a step up to this next level and that their time in EAL is not only transitory but also short term. Further research into the more intricate characteristics of the profile of TCKs could indicate whether aspirational motivation is a key asset to understand about TCK EAL learners.

Regarding the second research question, as to how social status and community play an important role for EAL learners, the data show little indication that participants feel particularly different from their peers in terms of social status. Participants asserted that everyone is different in an international school and that if they do feel different it is not in terms of social status or general academic ability but purely in terms of the differences in their English language levels. The participants seemingly conform to Tanu's (2008) description of *cultural chameleons* who are able to adapt quickly to the culture of international schools. The definition of TCKs by Walters and Auton-Cuff (2009) as *global nomads* supports the notion that the participants considered themselves as equal members of the school community. One cultural barrier (Spack, 1988) that they did not experience is that of isolation due to the status of being EAL learners, possibly due to their equal status as *privileged migrant* peers (Fechter & Korpela, 2016).

The data also demonstrate that high school participants responded differently from middle school participants regarding how EAL class differs from their other classes. High school participants alluded more to the specifics of how an EAL pull-out class functions, in terms of being a chance to review their English language skills, as opposed to the middle school participants' more generalised opinions of EAL class existing for learning basic English. The high school responses relate more to the specifics of language learning, which Kayi-Aydar (2013) alluded to in terms of EAL learners taking more responsibility for their own learning.

Given that the data are not conclusive, further research is needed in order to understand precisely how the needs of EAL learners change the older they get and the longer they are in an EAL programme. The interview data strongly indicate that participants understood the value of being in an English-medium school and the access they have to improving their English in all classes and in their English-speaking social community. Reflecting on Nunan's (2002) and Harklau's (2000) discussions about subject teachers and the role their classrooms play for EAL

learners, there is a great need for further research in how mainstream programmes and EAL classes could complement each other more effectively in order to take full advantage of the role that the wider English-medium community can play in maximising learner input potential for language acquisition.

Regarding the third research question, as to the extent to which the home language and culture are influential in the EAL classroom, the data indicate that many EAL learners were divorced from the notion that the cultural capital of their home language is useful in their EAL studies; participants mainly did not believe that their mother tongue ability supports their English language learning. Only two students in the study specifically mentioned the knowledge that strong language skills in the mother tongue can support language learning. Further research is needed to know whether acculturation is taking place in the TCK context (Watts-Taffe & Truscott, 2000) given that this study's participants may or may not be keeping up their mother tongue. The link between having strong mother tongue skills and being an effective EAL learner has already been established in research studies, and it is important to understand how aware of that learners and teachers in international schools are, as well as how school policies reflect relevant practice. A better understanding of why the message of strong mother tongue skills is not getting through to students, and is perhaps not reflected in classroom practice, is required. Despite the existence of a mother tongue programme at the school and the dissemination of information to parents regarding its importance, further research is crucial in order to understand whether multilingual and multicultural language policies of international schools truly reflect the realities that students experience.

There is a general consensus in the data that EAL learners appreciate the pull-out space of the EAL classroom. Many participants stated that EAL is for improving English skills for their mainstream classes and is appreciated and required specifically for that purpose. This supports Watts-Taffe and Truscott's (2000) considerations of the EAL classroom being a communal

platform where EAL learners are encouraged to share, collaborate and cooperate to improve their English. However, these data also point to a need for further research in understanding how language content and learning function in the mainstream classroom (Cenoz, Genesee & Gorter, 2014), as well as how to foster greater confidence in the mainstream classroom for those EAL learners who feel more comfortable speaking and communicating in the pull-out EAL classroom.

4.8 Conclusion

The issues surrounding TCK EAL learners in international schools are quintessentially different to those of EAL learners in, for example, the United States or the United Kingdom; the specifics of those differences – for example, not experiencing isolation as EAL learners, with an understanding of how EAL functions as a step up to another level of English - are evident from the data in this article. Although there are limitations to a study as small as the present one, the findings indicate that the participants experience a positive sense of a transitory and supportive EAL programme, with a self-identity that is not marginalised by the stigma or negative social status of being an EAL learner, as mentioned by Ortmeier-Hooper (2008). However, there appears to be a significant disconnect between the internal forces that the EAL learners bring with them to the school, in terms of their own linguistic and cultural identity, and how purposive or valued they consider that capital to be in the external forces of the classroom and the wider school community. Although there is much cultural capital TCK EAL learners can draw upon, and their privileged family backgrounds afford them equal social status and strong aspirational learning instincts in the third culture of an international school, participants predominantly have little understanding or experience as to how that capital could be directed to English language learning.

An awareness of the varying pieces of the EAL jigsaw exists in international schools, which usually manifests itself in a school's language policy. Clearer understanding of how EAL and the mainstream classroom can be integrated is also needed; fostering a more coherent and collaborative community with all component parts working together would benefit EAL learners greatly, particularly with a view to imbuing greater confidence in the mainstream classroom. Further research should focus on how EAL teachers could co-plan and collaborate with mainstream subject teachers to ensure that language is explicitly taught and to develop EAL learners' confidence. Greater understanding of the nature of how EAL learners change as they progress in years through international secondary schools is also needed. The data in this study begin to demonstrate that older EAL learners have a more detailed knowledge of the specific linguistic support that EAL gives them, for example, as a mechanism for thinking and reflecting on the language of mainstream subjects and a platform to ask questions and gain support for those classes. This may demonstrate that their maturity in years forces on them a greater responsibility that is not reinforced with support from EAL and mainstream educators working in collaboration. As Harklau (1994) mentioned, much research indicates that self-advocacy is frequently what drives an EAL learner to greater success. For older EAL learners who have fewer years to perfect their academic English skills, it is crucial to receive focused and coordinated support in the EAL and mainstream classrooms.

Finally, there is an urgency to understand how international school language policies reflect the reality that students experience. Further research is needed in order to understand how such schools can harness students' cultural and linguistic knowledge in order to promote effective English language learning. For the TCK EAL learners in this study who do not consider themselves social outsiders and yet recognised their linguistic and cultural differences, it is vital that international schools ensure that EAL learners utilise their linguistic cultural capital to gain access to academic success.

Chapter 5: Article Three. Working together: why language policies of international schools must evolve to incorporate collaborative strategies between EAL and the mainstream

5.1 Abstract

This article aims to develop a better understanding of how essential collaborative relationships are between English as an Additional Language (EAL) and mainstream subject teachers at an international secondary school in Ukraine. The research focuses on how EAL teachers support EAL learners in the mainstream classroom through collaborative practices. The article draws on qualitative data from interviews and field notes with Language & Literature, Science and EAL teachers. The interviews investigated how EAL and mainstream collaboration help support EAL learners in the mainstream classroom, which co-planning strategies most effectively encourage collaboration, and EAL and mainstream teachers' opinions and experiences about co-planning and working collaboratively. As a result of these data the discussion focuses on the disconnect between collaboration in theory and in practice. The article concludes that although effective collaborative strategies often exist, school language policies need to include scheduled collaborative planning time between EAL and the mainstream, and that professional development for mainstream teachers should be led by EAL teachers to foster more balanced content and language classroom teaching.

5.2 Introduction

The academic school year of 2021-2022 commenced after more than a year of COVID-19 pandemic related disruptions to learning. Ever since the pandemic emerged, the international school featured in this study, like all schools around the world, had been adversely affected. In March 2020 all schools in Ukraine were closed, remaining so for the 2019-20 academic year and a remote mode of learning ensued. This had a significant impact on EAL learners as all support consequently took place remotely. The development of EAL collaborative strategies therefore became more important than ever, not only in classroom practice but also within the emerging online remote learning platforms. The development of collaborative strategies is a key consideration for a school's language policy with regards to supporting EAL learners in mainstream classrooms (Leung, 2005: 97; Mijailovic, 2017; Flynn & Curdt-Christiansen, 2018). With a focus on the development of collaborative strategies of co-planning and co-teaching, the EAL department worked with mainstream subject teachers to inform a better practice of support for EAL learners.

5.3 How language policies shape EAL support

Four key themes emerge in the literature with regards to how language policies shape EAL support: the implementation of EAL, the inclusion of EAL learners in the mainstream, the challenges of EAL teachers collaborating with mainstream teachers and the role of leadership support in fostering collaborative partnerships.

One of the main features in identifying how EAL support is implemented in international schools, is to recognise how EAL policies have been implemented throughout the years. England, for example, has experienced three phases of EAL policy over the past sixty years: EAL and assimilation; EAL and withdrawal; and EAL and mainstreaming (Costley, 2014). English language support in England was primarily implemented along the lines of sheltered

instruction; learners unaccustomed to the English school system, were pulled out of the mainstream classroom and given additional English. This approach, whereby students could be taught in separate language centres for up to eighteen months (Leung, 2005), was criticised for such learners were not considered to be gaining enough access to the mainstream curriculum. By the 1970s, EAL learners were integrated into the mainstream, and in the 1980s a policy of mainstreaming was established to provide EAL learners equity with their peers while accessing the mainstream standards (Leung, 2016). Since the National Curriculum was introduced in the late 1980s, EAL learners have been expected to follow the mainstream curriculum along with their native English speaker peers (Leung, 2005).

Some schools provide EAL lessons for beginners in English, while others have in-class support provided by teaching assistants (Leung, 2016). The advantages for the more traditional pull-out model for beginners are that the EAL classroom is a safe haven and results in greater risk taking, instruction is targeted at the right language level, and EAL learners can acclimatise to the new culture of the country while preserving features of their home culture and language (Bell & Baecher, 2012: 489). However, there is a growing trend for collaborative planning between EAL and mainstream subject teachers. The advantages of a collaborative model are that EAL learners stay in the mainstream classroom with their peers and suffer less marginalisation, social discourse is improved as they are communicating with their native speaker peers, and they do not miss any valuable instruction as they are not pulled out (Bell & Baecher, 2012: 489). Inclusion based on all learners being taught the National Curriculum English programme has done much to eradicate the stigma of immigrant learners and racist attitudes (Leung, 2005).

There can however be a disconnect between general policies that encourage collaboration and the lack of a specific policy as to how language and content should be integrated in practice (Creese, 2010: 100). Many international schools attempt to do more to integrate language

learning for EAL students given the high proportion of non-native speakers (Carder, 2007); although more should be done to integrate language learning in the mainstream for EAL learners (Alderfer & Alderfer, 2011). Many international schools, just like in England (Leung, 2005), have a language policy determining that all mainstream teachers are language teachers. However, mainstream teachers frequently do not have relevant qualifications to be able to plan for language content in their lessons and a school's language policy may not be backed up by actual practice (Spencer, 2021). Given the significant numbers of EAL learners and non-native speaker students in international schools, many schools are trying to improve on the contemporary models of pull-out classes, peripheral to mainstream classes (Carder, 2014: 2). Despite the growing culture of policies of collaboration between EAL and mainstream subject teachers there are significant barriers to such practices.

Innumerable challenges surrounding integrating English language pedagogy into the mainstream classroom have been highlighted, such as those described by Alderfer and Alderfer (2011) regarding the different attitudes that mainstream and EAL teachers have towards EAL learners; the findings of Alderfer and Alderfer recognised that many teachers favoured a pull-out model of EAL rather than collaborating formally or frequently with subject teachers, highlighting the frequent lack of collaboration between mainstream and EAL teachers. Described by Davison (2006) as pseudo compliance, or passive resistance, mainstream teachers often prefer a traditional pull-out programme in order not to have to embrace the practice of teacher collaboration. This position is the polar opposite of the creative co-construction attitude Davison describes, whereby EAL and mainstream teachers create collaborative partnerships involving co-planning and co-teaching.

Further challenges preventing collaboration encompass instances where EAL learners were deemed a threat to standards (Leung, 2016: 160), implying that the differentiated support EAL learners require is somehow unfair to non-EAL learners or do not meet the standards of the

lesson. Greater awareness from mainstream teachers of the need for language provision in their classrooms, as well as a shared understanding of the role of EAL teaching and learning, and mechanisms for monitoring, evaluation and feedback are frequently not in place (Neal & Houston, 2013; Carder, 2014). Leung (2005, 2022) has argued that not enough focus on language teaching for EAL learners in the mainstream has been initiated, and that there is a need for more explicit development of EAL teaching and learning within the mainstream curriculum context.

The subordination of EAL within the confines of the content area and curriculum content teacher (Davison, 2006) can present additional challenges surrounding collaboration. An environment where the mainstream teacher does not understand the role of the EAL teacher can foster distrust which both teachers can experience (Turner, 2016: 572). Additionally, EAL teachers can tend to become marginalised in their teaching support roles (Creese, 2010) if the transmission of subject expertise has higher status. When the EAL teacher, as occurs frequently in international schools, shares the language of the EAL learners they can be marginalised even more (Turner, 2016).

Leadership support is crucial in fostering effective and collaborative partnerships. Training must be provided or made available, as well as opportunities for EAL and mainstream subject teachers to work together to co-plan lessons (Bell & Baecher, 2012); a lack of sufficient training for subject teachers to cope with the needs of EAL learners stymies the support that they need as second language learners (Hamann, 2008). Furthermore, the importance of leadership support to introduce a culture of collaboration is an essential factor for mainstream subject teachers, especially regarding workload and the misconception that planning for EAL learners takes up too much time (Davison, 2006).

5.4 Content and language teaching in the classroom

As discussed above, there is evidence that a language policy can effectively influence the nature of planning for the content of a subject in connection with the language needs of learners, for example through the implementation of CLIL (Content and language integrated learning). CLIL promotes the learning of academic content and a foreign language simultaneously (Vazquez & Ellison, 2018: 68). The concept of CLIL also advocates for a greater learning experience in general due to the enriched learning environment of additional language in conjunction with content learning. Not only are L2 competencies improved but cognitive ability in L1 also improves (Lorenzo, Casal & Moore, 2009). There is also evidence that students in CLIL classes outperform their mainstream peers and a significant benefit from CLIL instruction (Perez-Canado, 2012) is that students not only learn the L2 better in terms of fluency but also in terms of increased content knowledge. CLIL boosts risk taking, problem solving, vocab skills, grammatical awareness and motivation (Vazquez & Ellison, 2018: 69); there is no detriment to the mother tongue by implementing CLIL (Van de Craen et al, 2007).

A focus on language awareness plays an important role in mainstream classrooms. Schools that do not implement a clear strategy of language learning within the mainstream sustain an imbalance between content teaching and language teaching. Subject teachers tend to be concerned with delivering content and EAL teachers concerned with the language (Creese, 2006), whereas EAL learners need both together in their instruction. Language support focuses more frequently on the *how* of the learning experience rather than on the content, or subject, learning. A negative knock-on effect exists for EAL learners if there is a lack of a focus in mainstream teaching on the know-how of learning at the expense of the *what*, or the subject/content (Creese, 2010). An ideal collaboration between EAL and content-area teachers requires the integration of content-based EAL teaching and EAL-conscious content teaching (Davison, 2006: 457).

The continuum presented in Figure 1. below demonstrates the opposing ends of language and content (subject) teaching and learning (Creese, 2010), describing specific discourse communities where pedagogy and subject knowledge are viewed differently (Creese, 2006). Content can be used as a shell for language learning, a meeting in the centre of the content/subject and language/methodology continuum (Stoller, 2002). The more language you learn, the more content you are able to master and the more content you master, the more you are able to master language skills (Stoller, 2002).

Figure 1. Subject focused vs language focused continuum (Creese, 2010).

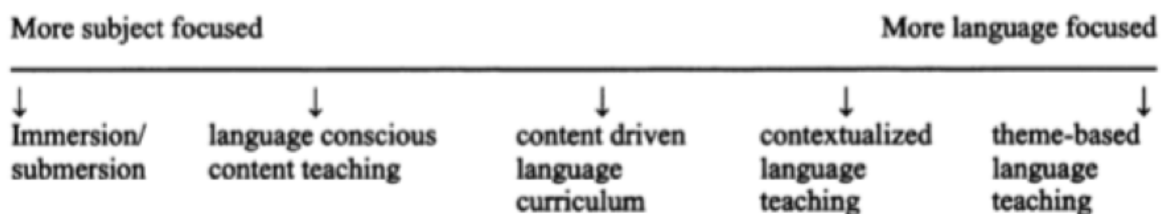


Figure 1. The continuum from more subject focused to more language focused curriculum.

