Teachers’ and Students’ Understandings of and Attitudes towards the Policy of Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) in the United Arab Emirates (UAE)

Asma Mohammed Jooaan Al Blooshi

A thesis submitted for the degree of the Doctor of Philosophy

University of Bath
Department of Education

June 2017

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# LIST OF CONTENTS

## Chapter One- Introduction

1.0 Introduction to Chapter One 8

1.0.1 Glottopolitics and the Spread of English 8

1.0.2 Current Perspective on the Spread of English 9

1.0.3 The Historical Development of English 11

1.0.4 ‘Enriching’, ‘Inevitable’ and ‘Useful’ 12

1.0.5 The Other Side of the Story: English as ‘Imperialist’ and ‘Damaging’ 12

1.0.6 Rising Bilingualism 14

1.1 CLIL in Practice: Challenges in the UAE Context 15

1.2 Aims of the Study 16

1.3 Questions Framing the Study 16

1.4 Thesis Organisation 17

## Chapter Two-The Study Context

2.0 Introduction to Chapter Two 18

2.1 The Significance of English Language Education in the UAE 18

2.2 State of Education in the UAE Context 19

2.2.1 Educational Authorities 19

2.2.2 Expenditure on Education 19

2.2.3 Gender-Segregated Learning 20

2.2.4 Educational System in the UAE 20

2.2.5 Madaress Al Ghad (MAG) 20

2.3 CLIL in UAE 21

2.4 Emergent Themes in Literature on EMI in the UAE 29

2.5 Conclusion of Chapter Two 31

## Chapter Three- Literature Review

3.0 Introduction to Chapter Three 32

3.1 Content and Language Integrated Learning 32

3.1.1 Origins, Definitions and Critique of CLIL 32

3.2 The 4Cs Conceptual Framework 34

3.3 Cooperative Learning in CLIL Contexts 36

3.4 Adoption of CLIL in the UAE Context 37

3.4.1 Rationale for using CLIL: The General Perspective from the International Literature 37

3.4.2 Rationale for using CLIL: The Second Language Acquisition Perspective 39

3.4.3 The Theoretical Basis of CLIL 40

3.4.4 Critique of CLIL 41

3.5 New Imperatives in the Knowledge Economy 43

3.6 Practitioner Reflectivity 44

3.6.1 What is Reflection 46

3.7 Community of Practice 48

3.7.1 The concept of community of Practice in Second Language Teaching 48

3.8 Sociocultural Theory 50

3.8.1 The Zone of Proximal Development 51

3.8.2 Common Conception of the ZPD 53

3.8.3 Scaffolding in CLIL Classrooms
3.9 Teacher Cognition

3.9.1 Teachers’ Beliefs
3.9.2 Impact of Cognition on Practice

3.10 Motivation in Second Language Teaching

3.10.1 Learner Motivation
3.10.2 Empirical Evidence on Fostering Motivation
3.10.3 Specific Academic Strategies
3.10.4 Teacher Motivation

3.10.4.1 Contextual Factors
3.10.4.2 Temporal Dimension
3.10.4.3 Negative Influences
3.10.4.4 Teacher Motivation and Educational Innovation effectiveness
3.10.4.5 Self-Efficiency

3.11 Teachers’ Epistemological Beliefs and their Impact on Practice

3.11.1 Epistemological beliefs
3.11.2 The Influence of Teacher Beliefs on Teacher Motivation

3.12 Conceptual Framework

3.13 Conclusion of Chapter Three

Chapter Four: The Research Methodology

4.0 Introduction to Chapter Four
4.1 Research Questions
4.2 The Interpretive Approach to Research
4.3 Research Design

4.3.1 Strengths and Limitations of Cross-sectional Research Design
4.3.2 Case Studies

4.4 Participants

4.4.1 Participant Selection

4.5 Pilot Study
4.6 Methods of Data Collection and procedures

4.6.1 Observations
4.6.1.1 Observation Procedures
4.7 Interviews

4.7.1 Individual Interviews Procedures
4.7.2 Focus Group Interviews Procedures
4.8 Document Analysis Procedures
4.9 Methods of Data Analysis
4.10 Transcription