The design of appropriate tasks for EAL learners within the mainstream classroom can be more problematic than at first glance; overly simplified texts might lead not only to a lack of content knowledge but also inhibit growth in language knowledge. The importance of planning collaboratively cannot be overestimated as this is when language learning through content works best, which it does not when done on an ad hoc basis (Creese, 2010). The lack of status and trust of the EAL teacher to teach content, and weariness of innovation are further barriers to effective collaboration (Bell & Baecher, 2012). De Lano, Riley and Crookes (1994) argued for innovation in EAL teaching, exploring responsibilities for change, professional development and improvement.

Studies of communication between EAL departments and mainstream teachers have identified that EAL is all too often designed to complement mainstream classes but that no formal agreed

levels are established as to what EAL students should be able to achieve (Neal & Houston, 2013). It is also crucial to understand the nature of interactions in classrooms where there are multiple teachers in the room and how they influence initiation, response, feedback (IRF) routines (Creese, 2006); the positioning of the teachers within the classroom is a vital consideration, both in terms of teacher to teacher space and co-relationships, as well as between student and teacher. Turner (2016) elaborates on how the EAL teacher's relationship to the mainstream classroom in terms of positioning can play a large role in the efficacy of language support. It is important how mainstream teachers position themselves as collaborators with EAL specialists, how they begin to understand where the gaps in their own language knowledge are and how those gaps can be filled by positioning themselves as collaborators.

The nature of collaboration in schools varies, although it is the quality and opportunity for collaboration rather than the programme model that is most important (Bell & Baecher, 2012). Furthermore, when collaboration functions at some level, it can easily disappear with changing staff and administrations that do not support collaboration that has already been implemented (Carder, 2014). Professional development in EAL should be disseminated to all teachers, whether EAL specialists or mainstream teachers (Hamann, 2008). Davison (2006) refers to Australia and Canada regarding collaborative models, although stresses that it is linguistic demands that have been researched and studied rather than the process of co-planning and co-teaching. A further example highlights training practices in Pakistan and the lack of support for professional development in EAL, arguing that collaborative action research (CAR) should act as an alternative model to the existing training programmes (Kasi, 2010). A form of action research, as described by Crookes (1993), involves schools researching for themselves the best models of collaborative practice. Collaborative action research practices aim not only to improve EAL learners' learning experiences but also to promote professional development

between teachers and encourage teacher leadership, as described by Dove and Honigsfeld (2010).

The research in this study draws on the concept of partnership teaching, as described by Creese (2010), which is a mode of collaboration whereby both the EAL teacher and the subject teacher plan together before the lesson, developing a method of co-planning and co-teaching between EAL and the mainstream. Both teachers subsequently work with all students but at different times during a lesson. The concept for the model of the two-teacher classroom allows for the EAL and mainstream teachers to complement each other (Creese, 2006). Not only does the integration between content and language improve, but it also promotes greater interdepartmental collaboration (Lorenzo, Casal & Moore, 2009: 19). Push-in and pull-out models can work side by side and it is advisable to create long term planning and objectives based on student needs for collaboration to become meaningful (Bell & Baecher, 2012). Subject teachers and EAL teachers learn improved lesson delivery and better differentiated instruction, such as in research by Englezou and Fragkouli (2014) where teachers were observed and interviewed and it was demonstrated that they used a variety of techniques to include the EAL children.

This article explores the experiences of collaboration between EAL and mainstream subject teachers. The research undertaken focuses on understanding how effective collaborative strategies are, as well as the working relationship between EAL and mainstream subject teachers. The questions deriving from the issues surrounding collaboration that drive the research are as follows:

1. How does EAL and mainstream collaboration help support EAL learners in the mainstream classroom?
2. Which co-planning strategies most effectively encourage collaboration?

3. What are EAL and mainstream teachers' opinions and experiences about co-planning and working collaboratively?

5.5 Methodology

The research took place at an IB World School in a major city in Ukraine. As of August 2021, there were 537 students at the school in classes K-12, with 269 students in the secondary school comprising 47 nationalities. There was a total of 39 EAL students from a secondary student population of 207 students in MYP (Middle Years Programme) classes, grades 6-10, making an EAL learner population of a little over 20 percent. The EAL department had three full time secondary teachers and one teaching assistant. As the researcher was at the time of data collection the head of EAL at the school there was both an opportunity to develop the implementation of EAL through drawing on relevant literature to influence the growing culture of collaborative partnerships with mainstream colleagues as well as to steer the EAL department towards such practice through the implementation of new departmental goals. The secondary school comprised eight mainstream subject departments. Table 1. below shows the number of full-time teachers in the MYP for the secondary school according to subject.

Table 1. *Number of MYP teachers according to subject*

	Language & Literature	Maths	Science	Individuals & Societies	Arts	Design	Additional Languages	Physical & Health Education
No. of teachers	3	4	4	4	3	3	7	2

The term EAL is used in this study as opposed to ESL or EFL because it is a support subject in addition to the learners' own home language. EAL is not a graded subject and does not constitute a part of the IB curriculum. New students to the school are placed in the EAL programme for English language support if they have a composite score (speaking, listening,

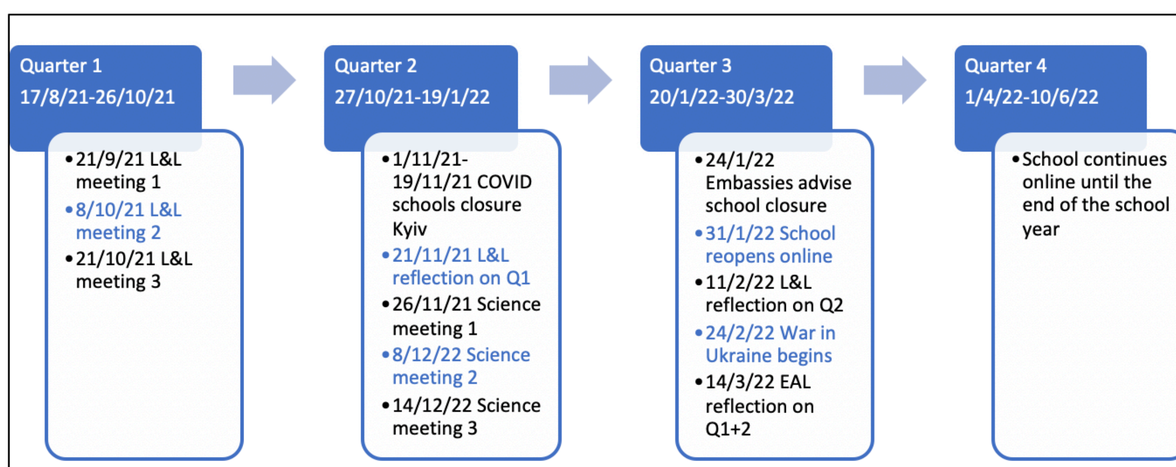
reading and writing) below 5.0 out of a maximum 6.0 in the WIDA (World-Class Instructional Design and Assessment) standardised test. English language support at the school consists of Language Acquisition English lessons as well as push-in support with the teaching assistant for EAL students in mainstream lessons. Until June 2021 English language support had also been scheduled through further English as an Additional Language lessons. A change in leadership led to an opportunity for greater collaboration and this study explores the co-planning and collaborative strategies between EAL teachers and mainstream subject teachers. Beginning in August 2021, EAL teachers were tasked with setting up scheduled co-planning meetings with mainstream teachers in order to co-plan for differentiated content and assessment methods within the mainstream classroom. From the beginning of the school year, it was clear that the EAL department would need to form a very close working relationship with the Language & Literature (L&L) department, as EAL learners would be enrolled in the L&L classes for the first time and would need support through the close collaboration of the two departments.

This study comprises data generated through focus group discussions and interviews with mainstream subject teachers regarding co-planning and collaboration, as well as field notes taken by the researcher in co-planning meetings. The study researched the efficacy of collaborative and co-planning practices as well as how such practices might have an effect on institutional policy and classroom contexts (Costley & Reilly, 2021).

To understand the real-world practices of how English language support can be implemented in the mainstream classroom it was important to focus on the study as a social inquiry with regards to the routine of teachers' collaborative practices (Hammersley, 2007). The research took place over an entire academic year in order to track the development of collaborative practices through reflective conversations between the researcher and the mainstream subject teachers. Figure 2. below shows a timeline of when the researcher met with L&L, Science and

EAL colleagues throughout the school year to discuss and reflect on collaborative strategies, as well as significant events that took place. By gathering social research from real world contexts in small scale groups, the functions of teacher actions and an understanding of participants' perspectives (Maybin & Tusting, 2011) would present a clear picture of an analysis of how social factors negotiate the meaning of local instances of language use in context (Perez-Milans, 2016).

Figure 2. Timeline of meetings and significant events in the school year 2021-22.



By focussing on locally situated research, the orientation of teacher-participant research allowed for a process of data drawn from different perspectives throughout the academic year (Richards, 2009). The data collection method through the use of qualitative interview data generated new analytical angles and findings and allowed for interpretative and opinion-based data. The repeated practice of interviewing and field notes allowed for different descriptions of the same situations or events (Copland & Creese, 2015).

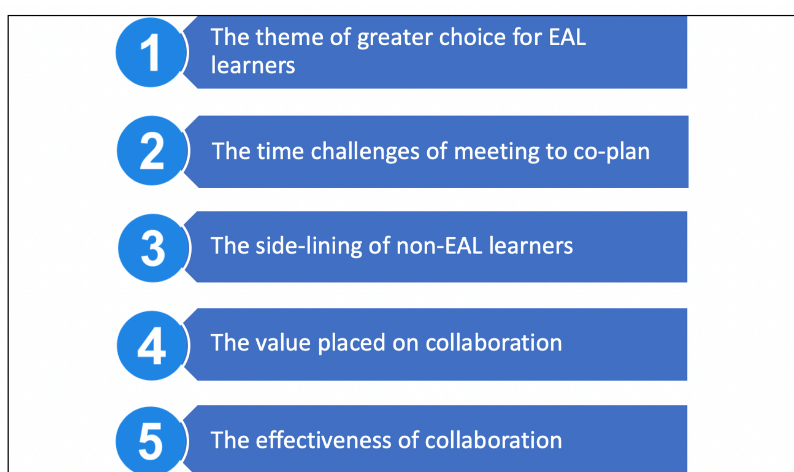
5.6 Data analysis and preliminary findings

The qualitative data, generated from discussions held with mainstream subject teachers with the researcher, are presented in coded form to ensure the anonymity of the participants.[1]

Quarter One – August 2021 to October 2021

Figure 3. below shows the five key themes which emerged from the reflective discussions and researcher's field notes from quarter one.

Figure 3. Five key themes emerging from quarter one.



The EAL and L&L departments met in mid-September 2021 to discuss guidance on modifications for assessment and how to deal with emergent level EAL learners in the L&L course. The matter of greater student choice was discussed with regards to reading texts and the production of texts, as well as how to grade EAL learners in the L&L course, as shown in the extract below,

> L&L RFN 21/9/21: 3 levels of proficiency choice – formative and summative – could be a good idea. The idea being that at the moment there is no choice with regards

[1] L&L T1 = Language & Literature Teacher One. Where the researcher has used field notes in the presentation of the data, the subject, abbreviation of RFN 'research field notes' and date are presented, e.g. L&L RFN 21/9/21 in order to demonstrate when the notes were made in the context of the data collection.

> reading text or production of text. This would be an inclusive option not only for EALers but also for learning support and lower ability native speakers.

It was felt that student choice would have a significant impact on progress for EAL learners in the L&L course as they would need texts that they could access at their language level as well as to be allowed to produce written texts at their language level.

Trying to schedule meetings at mutually free periods in the schedule proved to be difficult and whereas the EAL teachers had more time freed up in their schedules to support and co-plan with mainstream teachers, the mainstream subject teachers themselves had busy schedules and needed free periods to plan as well as to co-plan with the EAL department. Mainstream subject teachers discussed the time pressures and the potential added time pressure of co-planning with the EAL department,

> L&L T2: What is the challenge, obviously, is the time...

Each EAL teacher scheduled co-planning meetings once per six-day teaching cycle with the L&L teachers in order to support with differentiated learning and to plan the kind of in-class support that EAL learners in the L&L class might need.

> EAL T1: Because we need to have collaborative time scheduled during our PD sessions. So, if that time is kind of provided and there is this understanding of EAL teachers being equal stakeholders, then it becomes easier for not just to listen to what we are expected to do but also to kind of share ideas and be equally responsible for the whole class.

In early October two EAL teachers and two L&L teachers met with the MYP coordinator to plan the next grade 6 L&L unit – a poetry unit. The teachers had some pull-out time from their schedules to plan together for the first two weeks' teaching in detail, e.g. planning each lesson.

This pull-out time was thought of as highly beneficial by way of planning a unit in advance rather than the usual practice of weekly planning,

> L&L T2: Yeah, I want a week off because that one half-day for Grade 6 was really helpful to get the unit started. And that bought us time to get ahead of things …you know, we're framing those lessons with your input and with what you and [xxxx] and [xxxx] suggested. But it's all being in the room together for an extended amount of time.

There was a common understanding by all teachers that the existent grade six poetry unit needed adaptions for EAL learners,

> L&L RFN 8/10/21: We looked at the slides that currently exist for the unit and understood that the unit needs to be broken down a lot more to take into consideration accessibility for EALers/learning support and other students because of language issues.

One of the L&L teachers, who was new to the school as of August 2021, expressed concern regarding the amount of support that was being offered to the EAL learners and Learning Support students to the detriment of other learners in the class,

> L&L T1: So, this is where I'm struggling as, yes, I have to advocate for the EAL students, but I also have to advocate for my students who don't get that kind of support and they could benefit from that as well. So, I don't know where we are right now at that.

This kind of comment had previously been noted by the researcher in a previous planning meeting,

> L&L RFN 21/9/21: [xxxx] mentioned that you need to challenge students and is it fair for those students who don't get supports to be side-lined?

Overall, by the end of quarter one the collaboration between the EAL and L&L departments was deemed to be useful,

> L&L T1: I think that having this close collaboration has been really helpful in terms of reaching them in the best possible way. So, it has been very helpful.

> L&L T2: Because, you know, as you and I were talking before, the idea of now that we're virtual, letting you go in on those unit slides and then adding links to things that you think any kid could benefit from, that is really, really helpful.

As well as the long-term planning, the weekly planning and support from the EAL teachers had had a positive impact in the L&L classroom,

> L&L T2: And that actually came up today after my Grade 9 class with [name of colleague], 'cause I have all four of the 9s in my one class, and she was very much like, 'This is really working. I can see my kids can access things.'

> L&L T1: Yeah, [xxxx] and I have been working closely with Grade 8 as well, 8.1, and for her, looking at my assessments and then scaffolding it for the EAL students has been really helpful.

The fact that EAL teachers knew the EAL learners so well through their teaching in the Language Acquisition English class was seen as positive too,

> L&L T1: …she knows the students better at this point because she also teaching them as language acquisition, so I feel like she knows exactly how to better support them and meet their needs.

Quarter Two – November 2021 to January 2022

Following the reflective discussions at the end of quarter one, the EAL and L&L teachers continued to develop their co-planning strategies. Six key themes emerged from the reflective discussions and researcher's field notes from quarter two: the need for more structured co-planning time, the efficacy of planning ahead more, the changing nature of the lessons, issues surrounding grading, the role of EAL collaboration and teacher frustrations.

More than ever, L&L teachers felt there needed to be a more structured approach to co-planning time for all teachers,

> L&L T1: I also feel like Wednesdays could be used at least once every two months because that's like the amount of time that we normally take for a unit, like seven weeks, six weeks, and we can really sit down and talk about the next unit.

The issue of developing co-planning strategies for units in advance was also noted to be an effective strategy and was recommended as standard practice across the curriculum,

> L&L T1: I think that the last quarter has definitely improved compared to the first quarter. I think that especially for Grade 6 (I can't speak for Grade 10), but for Grade 6 [xxxx] and I have planned ahead, and you knowing way ahead what we were going to do in class, I think it helped you plan on what best strategy to offer for [xxxx].

L&L teachers also reflected on the change in their own practice they had experienced with regards to differentiation for EAL learners,

> L&L T2: …and I have been linking in visuals, simplified, like anchor charts, videos of reminders of the concepts we're doing that focuses on the language, so they have the words… So [xxxx] found a great, like, anchor chart that is just a reminder and a real clear…almost like a graphic organiser of what's in the exposition.

In addition to that, L&L teachers remarked on how collaborative strategies between their department and the EAL department had improved and become more effective in the second quarter,

> L&L T2: And I think it only gets better and better because it's not just collaborating with you ahead of time for those specific students. And then the more we work with you, the more that [xxxx] and I, or [xxxx] and I, you know, we can anticipate how to plan so that students are supported from the beginning.

> L&L T1: I think the level of flexibility that we have, that allows you to decide if the activity that was planned for Grade 6, for example, is that something that [xxxx] can do with support versus something that you feel like needs to be modified right away? I think that that has been a very positive thing.

From the EAL teacher point of view, the co-planning strategies for language differentiation were well received and had a positive effect on changing the existing poetry unit into a unit that all learners could access,

> L&L RFN 8/10/2021: …the level of breaking down and chunking exercises for EAL/LS students was openly received and created to adapt the materials. The lessons went from being more of a lecture style to more inclusive lessons that focussed on the appreciation of poetry more.

Issues that had arisen regarding the supporting of EAL learners new to L&L summative assessments and supporting them in L&L style analytical writing as well as grading for reports were also reflected upon,

> L&L T2: But when there are certain ones that require more analytical writing and they haven't had that background, you're able to support that because you understand that's

> a skill for Lang & Lit that they haven't had yet. So, I feel like that is a bridge that's really helpful.

L&L teachers reflected on the language nature of their course with regards to assessment,

> L&L T1: …how did they take the feedback from me and then revise for the summative, from a language perspective, 'cause I think that's the thing that would really help. I think that would be something that would be really helpful, if that could be built in.

The teacher in quarter one who had queried the fairness of the levels of support within her class also commented on the difficulties of grading fairly for emergent level EAL learners within the L&L programme,

> L&L T1: I'm not sure if this is related to you or what you are looking for here, but for me grading is still a big, big struggle because they are being reported as MYP Lang & Lit students and they're not being graded as MYP Lang & Lit students. So, this has been…I'm trying to wrap my mind around it still with my kids that are in this situation…

In November 2021 there was a three-week closure of schools in the city in Ukraine where the research took place due to a spike in COVID numbers. Once teaching in school returned, the researcher was tasked with collaborating with the Science department in order to see if co-planning strategies and planning for differentiation might have an impact with regards EAL learners who were struggling in Science. The researcher met with the Science department and the head of Learning Support in order to discuss where differentiation strategies could be implemented with regards to English language support. The Science team at this stage tended to rely on the researcher as head of EAL and the head of Learning Support to differentiate assessment tasks,

> Science RFN 26/11/2021: There is still a bit too much reliance on asking us to look at/adapt assessments and for the time being we will help out with that as we are at the beginning of our collaboration.

Just as an L&L colleague had queried in quarter one, a Science colleague questioned how fair it was to be differentiating his whole lesson for the two EAL learners in his class,

> Science RFN 26/11/2021: [xxxx] queried whether it was valid to change the whole lesson just for two EAL students. I countered that it was not dumbing down the lesson and that there could be plenty of scope for differentiating for the needs of gifted and talented learners too.

The researcher agreed to meet with two Science colleagues to co-plan the beginning of a new grade six unit. The researcher drew on the co-planning of the grade six poetry unit with the L&L team to contribute ideas for how the grade six students could experience the science differently in the first lessons. The use of the EAL teaching assistant who had already worked previously with Science teachers to create differentiated worksheets was also discussed. This was gratefully received by the teachers who cited time as the biggest problem for why there was not always the level of differentiation they would have liked,

> Science RFN 8/12/2021: [xxxx] said that [xxxx] might not have time to meet as he is so busy with lots of things; I observed that collaboration looks easy on paper, harder to do in practice; [xxxx] said it's impossible (with a grin). [xxxx] said that he was snowed under with kids not doing the work he set and he had lots of emails to write.

The mood and purpose of the meeting was generally positive and the Science teachers appreciated the support,

> Science RFN 8/12/2021: Lots of supports in place and teachers seemed happy that those supports would have a positive influence on students learning the science, especially the language and how that would fit in with the poem.

A further planning meeting was set up with a third Science colleague. The teacher felt frustration with his students and felt he already had enough support in place for his students, such as exemplars, essay templates and class discussions,

> Science RFN 14/12/2021: Our conversation frequently came around to what he said students are doing wrong. It was hard from my point of view to focus the discussion towards what we will try to do to support students with writing – mostly because [xxxx] believes he is doing everything he can already.

The researcher suggested students could come to the EAL department during lunchtime drop in sessions to work on their science writing. However, at this moment a student came in to present his extended essay with the teacher and the meeting abruptly ended.

Quarters Three and Four – February to June 2022

With the geopolitical situation in Ukraine worsening, on 24th January many embassies told their citizens to leave Ukraine with immediate effect. It was therefore important for the EAL department to meet regularly online in order to review the collaborative practices that had taken place thus far and to discuss how to adapt these practices for remote learning. From the reflective discussions that took place, three key themes emerged regarding EAL collaboration for remote learning: the changing role of the EAL teacher, student choice and online classroom support.

Firstly, there were several strategies from the first semester that the EAL team considered to be essential to continue with going into the remote phase of learning, such as co-planning with mainstream teachers,

> EAL T1: So that understanding that co-planning, co-teaching cannot happen effectively without co-planning, otherwise we're just like bodies in the room.

> EAL T2: There needs to be a lot of choice in place by subject teachers…and having the choice allowed us to strategically support them because those options were available…and not all students were required to produce the same piece of speaking or writing.

In addition to the continuing of collaborative practices regarding co-planning, the EAL department discussed the potential advantages of remote learning for EAL learners,

> EAL T1: I think it is more possible for me to be in classes during remote learning…you can drop into classes. If you turn your camera off you have that partial sense of anonymity and you don't make any of the students uncomfortable by existing in the classroom.

> EAL T2: Since everything is happening remotely, you can share documents and you can suggest ideas for co-planning in that space. It allows me more time and flexibility to support students more frequently and to support teachers in the ways they want. Like, breakout rooms can happen easily…you don't have to find a space outside to work in. So, space is not a constraint. There are more choices that students also have, and they can decide what breakout rooms they want to be a part of.

The focus of the EAL department was to support EAL learners as much as possible in their mainstream classes by using breakout rooms, offering one on one support during 'office hours'

support sessions and continuing to collaborate with mainstream teachers as much as possible. The nature of this collaboration was less of a co-planning model and more of a push-in support role. The nature of differentiation tended to go back to the more traditional role of the EAL teacher reviewing worksheets and assessments and taking responsibility for creating differentiated materials for the mainstream teachers. This EAL model continued for the rest of the school year.

5.7 Discussion and implications for further research

In this section each of the research questions and associated findings will be considered.

1. How does EAL and mainstream collaboration help support EAL learners in the mainstream classroom?

In response to the first research question, the data indicate three key findings: offering students greater choice in the mainstream classroom is advantageous to EAL learners, partnership teaching is crucial to EAL success and the importance of EAL, and mainstream teachers complementing each other in the classroom.

The data indicate that both EAL and mainstream teachers place great value on student choice. The collaborative strategy of planning for a variety of exercises and more inclusive, chunked exercises echoes the notion of variation of technique as mentioned by Englezou and Fragkouli (2014). Choices such as the kinds of reading texts EAL learners are given, along with a choice of text production type, as well as differentiated formative and summative assessments allow for a more inclusive classroom where EAL learners can follow the content of a mainstream subject with appropriate language support.

Regarding the strategy of partnership teaching, the data indicate that EAL and mainstream teachers place great value on the benefits of co-planning and co-teaching partnerships. EAL

and mainstream teachers planning and teaching together can foster an effective working relationship (Creese, 2010) and greater interdepartmental collaboration. This type of integration between departments can lead to the kind of EAL conscious content teaching, as mentioned by Davison (2006: 457), which when practised consistently helps support EAL learners in the mainstream classroom.

The third key feature emerging from the data indicates how EAL and mainstream collaboration can lead to effective support through teachers complementing each other in the classroom (Creese, 2006). EAL teachers also referred to the advantages of breakout rooms on the remote learning platform which allowed them to support EAL learners in a mainstream lesson in a different but nevertheless effective way. The data indicate that in an effective EAL conscious mainstream classroom, the EAL and mainstream teacher crucially play complementary roles as long as the lesson has been co-planned accordingly.

2. Which co-planning strategies most effectively encourage collaboration?

In response to the second research question, the data indicate three key features: the changing nature of mainstream lessons regarding the language/content continuum, the importance of co-planning ahead, and the need for more collaborative planning time for EAL and mainstream subject teachers.

The data indicate that the use of differentiated visuals, and a more simplified approach to teaching the grade six poetry unit, had significantly contributed to an improved and more inclusive way of teaching. The notion that there was a greater focus on language than had previously existed echoed Stoller's (2002) emphasis on the need for EAL and mainstream co-teaching to meet in the centre of the subject and language continuum. Furthermore, teachers appreciated the changing nature of lessons, moving from a lecture style to more of an appreciation of literature. By including performance and translanguaging strategies students

could share poetry in their home languages which encouraged a greater sense of inclusivity in the classroom.

Regarding the emphasis placed on EAL and mainstream teachers co-planning, the data indicate that teachers placed great value on establishing routines of collaboration, as mentioned by Hammersley (2007). Such a strategy allowed them to be more prepared in their efforts to support EAL learners effectively, rather than the more ineffective type of support offered on an ad hoc basis (Creese, 2010). Despite the concern teachers raised about the continuing lack of scheduled collaborative planning time (Bell & Baecher, 2012), the data indicate that planning ahead not only helps EAL learners in the classroom but also helps teachers anticipate how to plan effectively so that students are supported from the beginning rather than retroactively.

The third key feature emerging from the data indicates how deeply sought after more collaborative planning time is. The data suggest that there is a need for stronger support from leadership to implement more consistent planning times together, for example during staff professional development time every other week after school. This fits in with the notion of developing more formal meeting times (Dove & Honigsfeld, 2010; McDougal, 2015) which allow EAL and mainstream teachers to be in the same room together to co-plan. Such a notion corelates to the development of collaboration, as mentioned by Bell and Baecher (2012), with leadership providing time to not only plan and collaborate but also implement the kind of training necessary for collaborative practices between EAL and the mainstream to take place.

3. What are EAL and mainstream teachers' opinions and experiences about co-planning and working collaboratively?

In response to the third research question, the data indicate two key features: the role and positioning of the EAL teacher, and teacher frustrations of supporting EAL learners.

The data indicate that where effective scheduled co-planning took place the role of the EAL teacher within the mainstream classroom embraced equal responsibility for the class. Such a positive belief in co-teaching echoes Neal and Houston's (2013) and Carder's (2014) emphasis on the importance of a shared understanding of the role of the EAL teacher. However, further data regarding the Science teachers indicate that there was too much reliance on the handing over of the responsibility of differentiation to EAL teachers with regards to formative and summative assessments. Such positioning and lack of clarity of the role of the EAL teacher implies that planning for EAL learners takes too much time and is the sole responsibility of the EAL teacher (Turner, 2016), and favours a pull-out style model whereby the mainstream subject teacher takes little responsibility for their EAL learners. The data also indicate that despite the collaboration that had taken place, once remote learning started the positioning of the EAL teacher in the mainstream classroom tended to revert back to more of a support role in breakout rooms with the lesson being planned and conducted entirely by the mainstream subject teacher.

Numerous frustrations were felt by mainstream teachers with regards to supporting EAL learners. Firstly, the data indicate that some teachers felt it was unfair to devote too much time to planning for EAL learners when they had other students in the class to think about, with one teacher questioning if it was fair to the other students in the class to have to change the lesson for just two EAL learners. This indicates the underlying issue of the misconception that there is a threat to standards when EAL differentiation must occur (Leung, 2016: 160). Further frustrations included the difficulties surrounding grading for EAL learners in addition to students not responding to supports that already existed. Such frustrations indicate insufficient training for mainstream subject teachers, as mentioned by Hamann (2008), and the lack of promoting professional development or encouragement for EAL teachers to take up more of a leadership role with regards to EAL training for subject teachers (Dove & Honigsfeld, 2010).

5.8 Conclusion

The findings of this article indicate that there are many collaborative strategies that can be developed between EAL and mainstream departments which can effectively be implemented to support EAL learners in the mainstream, for example through co-planning ahead and having a clear definition of the role of the EAL teacher. The findings in this small-scale study, however, do indicate that effective and close partnerships between EAL and the mainstream are forged when the teachers make the time to collaborate; this time is frequently not scheduled as part of a teacher's teaching hours. The question therefore arises as to how consistent and scheduled collaboration can take place between EAL and mainstream departments for the benefit of all teachers.

As this study shows there is a need for leadership teams to evolve their schools' language policies to develop more embedded collaborative practices between EAL and the mainstream. The scheduling of collaboration tends not to be a part of a school's language policy, which tends to focus more on language standards that guide an EAL department. In addition to the lack of directed collaborative time, a school's language policy must provide for regular professional development and training regarding collaborative strategies for mainstream teachers with the EAL department. Such training could be led by EAL departments as part of a school's weekly professional development meetings. The training could potentially go a long way to rectifying the misconceptions some mainstream teachers have voiced in this study regarding differentiation and standards in the classroom, in addition to helping mainstream teachers to create EAL focused classrooms where necessary. As this study has shown, teaching partnerships can effectively co-plan existing mainstream units by implementing a range of strategies to focus on a meeting of language and content to best support EAL learners; enabling the time for this to occur with consistency is key for it to become common practice.

Chapter 6: Conclusion

6.1 Introduction

The concluding chapter of this thesis will demonstrate how the research undertaken in the three articles in the main body of the text can have a significant impact on improving the implementation of EAL in international schools. The conclusion will demonstrate how the substantive points that arose from the research findings and the synthesised overall findings of the three articles are developed into a set of recommendations; these recommendations form the basis for how international schools can transform their EAL programmes in order to best support EAL learners by implementing collaborative strategies between EAL and the mainstream.

The first section of this conclusion will detail the substantive points that arose from the research findings in the body of this thesis. In connection with the synthesised overall research findings from the three articles in the main body of the thesis, the substantive points answer the broad research questions set out in the introductory chapter:

> What are mainstream subject teachers' experiences and attitudes towards EAL learners and EAL collaboration?
>
> How do EAL learners identify in the context of their learning community? What is their place in the international school community? What importance is placed on the home language and culture?
>
> Which co-planning strategies are most effective with regards to EAL and the mainstream?

The synthesised findings from the three articles formulate the basis for the recommendations set out in Section 6.6. This section will set out six recommendations with regards to how

international schools can transform their EAL programmes into a more collaborative model by reviewing and adapting their existing language policies.

6.2 Substantive points arising from the research findings from the three articles

Each substantive point is presented for each article in turn. The substantive points and related overall findings from each of the research articles are presented in relation to the broad research questions. A summary of findings with reference to each article demonstrates how the over-arching aims of answering each of the broad research questions was achieved throughout the three articles.

6.3 Article One: The importance of the need for a better understanding of EAL and the mainstream

In undertaking to understand experiences and attitudes to EAL within the confines of an international school, clear substantive points emerged in the research findings from Article One in this thesis. In seeking to better understand how EAL functions and to address the broad research question set out in the introduction section regarding what are mainstream subject teachers' experiences and attitudes towards EAL learners and EAL collaboration, Article One found that opportunities to collaborate are missed and that it is in everyone's interests, both EAL and mainstream teachers, to find solutions to the challenges of EAL and mainstream teachers requiring more time to plan and collaborate. The clear need for international schools to understand how EAL functions in the mainstream classroom through the lens of mainstream teachers' experiences and attitudes of EAL is crucial in order to form the basis for building a more collaborative model. In addition to this, the article concluded that EAL and mainstream teachers need support within their schools to enable this.

6.3.1 Lack of consistency in initial teacher training and professional development in EAL

Article One revealed a key concern regarding teachers who are employed in international schools who have a significant number of non-native English speakers and EAL learners in their classrooms. The findings argued that there is not only a lack of consistency in the types of training participants received in both ITT and professional development (PD) but also a lack of understanding of the kind of EAL PD that is most appropriate for supporting EAL learners in an international school in the mainstream classroom. It is hardly surprising that the diverse backgrounds of a group of international school teaching staff would likewise reflect a very diverse set of profiles and educational backgrounds; however, with a majority of participants responding that they had not received any EAL training in ITT (see Section 3.5, p.94), it is therefore paramount to understand where any knowledge of or training related to EAL is obtained (Leung, 2001; Foley et al, 2013; Leung 2016). The confusion in the responses regarding EAL provision in ITT demonstrated the lack of consistency that international schools face with regards to a common understanding of appropriate EAL training standards among their staff.