4.11 Trustworthiness of the Research

4.11.1 Trustworthiness
4.11.2 Dependability of the Findings
4.11.3 Credibility of the Findings
4.11.4 Transferability of the Findings
4.11.5 Confirmability of the Findings

4.13 Using the Social Constructivism Paradigm
4.14 Ethical Considerations

4.14.1 Permission to Conduct the Research
Chapter Five: Research Findings and Analysis

5.0 Introduction to Chapter Five
5.1 Theme One: Teachers’ Understandings of and Attitudes Towards CLIL
   5.1.1 Teacher identified Challenges in the Implementation of CLIL
   5.1.2 The Effect of Teachers’ Prior Experience on their Teaching of CLIL
5.2 Theme Two: Students’ Understanding of and Attitudes towards CLIL
   5.2.1 Introduction to Theme Two
   5.2.2 Coyle’s Framework
   5.2.3 Lack of Cognitive Learning
   5.2.4 Disavowal of a Communication-based Pedagogy
   5.2.5 Culture and Language Gaps in CLIL materials
5.3 Theme Three: Curricular Factors Influencing the Status of CLIL in the UAE
   5.3.1 The Lack of Planning in the Launch of the CLIL programme
   5.3.2 The Lesson Planning Conundrum
   5.3.3 The CLIL classroom and the Truth behind the Closed Doors
   5.3.4 Lack of Content Knowledge
   5.3.5 Teachers’ Efforts Towards Making CLIL Successful
5.4 Theme Four: The Relationship between Teachers’ Motivation and the Teaching of CLIL
   5.4.1 Introduction to Theme Four
   5.4.2 Teachers’ Contributions in Decision-Making
5.5 Theme Five: The Impact of Students’ Motivation on CLIL
   5.5.1 Learner Perspectives on CLIL
   5.5.2 Student Motivation and CLIL Success
5.6 Theme Six: The impact of CLIL Materials on Students’ Behavior and Teachers’ Motivation
   5.6.1 Student Behaviour in the CLIL Classroom
   5.6.2 Unnecessary and Irrelevant CLIL Materials
   5.6.3 Teacher Workload
   5.6.4 CLIL Classroom Time Limit
   5.6.5 Challenges of CLIL praxis vis-à-vis Teachers and Students

Chapter Six: Discussion
6.0 Introduction to Chapter Six
6.1 CLIL Management
6.2 One: Needs Analysis
   6.2.1 Needs Analysis for CLIL Teachers in the UAE
   6.2.2 Needs Analysis for Students in the UAE
   6.2.3 Final Thoughts
   6.2.4 Conclusion
6.3 Two: CLIL Teacher Training Course
   6.3.1 Training UAE Teachers for CLIL
   6.3.2 Skills to Consider When Designing a CLIL Teacher Training Programme
6.3.3 Evaluation of CLIL Teachers
6.3.4 Conclusion
6.4 Teacher related Factors
   6.4.1 Teachers’ Education 155
   6.4.2 Teacher Performance 156
   6.4.3 Teacher Attitudes Towards CLIL 158
   6.4.4 New Teaching Roles 160
   6.4.5 New Change in the Methods of CLIL Teachers 163
   6.4.6 Conclusion 167
6.5 Student Factors 168
   6.5.1 Students’ Attitudes Towards CLIL in the UAE Schools 168
   6.5.2 Conclusion 171
6.6 Material Related Factors 171
   6.6.1 Introduction 171
   6.6.2 Impact of Materials 171
   6.6.3 Using the 4Cs Principles to Assure Quality in the UAE CLIL Classrooms 175
6.7 Conclusion 177
6.8 Recommendations to Support the Current Situation of CLIL Programme in the UAE 177
   6.8.1 Teacher Education Programme Enrollment 178
   6.8.2 An Apprenticeship Model for UAE CLIL Teachers 178
   6.8.3 The Stages of a Successful Implementation of an Apprenticeship Model 179
   6.8.4 CLIL Teacher Learning Communities 180
6.9 Summary 182
6.10 The Research Questions Revisited and the Major Themes 182
   6.10.1 Dissonant Teacher Beliefs and Epistemologies 182
   6.10.2 Misperception of CLIL Pedagogy 183
   6.10.3 Teacher Disorientation due to Mismanagement of MAG inception and Implementation 184
   6.10.4 Loss of Teacher Autonomy 184
   6.10.5 Loss of Self-Efficacy 184
6.11 Student Demotivation 186
6.12 Conclusion to Chapter Six 186