With the recognition of continued growth in the international school sector and the commensurate growth of students within those organisations that require EAL support (Brummitt & Keeling, 2013; ICEF Monitor, 2014; Hingston, 2022), the findings of Article One argued that there are significant inconsistencies regarding how well qualified mainstream teachers are in terms of offering adequate language support within their classrooms. With less than half of all participants responding that they had received any EAL training within their initial teacher training (ITT) programmes, the findings highlighted the need for international schools to forge a greater awareness of recruiting mainstream teachers that are not only experts in their given fields but also have a more in depth understanding of the EAL conscious classroom. The findings also asserted that where teachers had not received EAL training during ITT, such training is frequently acquired through professional development or postgraduate

study (see Section 3.5, p.94-5) while teachers are working in international schools. Article One argued that it therefore follows that international schools, as reflected in the work of Carder (2011; 2015), must to a large extent bear responsibility for actively promoting EAL training for their mainstream subject teachers to ensure that their EAL learners are supported according to the most recent and innovative practices regarding EAL in the mainstream.

6.3.2 The spirit of *all teachers are language teachers* is not always upheld

Many international schools either explicitly include the spirit of *every teacher is a language teacher* in their language policy or at the very least as an expectation given their teaching and learning environments. In my analysis of the quantitative data I identified a willingness that mainstream teachers expressed to working with EAL teachers and planning for differentiated content for EAL learners (see Section 3.5, p.98). However, the qualitative data in the research findings demonstrated varying complexities regarding the realities of day to day teaching which means the concerns expressed in the qualitative data indicated the very real problems surrounding a busy mainstream subject teacher who is focussed on delivering content under pressure which can be to the detriment of a focus on language.

Further findings in Article One demonstrated that although mainstream subject teachers are frequently aware of the need to support EAL learners through specific strategies, such as focusing on subject specific vocabulary, modelling language and the setting up of a language conscious teaching space, there can be a discrepancy between mainstream teachers' EAL awareness and actual practice regarding supporting EAL learners. The article argued that there is a need for a whole school culture of EAL conscious teaching, as mentioned by Alderfer and Alderfer (2011) and Carder (2014), if international schools are to make good on the frequent commitment that every teacher is a language teacher.

6.3.3 Significant barriers prevent collaboration between EAL and the mainstream

In addition to the discrepancy between awareness and practice regarding supporting EAL learners, mainstream teachers' attitudes towards the positioning of EAL teachers brought up significant findings. The focus group in the study offered suggestions as to the nature of the problems mainstream subject teachers have when sharing classroom space with EAL specialists. Such issues, including teachers being overly protective of their classroom space, teaching rooms becoming too crowded with teachers, and EAL learners being too dependent on their EAL push-in support specialists, indicated the problems that can occur for both EAL and mainstream subject teachers regarding the role of the EAL teacher and how it is perceived (De Lano, Riley & Crookes, 1994; Leung, 2001; Neal & Houston, 2013). Article One argued that a common understanding of not only the responsibility of the mainstream teacher for focusing on language in their classroom practice, but also a school wide understanding of how push-in EAL support or co-teaching with an EAL teacher fits into the mainstream classroom is essential in order to enable a common approach to supporting EAL learners (Dove & Honigsfeld, 2013).

In order for effective collaboration between EAL and the mainstream to occur, the first article argued that there must be a professional culture of collaboration in international schools. The findings in the article indicated that a more commonplace practice of collaboration frequently occurs on an unplanned and ad hoc basis rather than a more planned model of collaboration, existing as a consistent practice through scheduled planning sessions between EAL and the mainstream. The article found that many teachers cited issues regarding lack of time to meet with EAL teachers as well as concerns surrounding EAL teachers' lack of content knowledge in their subjects and the amount of time it would take to explain the content to them. However, Article One also argued that school leadership teams must allow EAL and mainstream teachers the time to meet in order for collaboration to take place as lack of time is frequently cited as the main barrier for collaboration to take place (see Section 3.6, p.104).

6.3.4 Summary of findings

Regarding the importance of the need for a better understanding of how effective EAL support is achieved in the mainstream classroom, Article One concluded that much of it is not achieved without a great deal of intentionality. Whether one looks at the nature of how well qualified and trained mainstream teachers are to provide support for their EAL learners, or how willing they are to collaborate with EAL teachers, the effectiveness of EAL provision is greatly impaired unless it is embedded in whole school practice.

Article One concluded that an understanding of mainstream teachers' experiences and attitudes towards EAL and collaboration forms the starting block for the beginning of building a truly effective and collaborative EAL programme. Once an international school has acquired an understanding of how well-trained mainstream teachers are with regards to latest practices in teaching EAL in the mainstream, a strong basis is formed from which to offer appropriate professional development. Likewise, such knowledge can also formalise a common understanding of how the roles of the EAL and mainstream teachers not only complement each other through a shared understanding of both content and language, but also inform and encourage a professional culture of collaboration. Such a professional culture goes some way to enabling a more intentioned method of providing EAL support in the mainstream classroom and a more consistent approach to implementing EAL provision.

With an improved understanding of mainstream teachers' attitudes and experiences of EAL, the next logical step was to research from the EAL learner's perspective what EAL meant to them. It was necessary to find out from the very people that EAL programmes affect the most how they themselves viewed the EAL programmes and strategies that set out to support them. Following the investigation in the first article regarding the mainstream teacher role within the sphere of EAL strategies in the mainstream classroom, the second article set out to investigate

how EAL learners viewed themselves in the role of the EAL learner in terms of understanding EAL through self-identity via the home language and culture, as well as learning how EAL learners viewed the purpose of EAL.

6.4 Article Two: The importance of the need for better understanding of EAL learners

In contrast to the first article which sought to understand EAL from the perspective of mainstream teachers, the research findings from the second article in this thesis demonstrated the need to understand EAL from the learner perspective. In seeking to understand EAL learners better and address the broad research questions regarding how EAL learners identify in the context of their learning community, what their place is in the international school community and the importance placed on home culture, Article Two concluded that EAL learners are frequently unaware of the value of their home culture and language with regards to the development of their English language skills. The article argued that international schools are often not doing enough to promote an understanding of the linguistic cultural capital that international school students bring with them. The article further argued that this is due in part to the lack of collaboration between EAL and mainstream teachers to ensure that language is explicitly taught in the mainstream classroom. The second article called for a greater understanding of how international schools' language policies reflect an understanding of EAL learners with regards to both their linguistic cultural capital and the promotion of effective English language learning.

6.4.1 Learner motivation and understanding of EAL purpose

The data findings from Article Two indicated that there was aspirational motivation for EAL learners to work hard and improve their language skills in order to join their peers in the native speaker level English course (see Figure 2, p.118). However, there was a palpable difference in relation to how EAL learners viewed the purpose of English language support in accordance

with their age (see Figure 4, p.121). Middle school participants generally viewed EAL as a class that existed for learning basic English skills, whereas high school participants connected EAL as a support subject to the opportunities to review their English language skills and more specific aspects of language learning in accordance with their language needs in mainstream subjects. These findings reflected Kayi-Aydar's (2013) investigations surrounding EAL learners taking responsibility for and reflecting on their own learning. Article Two therefore questioned how EAL learners are being supported in their specific needs the older they get and the closer they are to formulating their future plans for university entry; this also raises questions about the role of EAL provision and how well suited it is to students' sense of identity. These findings additionally echoed Harklau's (1994) research on the responsibility for learning that EAL learners frequently experience the more they advance through a school programme. The data also found that participants recognised that their enrolment in an international school where all subjects are in the English language and that they have access to an English-speaking community also played a significant role in their motivation to develop their English language skills (see Table 3, p.121).

Article Two demonstrated a key finding with regards to EAL learners' understanding of EAL within the context of the learning environment of their school. As Hawkins (2005) stated, there is a connection between learner identity and the learning context and the manifestation of their beliefs as EAL learners. The data findings of the article found that participants understood clearly that EAL was a necessary course in order to improve their English language skills; they also recognised EAL was a transitory and short-term course and a stage of language development to be completed. The data demonstrated that EAL was to enable them, in their own words, to 'work towards a higher level', to exit and 'move up a level' to an English course that required a native speaker level of proficiency in English.

6.4.2 Students do not experience isolation but recognise the difference in language levels

Article Two found that participants did not appear to think of themselves differently to their peers. There was a common consensus among the participants that they did not feel in any way different to their non-EAL peers in the school, in contrast to research literature that is centred on the problems of isolation and lack of self-esteem experienced by EAL learners in many contexts (Ortmeier-Hooper, 2008; Safford & Costley, 2008). Whether in terms of social status or general academic ability, participants did not seemingly experience the cultural barrier, as mentioned by Spack (1988), of isolation due to their status of being EAL learners (see Figure 3, p.120). This finding confirmed the notion of the international school EAL learners participating in this study conforming to an essential identity, such as Walters and Auton-Cuff's concept of *global nomads.* Such learners are able to adapt well to an international school environment due to their profiles, conforming with Tanu's (2008) description of such learners as *cultural chameleons*.

6.4.3 The participants did not value their cultural capital as language learners

In the light of the development of many international schools to focus on the diversity of a school's nationalities in their marketing and celebration events, the findings from Article Two were all the more remarkable considering the overwhelming number of responses recorded that participants did not feel that their home language was useful in connection with developing their English language skills (see Figure 5, p.124). Despite the many research studies that have established the importance of strong home language skills as an aid for EAL learners to support their English language learning (Safford & Collins, 2007; Ortmeier-Hooper, 2008, Chaparro, 2014; Benson, Chappell & Yates, 2018), this article found that participants had not experienced an explicit demonstration regarding an appreciation of the home language and the cultural capital that they bring with them to an international school. Article Two therefore argued how it is crucial to understand where school policies are failing in getting the message through to all learners that in an English medium school all language, cultures and backgrounds are to be

celebrated, not only in the sense of inclusivity but also as a means to aid teaching and learning. The article further argued that international schools must take greater responsibility for promoting better understanding of how EAL learners' linguistic cultural capital could be utilised more in connection with their English language learning. As well as the many effective learning opportunities that can be presented for students to make connections between classroom content and their previous learning experiences in other cultures, a greater focus on how content is expressed linguistically in different cultures could provide a way to recognise the diversity of students and find a practical use for students' cultural capital within their learning in the mainstream classroom.

6.4.4 Summary of findings

Article Two concluded that there are many strategies that international schools can utilise in order to understand how their EAL learners identify in the context of their learning community and to celebrate their home languages and cultures. The language portraits used in the study in order to facilitate conversations with the participants is one effective strategy; such portraits allow teachers to better understand the often complex nature of international school students' linguistic cultural backgrounds that are frequently not based on a single language or culture.

This thesis therefore concludes that an active policy of international schools not only understanding who their EAL learners are, but also in celebrating and utilising the cultural diversity that they bring with them is a key factor in supporting them in the development of their English language skills. This could be developed into a school's language policy from which a more focused approach and attitude towards more language conscious mainstream classrooms could arise. Furthermore, the article argued that a language policy which fosters a more collaborative community between EAL and mainstream teachers would ensure EAL learners greater access to learning in the mainstream classroom. The issue of a school's

language policy provoked my thinking for the third and final article of this thesis. It seemed logical that if an international school's language policy concerns all teachers and should, among many things, promote a more EAL conscious mainstream classroom, it would therefore make sense to research how effective strategies of collaboration between EAL and mainstream teachers could be implemented. Recommendations would then be made for developing greater focus on a school's language policy with regards to collaboration between EAL and the mainstream.

6.5 Article Three: How EAL and mainstream collaboration help support EAL learners in the mainstream classroom

In seeking to answer the broad research question as to which co-planning strategies are most effective with regards to EAL and the mainstream, Article Three found that there is frequently not enough time embedded in a teacher's schedule to meet and to co-plan to develop EAL conscious lessons. The article argued that leadership teams must promote and encourage greater collaboration between EAL and the mainstream by allowing for consistent and scheduled time with teachers' workloads in order to develop an effective approach for teachers to be able to co-plan ahead. The article further called for leadership teams in international schools to review their language policies in order to include a policy that allows for and encourages scheduled meeting time between EAL and the mainstream and called for leadership teams to promote the implementation of professional development in collaborative strategies led by EAL teams. Finally, the article argued that the development of partnership teaching is essential in order for the central message to be clear that all teachers are responsible for EAL learners.

The third article in this thesis sought to investigate how EAL teachers can most effectively collaborate with mainstream teachers to support EAL learners. The research findings in this

third article highlighted the successes as well as the challenges of the models of collaboration that were developed throughout the school year. The following substantive points arose from the research findings from Article Three.

6.5.1 The development of student choice through differentiation as a result of collaborative partnership teaching

Article Three highlighted key findings resulting from the collaborative process undertaken between EAL and mainstream teachers. As a result of the close collaborative relationship between EAL and mainstream teachers, data from a reflective discussion held after the first quarter of teaching indicated that mainstream teachers found that great value was placed on the student choice that had arisen due to co-planning strategies (see Appendix 22). Because EAL learners within the mainstream classroom had been presented with a variety of reading texts to choose from at their language level, as well as choice in text production types and differentiated formative and summative assessments, EAL learners were able to follow the mainstream curriculum with appropriate language support. The article argued that this allowed for greater inclusivity within the mainstream classroom as EAL learners felt more confident learning mainstream subject content differentiated to their language level.

6.5.2 The importance of established routines of collaboration and the need for collaborative planning time

Article Three demonstrated key findings surrounding the need for established routines for EAL and mainstream teachers to co-plan, as mentioned by Hammersley (2007). The article argued that co-planning between EAL and mainstream teachers allows EAL teachers to be better prepared to support EAL learners within the mainstream classroom as they not only understand and have co-planned the lesson but also have a significant understanding of the direction in which teaching and learning is heading regarding the aims and objectives of the unit content

(see Section 5.7, p.153). Such a key finding highlighted the importance of EAL teachers supporting learners from the beginning of the teaching and learning process, allowing EAL learners every chance to succeed, rather than retroactively supporting EAL learners once work has been completed with difficulty and less success. However, the data findings also found that teachers still felt that there was not enough planning time across the whole curriculum (Bell & Baecher, 2012) and that successful collaboration and co-planning still relied on teachers having to make the extra time in addition to their planning schedules to meet and to effectively co-plan.

Numerous challenges surrounding the development of collaborative planning between EAL and the mainstream were found in the article research data. The aforementioned issues in the introduction to this thesis regarding the time constraints for conducting action research (AR), as observed by Wallace (1991) and Denny (2005), echo the very same challenges surrounding teachers' opportunities to meet and to co-plan. The findings in article three argued that teachers who participated in the developing co-planning and co-teaching strategies in this study reflected that collaboration was at its most effective when formal, consistently scheduled planning meetings were organised. The article therefore argued that there is a great need for leadership teams to support and enable co-planning time to be scheduled and that the catalyst for collaborative practice to become a whole school approach is for collaboration time between EAL and the mainstream to be a key feature of a school's language policy.

Article Three argued that the inclusion of collaboration in a school's language policy delivers a strong message that all teachers are responsible for the EAL learners' language needs in their classrooms and that help and support is available from EAL teams to ensure that planning for both content and language can effectively occur. Furthermore, such a language policy can promote the role of EAL teachers as a means for leading professional development (PD) within a school regarding effective collaborative practices. It is a logical step for international schools

to utilise the expertise and experience of EAL teachers within their own organisation to lead PD and tailor it to the profile and specific needs of the unique learners of each school. Such an approach could contribute to the very necessary transition, as mentioned by Nunan (2006: 4), of a school shifting from notions of collaborative theory towards implementing effective collaborative practice.

6.5.3 The role and positioning of the EAL teacher in relation to the shared roles of supporting EAL learners. The frustrations of mainstream subject teachers within their role supporting EAL learners

Key findings arose from the third article related to the principle of the shared roles of supporting EAL learners in the mainstream classroom. The data found that strong collaboration in co-planning and co-teaching embraces the principle of a shared responsibility for supporting EAL learners' language needs (Neal & Houston, 2013; Carder, 2014). However, where there was less of a collaborative planning process, the data indicated that there was still too much over-reliance on handing over the responsibility to the EAL teacher to differentiate tasks for EAL learners (see Section 5.6, p.150). In the data findings some mainstream teachers voiced the frustration that it was unfair to devote so much planning and teaching time to just one or two EAL learners within the class when there are other learners in the class who don't get so much time and attention (see Section 5.6, pp.145-6, 150). Furthermore, these teachers also expressed concern that by implementing change and differentiation for language learners, teaching standards would not be met as they felt that the teaching and learning would be over-simplified. Article Three argued that there was a lack of training in EAL strategies and planning (Hamann, 2008) and demonstrated the need for more in-house EAL training for mainstream teachers (Dove & Honigsfeld, 2010).