Chapter 7 Conclusion
7.0 Introduction to Chapter Seven 189
7.1 Summary of Challenges facing CLIL in the MAG schools 189
7.2 Contributions of the Study 192
7.3 Implications 192
7.4 Limitations of the Research 193
7.5 Coda 194
References 197
Appendices 213
DEDICATION

This study is dedicated to my supportive husband, Nabeel Butt, who is my greatest source of inspiration and my exceptional role model. I am truly thankful for having you in my life. Thank you for all the support, care, love, and for believing in me.

Besides my husband, I dedicate this study to my loving parents, Halima Al Marhoom and Mohammed Jooaan Al Blooshi, for always believing in me and encouraging me to follow my dreams.

Last but not the least, I dedicate this study to my wonderful daughter, Elena. She might be so tiny, but it was her who gave me the courage and motivated me through the last year of my PhD.
ACKNOWLEDGMENT

This thesis would not have been possible without the support of a number of people whom I would like to thank. I take this opportunity to extend my sincere gratitude and appreciation to all those who made this PhD thesis possible.

Firstly, I would like to express my sincere gratitude to my supervisor Dr. Trevor Grimshaw for the constant support of my PhD study, for his patience, motivation, and knowledge. I believe that I am tremendously fortune to have worked with him.

Besides my supervisor, I would like to thank the Vice Chancellor of the University of Bath, Professor Glynis Breakwell, Dr. Santiago Sanchez and Dr. Katie Dunworth for their great support and encouragement during my course of PhD.

I gratefully acknowledge the scholarship and the continuous support received from the United Arab Emirates Ministry of Higher Education, Sheikh Saud Bin Saqer Al Qasmi Organization for Excellency and the Embassy of the United Arab Emirates in the United Kingdom.

A special thanks goes to my workplace, the Higher Colleges of Technology, for believing in me and for all the support they have provided during my study.

Last but not the least, I am grateful for the love, motivation, and tolerance of Nabeel Butt, the man who has made all the difference in my life. Without his patience and sacrifices, I could not have completed this thesis. A special word of thanks also goes to my family: my parents, brothers, sisters, and in-laws for supporting me spiritually throughout writing this thesis and my life in general.
Abstract

Literature on teacher beliefs and epistemologies indicates that these constructs strongly influence pedagogical practice as well as teacher motivation to implement curricular innovation. Such is the case with the implementation of Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) in the United Arab Emirates (UAE).

This study used qualitative cross-sectional research, employing interviews, focus group sessions, observations, and analysis of documents to examine teacher beliefs and epistemologies held by two groups of CLIL teachers in the MAG (Madaris Al Ghad) programme within the UAE context, with special focus on their classroom behaviours and praxis. The research was designed to identify the role of teacher beliefs and epistemologies in impacting their attitudes and motivation towards CLIL and its implementation.

Analysis of the interview and observation data revealed that unexamined teacher beliefs and epistemologies have created a dissonance between their practice and the demands of CLIL manifested most clearly as teacher resistance to adopting CLIL effectively and the use of counterproductive teaching and learning strategies.

On the basis of the emergent findings, a number of recommendations aimed at bringing about necessary improvements in the training and support of CLIL teachers are made. Broadly, it is recommended that key stakeholders should foster teacher participation in decision-making to create ownership of curricular reforms for effective implementation of CLIL. They may also consider the creation of school-based learning communities to facilitate support for and development of CLIL teachers. The thesis also delineates in detail the practical measures needed to effect these changes.

In providing insights into the beliefs, epistemologies and motivations of the CLIL teachers in MAG schools, this inquiry serves as a timely and relevant contribution to the sparse literature on the impact of CLIL implementation in the UAE context, thereby providing the means to research this area more extensively and to empower key stakeholders tasked with the job of implementing CLIL at the classroom level.
Chapter One: Introduction

1.0 Introduction to Chapter One

In the wake of globalisation, English has emerged by virtue of being the language of the knowledge-producing and trade-dominant Anglophone nations as the language of choice for those wishing to participate in the international economy with success. Indeed, the desire to ride on the wave of economic prosperity and to realise prospects of global engagement, which proficiency in the English language promises to those whose first language is not English drives the momentum of the educational reforms and innovations underway in the Arab world. As Mahrooqi and Denman (2015, p.2) point out, amongst the many reforms that leaders in the Arab world have been particularly enthusiastic about pushing forward for the sake of socio-economic progress and development in their countries, it is the initiatives connected to education that have had the greatest impact and ramifications over the past decades. English, particularly, is one of the main languages, which is seen as essential to this agenda for modernisation as well as engagement with the global community at large. However, Mahrooqi and Denman point out that the ascendancy of English in the Arab world is not without its complications. There are a number of challenges, which problematise its growing importance and status within the educational arena. They enumerate these difficulties to include attempting to bring about reconciliation between post-colonial national identities and the status of English as the language of the Empire. Particularly within the Arab world, these challenges include English being seen as a threat to indigenous cultures and identity or causing the marginalisation of segments of society unable to keep abreast with the growing prevalence of this imported language. The authors note that with specific reference to the prevalence of English in the Arab Higher Education sector, the dominance of English poses a particular conundrum for learners and teachers as well as those who make the policies at the national level. Indeed, Arab educators and policymakers must tread a fine line between imparting quality education in English and ensuring that such education, within which Western ideas must perforce feature strongly (for instance in materials and pedagogy), does not contradict or clash with Arab cultural traditions and faith-based Islamic values.

As Hopkyns (2015, p.7) observes, “English, erstwhile one language amongst many others vying for dominance on the international stage, has come to occupy a category of its own”. This, she argues, is attributable not only to the successes of the British Empire and its far-reaching influence but also the more recent but indisputable ascendancy of America as a global industrial as well as technological player in the international economy. Yet, despite the fact that it has been promoted by some individuals as a neutral language that makes global communication and trade possible, there is a dark undercurrent, which informs the debate around its ideological neutrality. For many people around the world, English is the contemporary version of
the mythic Trojan Horse whose soldiers are the English language specialists and educators equipped with an arsenal comprised of the English lexicon rather than bullets. Their agenda is suspected to be led by a desire to catalyse an insidious re-colonisation of the nations of the world so that they are remade in the image of Western democracies (Qiang & Wolff, 2005, p.60), thereby assuring Western hegemony over other cultures and civilizations in the centuries to come. Hopkyns (2005, p.8), an educator and researcher working at an Arab university, provides interesting insights into the dimensions of the threat English poses for the Arab world in particular. She argues that while English may be considered as a threat worthy of investigation in many parts of the world, it is in the Arab Gulf where researchers must take stock of the burgeoning inequality between English as an international lingua franca and Arab identity. The accelerated pace at which English has spread in the area of education and daily life is one of the reasons this development poses a threat. Other factors also include the complicated historical nexus between the Arab world and the Anglo-phone countries, in addition to the distinctive Arab culture and deeply cherished indigenous language, besides the rapidity of the transitions to which it has been subjected in recent years.

The implementation of CLIL (teaching content through the foreign language) in the UAE school contexts is one such educational effort undertaken by the UAE government to promote English proficiency. The initiative has attracted much investment and mobilization of resources and personnel for the purpose of enhancing English proficiency by promoting English as a medium of instruction, which is used to teach core content subjects like mathematics or science. Yet, the transition to the system has been less than smooth, with major stakeholders such as teachers and students expressing doubt at the efficacy of the innovation and lagging student achievement scores or negligible improvement in somewhat more successful cases corroborating these negative perceptions. My personal interest in examining CLIL effectiveness in MAG schools stemmed from the fact that although my MA level research had shown CLIL to be effective, it seemed to be failing in the research context under study (UAW). In addition to desiring UAE to have an effective educational system, I believe that as students are the key to the future, the education they receive, in this case framed by CLIL teaching, must be of a standard and quality integral to successful learner outcomes.