There are innumerable benefits regarding effective co-planning and co-teaching between EAL and the mainstream. As argued above in Section 6.5.2, the shift to more EAL conscious mainstream classroom teaching allows all stakeholders to be able to plan for and implement EAL support strategies in anticipation of the challenges EAL learners face in the school wide curriculum rather than attempting to act and support retroactively. The availability of resources, particularly with regards to adequate EAL staffing, is a key requirement to enable this. The third article argued for the importance of employing enough teachers in an EAL department to allow for collaboration to take place; without the newly employed third EAL teacher taking a position at the school where this AR study took place, the development and practice of collaborative strategies would have been significantly impaired due to the commitments of two EAL teachers covering all of the teaching and learning for EAL and language acquisition classes. The article further argued that EAL teachers need the time to be able to take part in planning meetings. De Lano, Riley and Crookes (1994: 491) proposed that it is crucial for all teachers to play an active role in all stages of the EAL process; it is therefore vital that EAL teachers be given the flexibility to be able to meet and co-plan with mainstream teachers.

Article Three argued that supporting EAL learners is not the sole responsibility of the EAL teacher (De Lano, Riley & Crookes, 1994). When a strong emphasis on collaboration exists between EAL and the mainstream, teachers can complement each other not only through the effective practice of co-planning for both content and language but also in the active roles of co-teaching in the classroom. The experience of collaboration in the third article found, for example, that roles between EAL and mainstream teachers can be flexible within the classroom. As well as both teachers being positioned within the classroom context as co-teachers, mainstream teachers can focus on actively supporting EAL learners in small groups and EAL teachers can work with the non-EAL learners. Such practice strengthens the notion that both teachers are present within the classroom for all learners. The article found that neither

the EAL learners nor the EAL teachers feel marginalised and the practice of partnership teaching echoes the culture of an inclusive classroom environment.

6.5.4 Summary of findings

The implementation of AR in this third and final article was crucial in order to research and put into practice the developing collaborative strategies between EAL and the mainstream. This highly innovative and new approach to supporting EAL learners had never been attempted before at the school where this research took place. As mentioned above, the arrival of a third EAL teacher enabled this approach and there was strong support from the leadership team, both in terms of extra planning time made available for co-planning to occur when it was necessary to have more than the usual scheduled planning time within departments, as well as taking part in the planning sessions on occasion. However, the data found there was a consensus between both the EAL and mainstream teachers that the passion and desire for developing more effective strategies to support EAL learners was what drove the collaboration and this required all participating teachers to devote much more time to co-planning than is usual in a typical schedule (see Section 5.8, p.157). As a result of the findings of the article that effective collaboration is entirely possible in existing schools, for it to become more common practice article three called for leadership teams to reflect on the conclusion of this third article and focus on establishing more consistency for embedding scheduled planning time between EAL and the mainstream. The article's conclusion stated that the kernel of collaboration begins in a clear language policy that states not only that all teachers bear responsibility for EAL learners but that collaboration is a key feature of a school's commitment to supporting EAL learners.

6.6 Recommendations for how a school can transform its language policy to ensure greater support for EAL learners through collaboration between EAL and the mainstream.

6.6.1 Introduction

In seeking to utilize the important findings from the three articles in the most effective and purposeful method, this section sets out a list of six recommendations for international schools to follow regarding their EAL programmes. The recommendations have been conceived as a result of the findings from the data of the three articles in the main body of this thesis.

The recommendations are set out in three sections: firstly, recommendations are made with regards to the importance of understanding EAL learners. I believe that it is the EAL learners themselves that lie at the heart of the research in this thesis as they are the stakeholders most affected by decisions surrounding the implementation of EAL. Indeed, the guiding principle of this thesis is the strong need to develop the most effective methods to support English language learners in international schools. Secondly, recommendations are made with regards to understanding the roles of EAL and mainstream subject teachers in connection with ensuring that all teachers are language teachers in practice within an international school context. Furthermore, the importance of professional development led by EAL teachers is set out. Thirdly, recommendations are made regarding the creation of an EAL conscious school. These final recommendations will highlight how effective collaborative co-planning should be implemented, the responsibility that all teachers must have for EAL learners and the importance that effective collaborative practices have in the new phenomenon of prolonged online teaching and learning due to the COVID-19 pandemic. Figure 1 below presents the list of six recommendations.

Figure 1. Recommendations for how a school can transform its language policy to ensure greater support for EAL learners through collaboration between EAL and the mainstream

Understanding EAL learners

1. Recognise students' linguistic and cultural profiles
2. Promote the importance of strong home language skills

Understanding the roles of EAL and mainstream subject teachers

3. Understand teachers' abilities and qualifications to teach EAL learners
4. Develop the importance of in-house EAL PD for mainstream teachers

Creating an EAL conscious school

5. Develop a structured model for formal collaboration between EAL and the mainstream
6. Ensure the continuation of collaboration in online learning

6.7 Understanding EAL learners

6.7.1 Recommendation 1. Recognise students' linguistic and cultural profiles

On the face of it, international schools appear overtly to celebrate the different cultures of the student body within their organisations, with flags decorating the school, signage within faculty buildings displaying different languages and cultural community events; all of these represent an outward promotion of intercultural sensitivity. The second article in this thesis, however, sought to investigate the more in-depth complexities of EAL learners' views on self-identity, home culture and community in an international school. As Hawkins (2005) stated, the identity

of a learner is linked to the context of the learning environment; the extent to which EAL learners' home language and culture are influential in the language classroom was explored.

The article also reflected on the data derived from EAL learners' understanding of how their home culture and self-perceived identities, their 'internal forces', influence their language learning compared to the 'external forces' of the classroom and the wider community of the school. The data in this second article demonstrated that the majority of participants did not consider their home language to be of any significance in connection with their learning of English. As stated in the article, there is much research that indicates that a strong home language is advantageous to second language acquisition. The data indicated that despite an apparent lack of a sense of marginalisation in social status as EAL learners and participants' strong understanding of EAL as a 'step up' to the level of proficiency required for the language and literature course, there was a disconnect between the internal forces of linguistic and cultural identity students bring with them to an international school and the value they place on how influential they feel that to be within the external forces of the classroom and the wider school community.

International schools must therefore have a greater focus on understanding their EAL learners' linguistic and cultural profiles. This understanding should not solely be for the benefit of the EAL teachers but conspicuously be available to all teachers. It would also benefit such schools to broaden out this understanding to all learners at an international school as non-EAL learners frequently have equally complex linguistic and cultural backgrounds. This common understanding of learners' cultural capital would go some way to fostering a greater appreciation of cultural capital and utilising it in the classroom to its fullest extent in an international classroom and community. Such an understanding would allow EAL learners to draw on their previous learning experiences from different cultures and enable a culture of inclusivity that celebrates all linguistic and cultural heritages.

6.7.2 Recommendation 2. Promote the importance of strong home language skills

A significant issue facing EAL learners is the perception that a lack of linguistic knowledge implies lack of academic ability (Safford & Collins, 2007). International schools must ensure a greater understanding of the assimilation and acculturation issues (Watts-Taffe & Truscott, 2000) that affect their EAL learners. If EAL learners experience a disconnect between their home learning style and that of their new school, as mentioned by Ortmeier-Hooper (2008), students will all too readily disregard the importance of their home language skills that they have undoubtedly used to great effect in previous learning experiences.

The data in the second article in this thesis demonstrated that there were a variety of responses when participants were asked if there was anything in their native language that helped then in their English language development. Only two participants specifically answered that their native language helped them with their English acquisition. Further responses elicited that the alphabet was similar, that some of the grammar was the same or that they were able to make connections between their native language and English. However, there was a greater frequency of responses where participants stated that the languages were very different or that they didn't think their ability in their native language helped with English acquisition. There was therefore little indication that participants for the most part believed that their native language played an important role in their learning of English.

It is vital that international schools must focus on a push to highlight the importance to students of strong home language skills. It is clear from the data in the second article that such a message had not got through to the participants, despite the existence of a mother tongue programme and the inclusion in the school's language policy of a clause that states the value the school places on the mother tongue, or home language. International schools must send a clear message to all of their learners that not only do strong home language skills help with the

acquisition of a second language but also that students who are language learners can also be high achievers academically. International schools should continue to celebrate linguistic and cultural diversity in their communities but must also explicitly promote the linguistic connections that EAL learners can make to achieve success, for example by allowing students to master content in the home language, collaborating with peers with a common home language or brainstorming, outlining and organising ideas in the home language. There is a wealth of translanguaging strategies that students can use and that teachers can implement into the mainstream classroom. Such strategies can help every EAL learner to be a success at their individual language level.

6.8 Understanding the roles of EAL and mainstream subject teachers

6.8.1 Recommendation 3. Understand teachers' abilities and qualifications to teach EAL learners

The teaching staff at an international school are, as a norm, a highly diverse group of people. Teachers at international schools represent a range of individuals with a variety of differing experiences, both as teachers in their subject field and in their individual employment histories in the types of schools they have taught in. Although teaching staff at international schools have often been represented predominantly by teachers from western English-speaking countries, such as the UK, the USA, Canada and Australia, many schools, including the school where the research in this thesis took place, have begun to take steps to employ a far more diverse range of teachers from a variety of cultural backgrounds. It is therefore increasingly important for international schools to understand the background that individual teachers have regarding their ability and qualifications to teach EAL learners within the confines of the mainstream classroom.

Data from the first article in this thesis demonstrated that at the school and region in eastern Europe where the research was conducted the teachers employed there had a substantial amount of teaching experience which was significantly inverse to the amount of teaching experience they had at international schools, as represented in Figures 1 and 2, pp.93-4. The question therefore arose as to where teachers had achieved any training in teaching EAL learners, whether as a part of initial teacher training (ITT), postgraduate studies or professional development. The data further demonstrated that a majority of participants in the study had not experienced any EAL training as part of their ITT and that there was a lack of consistency in the survey not only regarding participants' understanding of the question in the survey regarding EAL as a part of ITT but also in the responses as to where they had achieved any training in teaching EAL learners. The wide range of responses indicated a lack of consistency in the type of training most appropriate to teach EAL learners in the mainstream at an international school.

It is therefore crucial for international schools to understand more clearly the nature of EAL training that their teachers have experienced and to offer appropriate professional development that is most relevant to support EAL learners in the mainstream classroom in an international school. As Carder (2014, 2015) mentions, the turnover in staff in international schools is comparatively high, so it is vital that schools identify when recruiting teachers where their strengths and qualifications lie in their abilities to support EAL learners. Teachers can be supported from the beginning of their employment at a school to understand what their role is (Neal & Houston, 2013) in the EAL process within their schools and how to develop that role. This would be of enormous support to EAL learners of all language abilities who would be given access to the best qualified teachers who can help and support them within the mainstream classroom.

6.8.2 Recommendation 4. Develop the importance of in-house EAL PD for mainstream teachers

The aforementioned need for consistency in a school's approach to understanding mainstream teachers' abilities to support EAL learners supports a need to provide appropriate professional development training. Due to the diverse backgrounds of international school teachers with regards to where and how and if they have received PD in EAL teaching strategies as part of ITT or during their professional working lives, international schools must develop an appropriate programme of PD for mainstream subject teachers, as mentioned by Hamann (2008). There are a variety of external courses regarding developing EAL strategies in the mainstream that can be brought in; in the school where the research for this thesis took place, a course titled Teaching ESL Students in Mainstream Classrooms (TESMC) was implemented for several years for the benefit of mainstream teaching staff at the school. The course was delivered by two EAL teachers who had received training in facilitating the course and it was decided that due to the diverse nature of the type of training that mainstream teachers had in the past received all new teachers in the secondary school would be enrolled in this course as part of weekly PD after school.

The clear advantage of implementing such a course provided consistency in facilitating EAL training more specifically geared towards EAL in the mainstream classroom. Furthermore, the PD was facilitated by teachers who worked at the school and had the experience and knowledge relevant to the environment, as suggested by Dove and Honigsfeld (2011). However, once the two teachers left the school there were no EAL teachers trained to teach the course. In addition to this, many teachers found the course somewhat tiring to follow as it is delivered from a script and many of the video resources and scenarios did not bear similarities to the school the participants were teaching in. It is therefore more appropriate for EAL teachers to develop an in-house PD programme in EAL strategies for mainstream teachers that may borrow from a

host of influences but which is catered to the school and can be continued and further developed by any EAL teachers working at the school.

The findings in the third article in this thesis clearly set out why EAL PD is so important, as described in the instance where some mainstream teachers voiced their frustrations with regards to having to change their teaching just to suit one or two EAL learners in their classes. This indicated a need for training as to how differentiation can work for all levels and how co-planning can foster greater inclusivity for all English language learners. Such in-house EAL PD is vital in order to demonstrate and develop better understanding among all mainstream subject teachers how important their role is in being a part of the EAL process. Furthermore, such a programme, developed by EAL departments in international schools, would help to avoid the problem that when EAL staff leave a school new EAL teachers can take over the reins of the established PD for EAL and continue to develop it.

6.9 Creating an EAL conscious school

6.9.1 Recommendation 5. Develop a structured model for formal collaboration between EAL and the mainstream

One of the main aims of this thesis is to demonstrate how collaborative models can be implemented and developed within existing structures of EAL and mainstream teaching. My experiences as an EAL teacher in international schools mainly consisted of working in the kind of role where my EAL lessons were taught in a pull-out model, rarely collaborating with mainstream teacher colleagues and feeling that the EAL lessons functioned more as skills-based lessons rather than as a support mechanism for what students were learning in their mainstream classrooms. For example, students would improve their general skills in how to structure an essay or work on their research and presentation skills. Because the EAL learners in these pull-out classes were frequently in different mainstream classes, or indeed were often

not in the same year group, the frustration of trying to plan for and coordinate meaningful language support lessons was always evident. The frustration grew from the understanding that the English language support provided in these lessons was generalised and not highly focussed on the teaching and learning that students needed support for.

The data from the third article demonstrated that both mainstream and EAL teachers appreciated the chance for the learning to meet more in the centre of the language/content continuum. The co-planning and co-teaching involved in, for example, the Language and Literature classes enabled L&L teachers to place greater emphasis on the language aspect of their content which they felt had previously been lacking. Language strategies such as performance in students' own languages of poetry as a means of garnering an appreciation of the poetry they were to study in English, as well as the carefully planned out range of poetry that students would not only study but write, enabled all learners to function at their individual language levels. This use of translanguaging strategies also contributed to greater inclusivity by the meeting of language and content in the teaching and learning of the mainstream subject. The data also showed that greater student choice regarding differentiated tasks for formative and summative assessments allow for greater inclusivity in the mainstream classroom through the adaptation of assessment expectations, for example with regards to how much a student is expected to write or how the level of language in instructions is adapted to meet the needs of EAL learners' understanding.

EAL teachers should therefore play a role in mainstream planning; co-planning is an important step towards creating a more inclusive learning environment for EAL learners. Such a role very rarely evolves without a great deal of effort on the part of EAL and mainstream teachers due to the time barriers that frequently prevent EAL and mainstream teachers co-planning units. Co-planning and collaboration must therefore not only be a part of an international school's language policy to ensure consistency of EAL support despite changing teachers and leadership

teams but must also be more formally embedded in teachers' schedules to enable the time that is so necessary for co-planning. Greater involvement of EAL teachers co-planning units will foster a more EAL conscious environment of teaching and learning within the mainstream classroom. The language policy must state that not only is every teacher a language teacher but that equal responsibility must be ensured between EAL teachers and mainstream teachers regarding the planning and teaching of mainstream lessons. The creation of teaching partnerships is crucial both at the planning stage and in the teaching and learning that is delivered within the classroom. The third article in this thesis also highlighted the importance of the positioning of the EAL teacher as an equal partner in the learning process. With adequate EAL staffing such partnerships can not only develop meaningful and scheduled co-planning strategies for supporting EAL learners in the mainstream but also allow the positioning of the EAL teacher within the mainstream classroom as an equal teacher rather than viewed as being a teaching assistant.

6.9.2 Recommendation 6. Ensure the continuation of collaboration in remote learning

The COVID-19 pandemic, which in 2020 forced schools around the world to close their doors and reconvene online, highlighted a new challenge surrounding the need to support language learners. My own experiences in March 2020 echoed that of all teachers around the world who were suddenly thrown into a new model for teaching and learning. A lack of experience with regards to planning lessons, both in terms of the type of content and adjusting to more flexible expectations of the amount of work students could achieve, as well as gaining a better understanding of how online platforms, such as Google classroom and Zoom, function in a remote teaching and learning environment, meant a steep learning curve with regards to how teachers needed to approach the new reality of remote learning.

There were therefore fundamental changes with regards to supporting EAL learners. The students in our school quickly found themselves to be overwhelmed with assignments as teachers began to implement lessons that were designed more as check-ins for the students to receive their assignments and to ask questions regarding any work they were having difficulty with. This led to many EAL learners falling under the radar as they frequently did not open up to the difficulties they were having with mainstream content. Individual subject teachers were overworked trying to adapt their normal lesson materials and resources to a format that was more in keeping with remote teaching and learning. Subsequently, there was little opportunity for EAL teachers to work together with mainstream teachers and there was far less contact with EAL learners, partly because the students' schedules were greatly reduced to help them cope with the deadlines for their assignments and also because some students stopped attending classes altogether due to a sense of being overwhelmed. My attempts to support EAL learners through one to one Zoom sessions and reaching out by email frequently went unanswered.

It became clear that while many students struggled with the demands of independent learning and organising themselves in this new way of learning, EAL learners in particular struggled to access content that was mainly not differentiated to meet their language needs. There was a great need for EAL teachers to collaborate with mainstream subject teachers but there was very little opportunity to do so. As the implementation of remote learning developed it became clear that the main aim of my school was to try to cope with a very difficult situation and to constantly evolve a working model that was fair to all students. Once the school reconvened for face to face teaching in August 2020 in hybrid mode with reduced contact time with classes due to social distancing rules, it became clear to me that the issues surrounding supporting EAL learners in increasingly difficult circumstances would not be going away. The school was to close several times during the 2020-21 academic year. Each time we went back to remote

learning the same habits arose regarding seeing the students less frequently and feeling frustrated about how to support EAL learners.

It is therefore imperative that the recommendation in this thesis which argues for greater collaboration between EAL and mainstream subject teachers be extended to remote learning. My own experiences collaborating with mainstream subject teachers in the school year 2021-22 were tremendously positive and effective in supporting EAL learners. However, once the war in Ukraine began and the school went back online, collaborative planning did not continue due to the extremely difficult circumstances that teachers found themselves in. EAL support mainly consisted of EAL teachers joining online classes and offering support to EAL learners in breakout rooms. Not only were EAL teachers generally not aware of the content that was planned for the lessons but it was challenging to track progress students were making and to understand the nature of the language support that was required.

Despite the many challenges of remote teaching and learning, I believe that the spirit of a genuinely EAL conscious international school can be carried through to a remote learning model. Just as models of hybrid and remote learning continue to evolve, international schools must consider the need to continue to support language. As previously stated in this thesis, collaboration is not something that evolves unless there are due strategies and policies in place to aid the development of strong and effective collaborative teaching partnerships. Likewise, effective EAL support will not happen in remote learning unless there is a common understanding that it must be a continuation of the collaboration that is developed in face to face teaching and learning.

6.10 Limitations of the research

One of the main limitations of a research thesis such as this is the size of sample. As a full-time teacher researching at an international school, I was on the one hand very well positioned to gather data from teachers and students first hand. On the other hand, data collection was limited to the comparatively small numbers of teachers and students at an international school with under 500 students from kindergarten to 12th grade and a secondary school staff cohort of under 40 teachers. In the first article, there was a potentially very large data set available in the CEESA region of schools (see Table 1, p.92); however, I was beholden to the good will of participants in these schools, whom were contacted on my behalf from principals' and EAL teachers' listserves, and the data collection from these schools was only marginally larger in actual number than from my own school.

Data collection for Article Two took place after the beginning of the COVID-19 pandemic. In August 2020 my school reconvened with face to face teaching but in blended learning mode, which meant that the environment in which data collection took place involved social distancing and many students were clearly affected by the disruption to their learning that the pandemic had caused. Furthermore, as I interviewed participants who were EAL learners, and I was their EAL teacher, the main limitation regarding such a data collection method was the knowledge that students could potentially have been answering the interview questions in accordance with what they thought I wanted to hear. This limitation was a particularly conscious concern with regards to interview questions about how they viewed EAL as a subject and how useful they found it in their language acquisition.

The main issue, I do not find the word limitation appropriate given the circumstances, in Article Three was the outbreak of war in Ukraine. I had until February 2022 been living in Ukraine for over fourteen years and considered it my home. Since the events of Euromaidan in 2014 there

had been significant military activity both in and around Ukraine. Although the events of war did force teachers and students of my school to relocate to other countries and reconvene again in online teaching and learning mode, I was still able to complete the third stage of my research. Naturally, this stage of research would have looked very different if I had been able to continue the collaborative strategies between EAL and the mainstream and the research surrounding it. For example, I would have developed the collaboration I had begun with language & literature and science teachers further and I would have continued my research with other departments in the school.

Despite the comparatively small data sets in the three articles, much of the research from the three articles does conform, for example, to Baker and Edwards' (2012) study that cited a mean number of thirty people for quantitative and qualitative research (see Table 1, p.92), in addition to which they mentioned that due to the circumstances of the researcher and a study that includes a small population of participants, a broad range of between twelve and sixty is also feasible. Furthermore, if one considers sample size as a proportion, or percentage, of a potential participant population, with Dörnyei and Csizer (2010) suggesting a sample size of between 1-10% of a population, the comparatively small sample sizes in the three articles in this thesis represent a fair proportion of the number of potential participants in the three research studies in the main body of this thesis.

6.11 Future directions in the field of EAL

6.11.1 Teaching practice

This thesis builds on Carder's criteria for a well-designed EAL programme (see Section 1.5, p.25). The recommendations in this conclusion build on Carder's criteria, namely those of ensuring EAL learners maintain fluency in the home language (see Recommendation 2, p.177), implement EAL PD training for all mainstream subject teachers (see Recommendation 4,

p.180), and to develop and implement sheltered instruction in the mainstream classroom through collaboration with the EAL teacher (see Recommendation 5, p.181). The intention of this thesis is to not only build on the notion of Carder's acknowledgement of the issues surrounding EAL programme models in international schools, but also to further develop the strategies to take that acknowledgement a step further and to guide international schools towards tangible practical steps towards the implementation of improved and effective practice in order to support EAL learners.

In order for the findings of this thesis to be established in the future direction of EAL teaching and learning, this section demonstrates the practicalities and importance of the research in this thesis. The AR methods which I implemented in my research (see Figures 1-3, pp. 39-42) are methods that EAL and mainstream teachers can read about, reflect on and potentially implement in their own practice. I believe the strengths of my research methods as a teacher researcher are within the grasp of any practitioner who cares about EAL and wishes to seek guidance on how to support EAL learners in the mainstream classroom. Alongside the recommendations set out in this thesis, practitioners can take note of the methods I used from which they can potentially foster the change that they wish to implement in providing more effective support for EAL learners.

As found in Article One, this thesis calls for international schools to pay greater attention to how well trained their mainstream subject teachers are in EAL. As the findings of Article One clearly showed, there are frequent discrepancies regarding the profiles of international secondary teachers and their abilities and skills to support EAL learners. This thesis argues that the effectiveness of EAL is impaired unless there is a well-trained and common approach to supporting EAL learners. This thesis calls for international school leaders to reflect on the findings in my research and to ask of themselves how far their teachers are not only conscious of EAL teaching and learning, but to what extent they could and should be enabling and

encouraging their teaching staff to develop into language teachers as well as content teachers. The questionnaire in Appendix 1 could greatly aid EAL practitioners as well as leadership teams to form the basis of an enquiry into the adequacy of their mainstream teachers' abilities to support EAL learners.

Regarding the acknowledgement of the general lack of mandatory EAL training in ITT (Leung, 2001, 2005, 2016; Costley, 2014; Sec-Ed, 2022), this thesis calls for the statutory implementation of EAL training in all ITT courses. As was seen earlier in this thesis (see Section 1.4, p.21), various studies have been undertaken (Conteh, 2011; Foley et al, 2013, 2018) surrounding voluntary EAL courses completed at pre-service level, the benefits of which for mainstream subject teachers are clear: teachers entering the profession in the 21st century, in a world in which greater migration is occurring for a whole host of reasons (see Section 1.6, p.26), who have experience of teaching and better understanding EAL learners and the EAL process when entering the teaching, feel much better prepared to support EAL learners from the beginning of their careers. Such a pathway for teachers new to the profession naturally has a two-way benefit: the teachers feel far more confident in their abilities to teach all learners in their classroom, regardless of their language levels, and the EAL learners themselves will be better supported by their teachers in order to access the mainstream subject curriculum. Davies (2012: 7) commended the DfE's (2011) statement that 'every teacher should be able to make appropriate provision for pupils with EAL in their classrooms,' and for new generations of teachers entering the profession who do get the EAL training they need in ITT, the statement will gain its strongest meaning through teachers who are trained and equipped to support EAL learners best. This process will ensure that teachers moving into teaching in international schools will have the best grounding possible in supporting EAL learners as they get to grips with the linguistic complexities of potentially teaching in a country with both local and expat EAL learners from highly diverse cultural backgrounds.

Naturally, the majority of mainstream subject teachers practicing today are far from their ITT days. Therefore, this thesis also calls for a much more rigorous approach to appropriate and effective EAL in-service training. As Article One in this thesis found, many mainstream subject teachers are unaware of their role in the EAL process (see Section 3.6, p.101). Furthermore, Article Three found that many of the misconceptions mainstream teacher have surrounding EAL learners in their classrooms arise due to a lack of in-service training (see Section 5.8, p.157). This thesis therefore strongly calls for the development of in-house EAL PD for mainstream teachers in schools that is led and driven by the expertise and practice of the EAL teachers (see Recommendation 4, Section 6.8.2, p.180-1). This must be developed in accordance with EAL departments in schools, but must not rely solely on one or two EAL teachers who take an interest in PD; as seen in this thesis (see Section 6.8.2, p.181) EAL staff turnover must not prevent the continuation of meaningful in-service EAL PD, and it must be embedded in the teaching and learning PD culture of a school.

It is crucial that international schools also take to heart the findings in Article Two in this thesis regarding the linguistic resources and cultural capital that EAL learners bring with them to an international school environment. As previously stated in Section 4.5, p.116, international schools are places that have inherent multilingual students, staff, parents and wider environments and yet the multilingual dynamic of international schools is all too often ignored at the expense of the monolingual goal of learning content through native-speaker like English language. Nowhere was this made clearer in the research in this thesis than in Figure 5, p.124, where the research findings in Article Two highlighted the attitudes that most EAL learners did not believe that knowledge and ability of a home language was in any way beneficial to their learning of English at school. I would like this thesis to be a wakeup call to all leadership teams in international schools around the world that the multilinguistic nature of such institutions must no longer be ignored and that it is high time that international schools harness

the multilingual profiles of their students, celebrate them and purposely integrate them into everyday classroom practice.

The findings in Article Three demonstrated the enormous benefits of collaboration between EAL and the mainstream. I would like EAL teachers, mainstream, subject teachers and leadership teams in international schools to reflect on the tremendous work that was achieved in a very short space of time as the basis of the research for that article. I believe that the model of collaborative strategies set out in this thesis is immanently achievable in the majority of international school settings and can be mirrored by practitioners. I would also call for leadership teams to recognise that the greatest barrier of them all to collaboration, i.e. lack of time, is a factor that they have great control over. It is therefore high time that international schools look at embedding scheduled planning time between mainstream and support subject teachers, such as EAL. As Carder (2010) mentioned, international teachers come and go and it is in the schools' interests to ensure that good practice continues and is not solely dependent on teachers who collaborate by going the extra mile and giving up their free time to enable collaborative co-planning.

6.11.2 Future directions in the field of EAL research

This thesis has set out a list of six recommendations regarding how schools can develop the efficacy of their EAL programmes and transform them into more collaborative models. So, what are the future research trajectories in this area of EAL research? One of the main foci of Article One involved an investigation into the understanding of how capable mainstream teachers are in their abilities to support EAL learners in the classroom. As Neal and Houston (2013) have stated, many teachers do not have a clear understanding of their part in the EAL process. The findings of Article One also demonstrated the many inconsistencies in the study regarding EAL training, either in pre-service (Leung, 2001, 2016; Foley et al, 2013) or in-

service training, as well as inconsistencies regarding their experiences working collaboratively with EAL teachers (see Section 3.6, pp. 104).

The research in Article One can therefore be viewed as an audit surrounding the EAL culture of the school. Consequently, there is great scope for further research which expands on the research study in Article One regarding how schools can better understand how able their teaching staff is in terms of most effectively supporting EAL learners. The article concludes with a call that 'more must be done to support EAL departments and mainstream teachers in order for EAL learners to cope better in the mainstream classroom,' (see Section 3.7, p.105) and the starting point for such a call must involve an audit of the current culture of EAL in a school, involving an understanding of teachers' EAL training background, their attitudes towards EAL and EAL learners, and their ability and willingness to collaborate with EAL teachers. Further research into the methods by which schools could implement an EAL audit, be it a small or a large school, would go some way towards enabling an effective and efficient strategy of enabling a greater understanding of existing EAL cultures.

Article Two investigated the nature of EAL learners' views on self-identity, home culture and community surrounding the learning environment of attending an international school. One of the areas the article researched was Tanu's (2008) notion of the 'cultural chameleon' who can quickly adapt to different cultures, and the 'global nomad' (Walters & Auton-Cuff, 2009) who does not feel at home anywhere. The findings of the article demonstrated that the participants regarded themselves as equal members of the community to their peers (see Section 4.7, p.126) and did not experience a sense of isolation due to their status as EAL learners (see Section 4.7, p.126).

Given the small-scale nature of the study, further research is required in order to ascertain how consistently these attitudes are in international schools, for example in differing regions of the

world, in differing international school programmes, and in international schools of differing size. In order to most effectively support EAL learners and build EAL programmes for them, it is vital to understand from the learner perspective how they identify as a learner in their school environment, Further research into how EAL learners identify within existing school cultures would open a window to helping schools to ensure that their values of inclusivity genuinely extend to English language learners.

A further finding of Article Two demonstrated how participants overwhelmingly did not feel that their home language was beneficial to their learning of English (see Section 4.7, p.127-8). The article concluded that, despite a mother tongue programme existing in the school, the message of strong home language skills was not getting through to the students and was potentially not reflected in classroom practice (see Section 4.7, p.128). The article further found that '…further research is crucial in order to understand whether multilingual and multicultural language policies of international schools truly reflect the realities that students experience' (see Section 4.7, p.128). It is therefore necessary to further research the nature of the cultures that exist in international schools. Such research would go some way into identifying and understanding how monocultural and monolingual some international schools may be. The findings of such research would be invaluable in terms of enacting an developing inclusive classroom teaching and learning experiences that genuinely reflect the multilingual and multicultural backgrounds of EAL learners.

Part of the conclusion of Article One (see Section 3.7, p.104) and the main focus of Article Three centred around the need for EAL and mainstream teacher collaboration. This thesis has highlighted much of the existing research surrounding the frequent lack of collaboration between EAL and mainstream subject teachers (Davison, 2006; Creese, 2010; Bell & Baecher, 2012; Foley et al, 2013; Carder, 2014), as well as the potential that greater collaboration can unlock in better supporting EAL learners (Davison, 2006; Hammersley, 2007; Creese, 2010;

Dove & Honigsfeld, 2010; McDougal, 2015). Article Three concludes with the assertion that for meaningful EAL collaboration to occur, it must become a part of school policy to enable this to become common practice (see Section 5.8, p.157). Demie and Lewis (2018) have argued that EAL teachers must be the stakeholders who shape EAL policy. Therefore, further research must take place following the model of collaboration set out in Article Three. The more small-scale studies such as this that are implemented in international schools around the world by EAL teachers and are documented, the more the comparative findings of a range of studies can help to shape EAL policy in schools. With more informed research taking place around the world by EAL teachers, leadership teams will have the evidence they need to enact change with regards to developing more embedded collaborative EAL practice in their schools. Further research would be required into how to encourage or promote such small-scale studies given the documented lack of research that generally takes place in international schools (see Section 1.4, p.19).

6.12 The elephant in the room: funding

The findings and subsequent recommendations in this thesis are intended to aid EAL teachers, mainstream subject teachers and leadership teams to reflect on the research I have completed surrounding EAL in international schools, to reflect on their own EAL language policies and programmes and to act as a catalyst for change. However, as I indicated in Article Three regarding the addition of a third EAL teacher in my school's EAL department and the significant impact and improvement it brought in order to enact greater collaboration between EAL and the mainstream, the subject of funding, or rather under-finding in most cases, of EAL is a significant problem.

EAL is not a curriculum subject in most educational institutions and it is therefore frequently under threat as an easy target when budget cuts are made. Demie (2018) mentioned the cuts in

EAL budgets made in England since 2010 and the significant impact that this has had on how EAL pupils in English schools have been assessed. Despite Demie's affirmation of the importance of employing EAL specialists to assess EAL pupils' needs, they are frequently assessed by classroom teachers or SEN specialists due to budget cuts. Likewise, Madhoon and Orr (2020) described the service of EAL in Scotland as 'underfunded' (2020: 68). Their article, describing the cuts in funding that are having a significant and detrimental effect on EAL support in schools, highlighted the desperation of some headteachers who reached out to MSc TESOL students to volunteer to help EAL learners in accessing the mainstream curriculum. Further afield, Breshears (2019) also researched into the nature of the underfunding of English language teachers in Canada, describing a situation of 'Low wages, a high reliance on part-time employment, uncertainty about ongoing work, threats of funding cuts, lack of adequate benefits, lack of administrative support, and excessive unpaid work were just a few of the employment concerns voiced in the studies,' (Breshears, 2019: 31).

One does not have look far in order to understand the significant problem that funding presents with regards to supporting EAL learners. But what about international schools? Surely, they have the freedom and, as schools of independent financial means and with less pressure from governing bodies, the opportunity to fund EAL departments for their significant numbers of EAL learners? Not necessarily. A study by Coldham (2023) indicated that in the case of many British international schools worldwide, EAL policy often reflects that of the UK where most teachers, and significantly leadership team staff, originate and that 'they may still be implicitly or subconsciously impacted by dominant discourses in their home nations' (2023: 8). Coldham made the point that despite the Council of International School's (CIS) accreditation guidelines demonstrating that reaccreditation is dependent in part on a clear and impactful EAL policy, in reality many schools are reaccredited despite inadequate EAL provision; Coldham further elaborated that in such circumstances the school is presented with a set of suggestions as to

how to improve EAL policy and provision rather than in any way to be judged as failing in their support of EAL learners.

It is therefore crucial, given the unfortunate and common lack of EAL funding, to emphasise that the recommendations set out in this thesis may be used in full or as is reasonably feasible in the context of international schools. For example, where there is inadequate staffing of EAL, such teachers may still be able to adhere to recommendations 1, 3 and 4 as a beginning in order to develop better understanding of their EAL learners and the attitudes of their mainstream subject colleagues towards EAL as a support for English language learners. Likewise, international schools with adequate EAL staffing and which recognise many of the recommendations in their existing programmes and language policies, may take the opportunity to act on recommendations 5 and 6 and build on continued development of the notion of an EAL conscious school, with EAL and the mainstream working in close collaboration. In an ideal world, we would wish funding to be there for all to enjoy and to provide the support that is so essential for EAL learners. As a final call to school leadership teams of all types, government organisations and educational authority boards, read through the recommendations set out in this thesis and think twice before underfunding EAL: the need for supporting English language learners is ever growing and it isn't going away any time soon. The recommendations in this thesis represent the positive changes that can and must occur and appropriate funding for EAL is a main factor to ensure excellent EAL provision for EAL learners moving into the future.

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Appendix 1. Survey questions

1. Did you receive any training in English language provision for non- native speakers in your initial teacher training?

2. If the answer for Question 1 was 'Yes', please give a brief description of the nature of the training:

3. Have you independently sought (PD) training in English language provision for non-native speakers since working in education?

4. If the answer for Question 3 was 'Yes', please state what the training was:

5. Have you received any in-house (PD) training in English language provision for non-native speakers in any school you have worked?

6. If the answer for Question 5 was 'Yes', please state what the training was:

7. I know how the EAL department works in line with my school's policy on EAL:

8. Beginner level EAL students benefit from having an EAL teacher supporting them in the classroom in all mainstream school subjects:

9. EAL learners who have a beginner's level of English benefit from individual pull-out support:

10. EAL students benifit from having teaching assistants supporting them in all mainstream school subjects:

11. It takes longer to prepare a lesson for a class with EAL students in it:

12. It is the responsibility of the EAL department to advise mainstream subject teachers about the latest developments in EAL:

13. It is up to mainstream subject teachers to be aware of the type of subject specific vocabulary EAL students need in lessons:

14. Collaboration between EAL teachers and mainstream teachers is important to enable EAL learners to access content in mainstream lessons:

15. Weekly collaboration with EAL teachers to plan lessons with modified content for EAL learners is important:

16. If you have collaborated with EAL teachers in planning lessons, please state in what way you did this:

17. Check which of the following you think prevents a mainstream teacher seeking to collaborate with an EAL teacher when planning modified content:

18. Co-teaching with an EAL teacher is something I am interested in doing:

19. Strong collaboration between EAL and mainstream teachers leads directly to greater academic success for EAL learners:

20. I am interested in learning more about EAL teaching theory and practice:

21. I am interested in taking part in a project to develop some collaborative planning and teaching strategies with an EAL teacher:

22. Please indicate your position

23. Do you have an English language teaching qualification?

24. How long have you been teaching?

25. How long have you been teaching in international schools?

Appendix 2. Letter to primary teachers for piloting

Dear Primary Teachers,

As part of my research studies at the University of Essex, I am intending to ask secondary teachers to complete an online questionnaire about the current status of EAL in international secondary education. I have already pre-piloted this questionnaire with some PhD students in the UK and, before I ask secondary teachers to complete the questionnaire, I am looking to pilot the questionnaire with primary teachers in order to gain feedback on how clear the questions are to understand as well as the structure of the questionnaire.

The questionnaire will include questions about teachers' training in English language provision and English language PD training, their current understanding of EAL provision in the school and their attitudes towards collaboration with EAL teachers in terms of planning and co-teaching.

I will share the questionnaire with you all and if there is any feedback you can give me as to how clear the questions are or regarding the structure of the questionnaire, please send me a brief email with your thoughts. You do not have to answer and submit the questionnaire but feel free to do so if you wish.

I am a student at the University of Essex in the UK and my supervisor is [XXX]. Her email is: [XXX]

Best regards,

James Spencer

Appendix 3. Teacher consent form

Project title: "What is attainable regarding a collaborative and integrated 'best method' framework for teaching EAL learners in international secondary schools?"
This project aims to better understand how EAL and mainstream subject teachers can work in collaboration and with EAL learners to access mainstream lesson content as effectively as possible. The project will involve gathering data by means of interviews with mainstream subject teachers; the discussions will be recorded. EAL is an under-researched field in international school education and your participation is greatly appreciated.
If you are happy to participate in this project, please complete the consent questions.
I am conducting my research project under the supervision of [XXX], Department of Language and Linguistics, at the University of Essex: [XXX]
If you have any questions, please do not hesitate to contact me: [XXX] or [XXX]
James Spencer MA BA PGCE Dipl. Päd. PhD student at the University of Essex.

Please read through the points below and add your initials to each one:

1. I confirm that I have read and understand the information Sheet dated 01/06/2021 for the above study. I have had the opportunity to consider the information, ask questions and have had these questions answered satisfactorily. ☐
2. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw from the project at any time without giving any reason or penalty. ☐
3. I understand that data provided will be securely stored and accessible only to members of the research team directly involved in the project, and that confidentiality will be maintained. ☐
4. I understand that the data collected in this project might be shared as appropriate and for publication of findings, in which case data will remain completely anonymous. ☐
5. I agree to take part in the above study. ☐

Participant Name ………………………… Date ……………………. Participant Signature ………………………………….

Researcher name ……………………………. Date …………………….. Researcher Signature ………………………………….

Appendix 4. Letter to CEESA schools

My name is James Spencer and I am an EAL teacher at [XXX]. As part of my research studies at the University of Essex, I would be grateful if you would ask all secondary teachers to complete an online questionnaire about the current status of EAL in international secondary education.

The questionnaire includes questions about teachers' training in English language provision and English language PD training, their current understanding of EAL provision in the school and their attitudes towards collaboration with EAL teachers in terms of planning and co-teaching. Here is the link to the questionnaire:

https://docs.google.com/forms/d/e/1FAIpQLSc0RHF6qAwmhFHv2QLj_We8wbzytnDZc2rTL0en5oF5MZWGVA/viewform

I am a student at the University of Essex in the UK and my supervisor is [XXX]. Her email is: [XXX].

Best regards,

James Spencer

Appendix 5. Example of analysis of quantitative data

8. Beginner level EAL students benefit from having an EAL teacher supporting them in the classroom in all mainstream school subjects:	43.5% Strongly agree 21.7% Agree 26.1% Partly agree This suggests the vast majority believe this to be beneficial. However, this is not a provision under the current system.	46.9% Strongly agree 28.1% Agree 18.8% Partly agree This shows a very similar result – could it depend on the size of the school as to whether this is provided for?
9. EAL learners who have a beginner's level of English benefit from individual pull-out support:	30.4% Strongly agree 52.2% Agree 13% Partly agree Again this suggests that the vast majority support this, although it is not part of current provision. This also may present a problem regarding inclusion and current policies.	37.5% Strongly agree 28.1% Agree 31.3% Partly agree These results also overwhelmingly support pull-out support. Is this standard practice in most schools?

Appendix 6. Example of coding of potential questions for the focus group

Potential questions for discussion groups:

1. **English language training in education:**

- Should EAL be included in all pre-service teacher training? How likely do you think it is that most teachers will have to teach EAL learners in their careers? Is it giving teachers a head start rather than relying on in service training? (Code: upward trend of frequency of learners needing EAL in any school)

2. **Attitudes towards EAL in mainstream subjects:**

- Do you think beginner level students always get the provision they need? What does that depend on? If the school is small and there aren't enough teachers to provide EAL push in and pull out support does that mean that mainstream teachers have to bear more responsibility? (Code: school set-up and provision given for EAL, in terms of staffing and policies)

- Around 20-25% of participants disagreed that an EAL teaching assistant would be a good thing. What concerns do you think those teachers have about EAL provision through TAs? (Code: competencies in supporting EAL learners in the classroom)

- Around 75% of teachers agreed that planning a lesson with EAL learners in mind takes longer. What could be done to cut down on this time in the long run and encourage specific planning for EAL learners? (Code: time factors in delivering EAL provision in planning and teaching)

- The vast majority of teachers (over 87%) agreed that it is the responsibility of mainstream teachers to be aware of the subject specific vocabulary of the teaching and learning. How does this work in reality? How far is this a part of regular planning? (Code: responsibilities for EAL provision

Appendix 7. Example of potential flow of questions for the focus group

POTENTIAL FLOW OF QUESTIONS FOR FOCUS GROUP:

Section A (competencies)

- Should EAL be included in all pre-service teacher training? How likely do you think it is that most teachers will have to teach EAL learners in their careers? Is it giving teachers a head start rather than relying on in service training? (Code: upward trend of frequency of learners needing EAL in any school)

- A majority of teachers (60% in our school; 45% across CEESA participants) have no formal English language teaching certification. Besides current provision from the EAL department and TESMC courses, how else might mainstream teachers be made aware of EAL issues/practical advice in teaching and learning? (Code: training in English language provision)

- Around 20-25% (PSI and CEESA) of participants disagreed that an EAL teaching assistant would be a good thing. What concerns do you think those teachers have about EAL provision through TAs? (Code: competencies in supporting EAL learners in the classroom)

Appendix 8. Focus group invitation letter for secondary teachers

Dear Secondary Teachers,

My name is James Spencer and as part of my PhD research studies at the University of Essex, I am intending to interview teachers on the collaborative practices that occur with the EAL department. The interviews will be carried out online via Zoom.

These interviews will hopefully help me better understand how effective current collaborative practices are between the EAL department and other departments in terms of how EAL learners are supported in the mainstream classroom. The purpose of the reflective discussions is to inform and influence further development of collaborative strategizing.

I am asking you if you would be willing to participate. You would be given a choice of time and date to meet for the interview session, which will be recorded (sound only). All data will be securely saved and password protected and not shared with anybody. A consent form will be made available to you if you wish to participate – participation is entirely voluntary.

I am a student at the University of Essex in the UK, and you can contact me at any time with the following email addresses: [XXX] and [XXX]. My supervisor is [XXX]. Her email is: [XXX]

Please let me know if you would like to participate in this research.

Best regards,

James Spencer

Appendix 9. Example of student-centred research annotated bibliography

Student-centred research annotated bibliography:

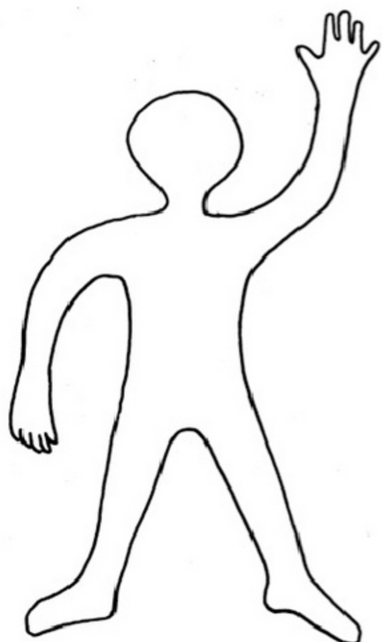
The following themes are highlighted:

- **Home vs new culture**
- **EAL student identity**
- **Community**
- **The language classroom**
- **Experiences and challenges of EAL learners**
- **Experiences and challenges of EAL teachers**

Vandiver, D. M., & Walsh, J. A. (2010). Assessing autonomous learning in research methods courses: Implementing the student-driven research project. *Active Learning in Higher Education*, *11*(1), 31-42. This paper refers to research undertaken with undergraduate students regarding active learning techniques and learner autonomy in order to write research papers. This active learning is student-centred, characterised by a jigsaw method, whereby students piece together information (2010: 32). It is autonomous learning. Students were given the chance to choose their own project subjects in the area of criminal law. An overriding aim was to ensure students became life-long learners.
Watts-Taffe, S., & Truscott, D. M. (2000). Focus on research: Using what we know about language and literacy development for ESL students in the mainstream classroom. *Language Arts*, *77*(3), 258-265. This paper describes how students acquire English language skills: acculturation allows students to learn a new culture while still maintaining their own. Assimilation requires students to replace some aspects of the native

Appendix 10. Language portrait template

(Kusters & De Meulder, 2019)



Appendix 11. Letter to secondary teachers for piloting language portraits

Dear Secondary Teachers,

My name is James Spencer and as part of my PhD research studies at the University of Essex, I am intending to get EAL students in grades 6, 8 and 10 to complete language portraits of themselves and to hold discussions with them about these portraits regarding their experiences of and opinions on being EAL learners.

These discussions will hopefully help me better understand how EAL learners see themselves in terms of an EAL identity, how much social status and community play a role for EAL learners and how the home culture is useful/influential in the EAL classroom.

I would therefore like to pilot the research on a small group of teachers regarding their linguistic profiles and am asking you if you would be willing to participate. You would have time to complete your language portrait before the discussion session, which will be recorded. A consent form will be made available to you if you wish to participate. Attached is an example of a blank language profile template

I am a student at the University of Essex in the UK, you can contact me at any time at the following email addresses: [XXX] and [XXX]. My supervisor is [XXX]. Her email is: [XXX].

Please let me know if you would like to participate in this research.

Best regards,

James Spencer

Appendix 12. Piloting focus group questions

2019-2020 Research - Focus group for EAL learners

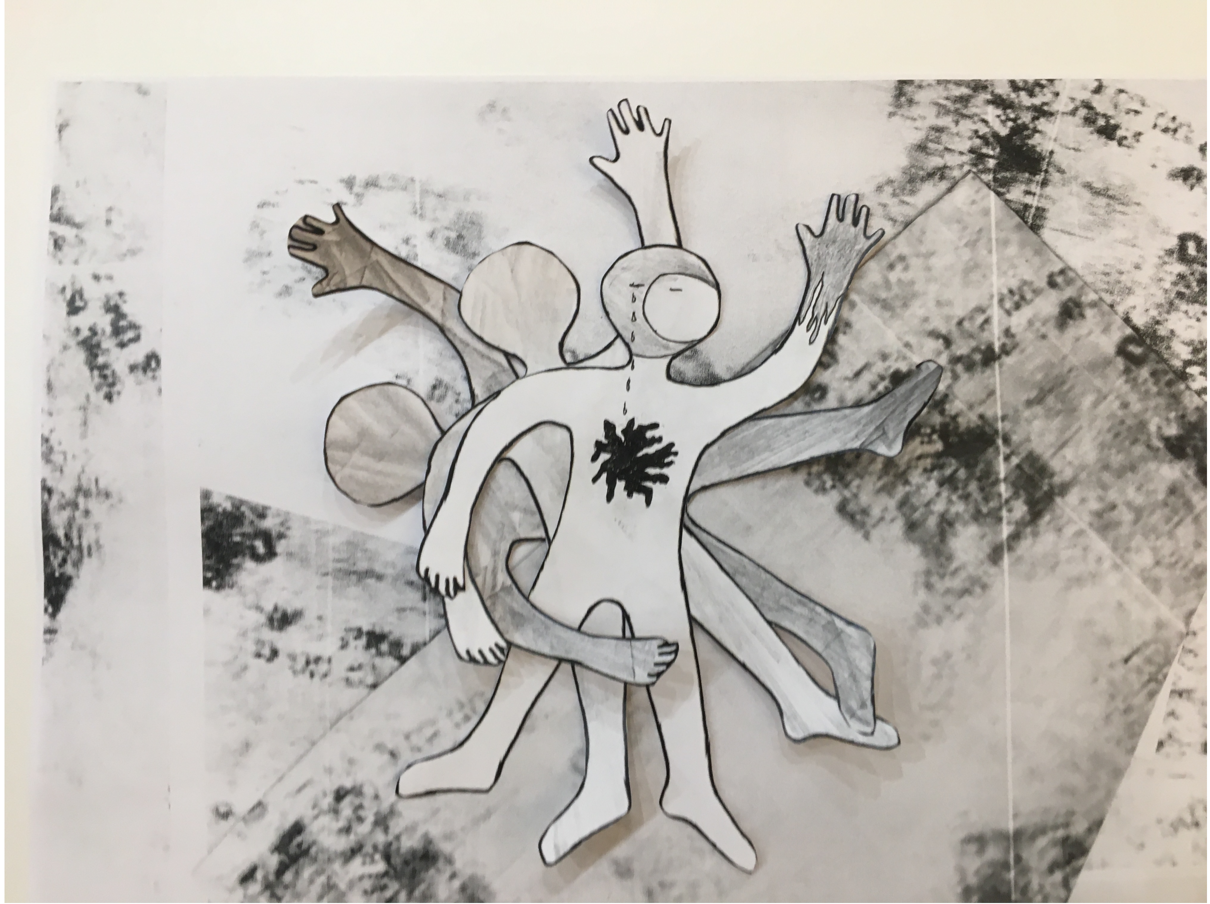
Research questions:

- **How do EAL learners see themselves in terms of an EAL identity?**
- **How do social status and community play an important role for EAL learners?**
- **How is the home culture useful/influential in the EAL classroom?**

Questions I want answered by teachers that reflect the research questions for EAL learners:

- What makes a language learner? What is a language learner in your own words?
- How long do you see yourself being a language learner? For how much longer?
- Do you think you are different as an language learner to other teachers in the school?
- What are the main differences between a native speaker and someone who has learned a language?
- How do your experiences here in Ukraine as language learners compare to other language learning experiences?
- Is there anything in your native language ability that helps you in your English language development?
- How much responsibility lies with the language learner and how much with the teacher in terms of making progress in languages?

Appendix 13. Examples of secondary teacher language portraits



Appendix 14. Letter to parents

Dear Grade Parents

My name is James Spencer and I teach EAL and English Language Acquisition at [XXX]. As part of my research studies at the University of Essex, I am intending to get EAL students in grades 6, 8 and 10 to complete language portraits of themselves and to hold discussions with them about these portraits regarding their experiences of and opinions on being EAL learners.

These discussions will hopefully help me better understand how EAL learners see themselves in terms of an EAL identity, how much social status and community play a role for EAL learners and how the home culture is useful/influential in the EAL classroom.

I would therefore like to ask your permission for your child to complete a language portrait for homework of themselves, and then to take part in a discussion with a group of 5-6 EAL students in the grade. As well as sending home the language portrait template with your child, I would also be sending a voluntary consent form for you to complete and sign giving permission for your child to take part in this research.

I am a student at the University of Essex in the UK, you can contact me at any time at the following email addresses: [XXX] and [XXX]. My supervisor is [XXX]. Her email is: [XXX].

Best regards,

James Spencer

Appendix 15. Parental consent form

Project title: "What is attainable regarding a collaborative and integrated 'best method' framework for teaching EAL learners in international secondary schools?"
This project aims to better understand how EAL teachers can work with mainstream teachers and EAL students. The project will involve gathering data by means of language portrait drawings that participants will voluntarily complete about themselves, as well as from discussion focus groups where issues arising from the language portrait drawings will be discussed; the discussions will be recorded. EAL is an under-researched field in international school education and your participation is greatly appreciated.
If you are happy for your child to participate in this project, please complete the consent questions. I am conducting my research project under the supervision of [XXX], Department of Language and Linguistics, at the University of Essex: [XXX]
If you have any questions, please do not hesitate to contact me: [XXX] or [XXX]
James Spencer BA MA PGCE Dipl. Päd. PhD student at the University of Essex.

Dear Parents/Guardians,
Please read through the points below and please add your initials as confirmation.

6. I confirm that I have read and understand the information Sheet dated 09/01/2020 for the above study. I have had the opportunity to consider the information, ask questions and have had these questions answered satisfactorily. ☐

7. I understand that my child's participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw him/her from the project at any time without giving any reason or penalty. ☐

8. I understand that data provided will be securely stored and accessible only to members of the research team directly involved in the project, and that confidentiality will be maintained. ☐

9. I understand that the data collected in this project might be shared as appropriate and for publication of findings, in which case data will remain completely anonymous. ☐

10. I agree for my child to take part in the above study. ☐

Participant Name	Date	Participant Signature
…………………………	…………………….	………………………………….
Researcher name	Date	Researcher Signature
…………………………..	……………………..	………………………………….

Appendix 16. Student interview questions

Interview questions.

1. What makes an EAL learner? What is an EAL learner in your own words?
2. How long do you see yourself being an EAL learner? For how much longer?
3. Do you think you are different as an EAL learner to other students in your class/grade?
4. How is the EAL class different to your other classes?
5. What other things are there in school that help you develop your English language skills?
6. Do you think there is a difference between a Ukrainian EAL learner and, for example, a French one?
7. How does your EAL class here compare to that of your English language class back home/in other schools you have been to?
8. Is there anything in your native language ability that helps you in EAL/your English language development?
9. How much responsibility lies with the EAL learner and how much with the EAL teacher in terms of making progress in English?
10. Is it necessary to have a separate EAL class rather than more support in mainstream subjects?

Appendix 17. Example of emerging themes from the qualitative data

Emerging themes

1. What are the common factors? What is the emerging narrative at first glance? Write up the four sections.
2. What are the most frequent words/descriptions that answer the research questions – i.e. what is the data that backs up in more detail what these common factors mean? Through NVivo/text analysis?

	Grade 7	Grade 8	Grade 9	Grade 10	All Grade Common factors
What makes an EAL learner? What is an EAL learner in your own words?	Different country/background. Is positive. Non-native speakers. Has goals/achievements. To improve English/place to improve. Second language in mind. Learn to speak to people. Not the best in English. Needs help. Needs a push.	Not really good skills/doesn't have appropriate level. Acquiring language. Needs help. Needs additional attention. Doesn't understand particular questions. Improve grammar & vocab, writing correct paragraphs. Springboard to learning other languages.	Little experience with English. Needs more in-depth English. Learns grammar, spelling. Expands English. Learns communicating. Increase English ability. Improve English. To be more fluent. Tries to figure out the significance of Eng in their life. Needs help.	You have the basics. You're taught the upper standards [of English]. Helps you move forward to become a native speaker. Needs extra help. To move onto the next stage. Improve English. Learn and grow. Expand knowledge of English. Not a native speaker. EAL helps to improve.	**Improve English.** **Needs help.** **For those who don't have the best English.** **X4** Springboard to other languages. Has goals. X3 Be more fluent Not native speakers X2

Appendix 18. Example of data findings in relation to guiding literature

What I see in the data so far

What I notice	**Discussion: relation of findings to the literature**
RQ1: How do EAL learners see themselves in terms of an EAL identity? There is a very strong sense that EAL learners understand what EAL is for and that there is strong intention, motivation and desire to exit the programme sooner rather than later.	Learning context – students know they are headed for a 'higher' English language course and to do a foreign language. Therefore, some of this self-identity **(Hawkins, 2005)** indicates that there is a link, with their belief as EAL learners that they need to exit and 'move up' to L&L and AL, to the learning context. Aspirational.
RQ2: How do social status and community play an important role for EAL learners? There is no indication that they feel particularly different to their peers in terms of social status – only in the sense that everyone is different in an international setting and that if they do feel different it is not in terms of social status or general academic ability but purely in terms of difference in their English language levels or not being native speakers.	**Tanu (2008: 3).** Sense that they really are cultural chameleons and adapt quickly to the culture of the school and fit in, described as global nomads by **Walters & Auton-Cuff (2009).** One cultural barrier **(Spack, 1988)** they are not experiencing is that of being isolated due to status of EAL learner.
RQ2: How do social status and community play an important role for EAL learners? There is some sense that HS students think differently how EAL class is different to other classes. They seem to allude more to specifics of what that pull-out class does	HS seemed to talk much more about specifics of the language which is what **Kayi-Aydar (2013)** alluded to in terms of taking more responsibility for their own learning. What exactly does this indicate???

Appendix 19. Field notes exemplar

EAL with Lang & Lit depts, meeting notes on 21st September 2021

Agenda:

1. Guidance on modifications for assessment. How do we establish reasonable modifications according to criteria?
2. Emergent level learners. Wider discussions –
3. New students, is another option possible. Who writes the report? For [XXX], [XXX], [XXX] etc?
4. Student choice at formative/summative level.

Notes:

3 levels of proficiency choice - formative and summative - could be a good idea. The idea being that at the moment there is no choice with regards reading text or production of text. This would be an inclusive option not only for EALers but also for learning support and lower ability native speakers.

What is these students' focus in the L&L class? For doing a Language A course? In other words what are the expectations for these lower level learners if they are unable to access the full course – to build vocab, to learn skills sets???

Adding more focus on the Language element in the L&L course? Implementing language learning habits with all kids ([XXX] mentioned primary and the type of PYP active language learning elements).

Fairness - what can be done that doesn't take away from IB and offer the students what they need to succeed, i.e. [XXX] who doesn't get all the supports, works hard and doesn't get the best grade. How can there be parity – how can hard working students be rewarded and supported as much as EALers and LS who are supported through modifications.

Observations: [XXX] mentioned that you need to challenge students and is it fair for those students who don't get supports to be sidelined?

Points to move forward:

- [XXX]/ [XXX] talk about emergent level within L&L with [XXX]/ [XXX].
- Continue to support with modifications - have them embedded in classes.
- Next units - work on assessment choice, text choice, production choice, resources (key words, vocabulary, language building).

Appendix 20. Reflection discussion questions for focus groups

Nov 2021 Focus Group with [XXX] and [XXX].

Questions:

1. In general terms, how was the experience of collaboration between EAL and Language & Literature in the first quarter?
2. What has worked well? What have the positive effects been? What has been most challenging?
3. Content vs language continuum – has your position on the continuum changed? Your approach to teaching?
4. Is there anything else about the needs of the learners, training/PD support, needs of teachers involving the practice of co-planning/collaboration?

11th Feb 2022 Focus Group with [XXX] and [XXX].

Questions:

1. In general terms, how was the experience of collaboration between EAL and Language & Literature in the second quarter?

   How did the teaching of unit 2 compare to the first unit in the first quarter? Was there anything different/better/worse this time in the planning of the (poetry) unit?
2. What has worked well in this second quarter as a result of any co-planning? What have any positive effects been? What has been/remained most challenging?
3. Has the collaboration/co-planning changed how you approach the language side of the units in L&L? What is the relationship/balance between the content students need to learn and how they learn it? Is there a big difference between MS and HS needs?

   If yes, how? Content vs language continuum – has your position on the continuum changed? Your approach to teaching?
4. How can co-planning/collaboration continue to develop despite the disruptions of the pandemic and remote learning?
5. Is there anything else about the needs of the learners, training/PD support, needs of teachers involving the practice of co-planning/collaboration?

Appendix 21. Quarter one reflective discussion on collaboration

INTERVIEWER:	So I wonder if we could just find some specifics of first of all what has worked well. So could you just elaborate either on Grade 9 or on specific things where you've seen positive effects about the collaboration?
RESPONDENT 2:	Do you want to go first or do you want me to?
RESPONDENT:	Yeah, [XXX] and I have been working closely with Grade 8 as well, 8.1, and for her, looking at my assessments and then scaffolding it for the EAL students has been really helpful. So it's something that, especially knowing…she knows the students better at this point because she also teaching them as language acquisition, so I feel like she knows exactly how to better support them and meet their needs. So this has been really helpful, looking at the assessments and how they can be scaffolded for better understanding.
RESPONDENT 2:	I really like, and I know this is a virtual component, but I really like using breakout rooms. Like, I will specifically, like [XXX], if you're with me you will go

Appendix 22. Quarter one notes on reflective discussion

L&L T1

L&L T

Helpful:

L&L T1 “I think that having this close collaboration has been really helpful in terms of reaching them in the best possible way. So it has been very helpful.”

L&L T2 “And I think the outcomes are really helpful.”

L&L T2 “Because, you know, as you and I were talking before, the idea of now that we’re virtual, letting you go in on those unit slides and then adding links to things that you think any kid could benefit from, that is really, really helpful.”

Positive:

L&L T2 “Overall really positive. I enjoy the collaboration, I enjoy working with people in the department…”

Time:

L&L T2 “What is the challenge, obviously, is the time and having to adjust between virtual and online, being able to get way ahead of things.”

L&L T2 “But it’s just trying to anticipate all of the things that would benefit them that also benefit the whole class, and making them still work in the constraints, in the framework of a Lang & Lit class, you know. It’s just time and practice.”

L&L T2 “Yeah, I want a week. I want a week off because that one half-day for Grade 6 was really helpful to get the unit started. And I want…and those are all great. Look, I’m not going to turn that time down. And that bought us time to get ahead of things and that bought us that time and now you and [unclear name] can go in and you know what we’re doing and it’s all…you know, we’re framing those lessons with your input and with what you and [XXXX] and [unclear name] suggested. But it’s all being in the room together for an extended amount of time. Almost like a retreat.”

Workable/accessable for EALers:

L&L T2 “And that actually came up today after my Grade 9 class with [XXXX], ‘cause I have all four of the 9s in my one class, and she was very much like, ‘This is really working. I can see my kids can access things.’”

Assessments and scaffolding:

L&L T1 "Yeah, [XXXX] and I have been working closely with Grade 8 as well, 8.1, and for her, looking at my assessments and then scaffolding it for the EAL students has been really helpful." **L&L T2** "…I remember [unclear] saying things like sentence starters were really helpful for students. For my Grade 9 thing with [XXXX] and I, we actually used a list of sentence starters for their, like, quick, at-home task. So like, those kinds of reminders of those techniques are great." **L&L T1** "And I'll to that the fact that we need to have a better understanding or a more clear understanding of assessments specifically for those EAL students, because this is something that I struggled a lot." **L&L T2** "Because if, for example, a student really needs something to be modified, then letting [XXXX] do her thing, work her magic to be able to make that happen to then modify them for the kids, but if we just make all these 'adjustments' for someone, you know…"
Supports: **L&L T1** "…she knows the students better at this point because she also teaching them as language acquisition, so I feel like she knows exactly how to better support them and meet their needs." **L&L T2** "For example, in the Grade 9s, a couple of those kids are much stronger at identifying parts of speech, because that's much more of a language acquisition skill than it is a literature skill. So as we were doing that they were chiming in and answering. So that was great because they got to feel like they had access and they were, like, owning that material." **L&L T2** "Yeah, and I would say I'm sort of in the middle between…not even content, 'cause I feel like our department has really moved away from a lot of content-only. It's very much wrapped up in the skills. So for me it's, 'How do we help the students who are developing their fluency, apply that to language skills?'"
Use of breakout rooms: **L&L T2** "I really like, and I know this is a virtual component, but I really like using breakout rooms. Like, I will specifically, like [XXXX], if you're with me you will go into a breakout room with an EAL student."
What about the other kids? **L&L T1** "So this is where I'm struggling as, yes, I have to advocate for the EAL students, but I also have to advocate for my students who don't get that kind of support and they could benefit from that as well. So I don't know where we are right now at that."
PD:

L&L T2 “Yeah, I want you all to be able to run some sweet PD for the whole site there. I mean, I know some of the best understanding I have of any of this is when I did the [unclear] because I was in a school with…I was told, ‘Oh, they’re all fluent.’ No. And so I sorted that out for myself ‘cause I’m like, ‘I need help to be able to help these students.’”

L&L T2 “It’s the training and resources so that we aren’t trying to find that content and also find the content of our regular piece.”