Hence, before progressing with an examination of CLIL implementation and the nature of the challenge in implementing it within the UAE context, it is essential to preface the discussion with an overview of the spread of English and the ramifications of this expansion for the Emirati context in particular. This will help to understand the reactions and attitudes towards curricular innovations promoting English amongst stakeholders, which may be taken by some as a form of social and cultural erosion.

1.0.1 Glottopolitics and the Spread of English
It is claimed that “a social phenomenon such as language spread naturally gives rise to reactions, positive and negative, within the new social context” (Pulcini 1997). The rhetoric framing the spread of English is an illuminating one, for it tends to pivot on a conceptualisation of the rise of English either as a neutral phenomenon or as a tool of ideological domination. On the one hand, we have Ngugi’s (1986, p.16) view that linguistic domination of indigenous languages during the process of colonisation was vital for achieving mental subordination of colonial subjects. From this perspective, we may come to understand that while erstwhile colonies of English-speaking countries may have secured their freedom, the mental subordination of the post-colonial subject continues with the promotion of English as language of trade and commerce and the international arena. This view is rather in line with the glib and prescient forecast of the British Council Annual Report 1987/88 (cited in Phillipson 1999), which asserted that the English language, rather than its oil reserves in the North Sea, constituted Britain’s real asset. This led to deliberate and concerted efforts on the part of dominant Anglo-phone nations to exploit the potential of this linguistic bonanza to the fullest by supporting the spread of English through provisions for English language teaching (ELT), pedagogy, materials, assessment and ELT teacher development. Over time, these two views, one rooted in play of power relations and the other in commercial pragmatism have come to inform the literature on the spread of English and its ramifications for nations, which promote English within their educational systems and sectors. The next section will look in more detail at the current perspectives on the spread of English.

1.0.2 Current Perspectives on the Spread of English

While there are those who advocate the growing dominance of English in the global community (Reagan & Schreffler 2005), others call for caution based on the apprehension that the ascendancy of the language imperils “the cultural integrity of the non-native speakers” (Modiano, 2001). Thus, it transpires that English has bifurcated global opinion, with millions of non-native speakers and ELT professionals evincing concern over the endangerment of local linguistic ecologies in the wake of the unbridled rise in educational innovations promoting English-led pedagogies and materials. English is perceived as a threat because its promotion through educational innovations is seen as leading to the transformation of ways of knowing and learning, thinking and even social and cultural self-conceptualisation. Essentially, English is perceived as the source of linguistic power, which guarantees access to the material prosperity enjoyed by the core industrialised nations, led by Anglophone countries such as the USA and the UK. As noted in the introduction, nowhere is this issue of greater relevance than in the Arabia Gulf where a range of factors serve to complicate the status and perception of the English language (Hopkyns, 2015).

Against this backdrop, CLIL adoption and implementation are not unproblematic, for by the very channel of implementation they bring into contestation prior beliefs and epistemologies of key actors such as teachers as well as students, devaluing what was
previously concerned valuable knowledge and destabilising subject authority built up over years of personal and professional work. Since CLIL has a greater impact on content teachers, this is a matter of great significance for such teachers. They become no less than strangers in their own classrooms, stripped of their erstwhile authority, compelled to teach their subject through a medium of instruction over which they themselves have little command and subjected to this by policymakers who have little understanding of how hard it is for seasoned content teachers to recalibrate their beliefs and epistemologies to implement CLIL effectively. That is akin to teaching through a pedagogy one does not understand or believe in and using an instructional medium in which there is an absence of proficiency with the inevitable result of learners being obstructed from experiencing effective teaching in the name of innovation.

1.0.3 The Historical Development of English

Conquest, trade, colonization following World War II led to American prominence as a military power and technological leader, a process which was paralleled by heavy investment in the propagation of the English language (Troike in Phillipson 1999). The development of communication technologies by the core English speaking countries further helped to push globalization and establish the status of the language across the globe. Its global status can be recognized by the conferral of an exceptional role of prominence in nations across the globe and its adoption as a language for official use or institution as a compulsory non-native language educational curricula (Crystal, 1997). This special status can be better understood in terms of Kachru’s (cited by Burt 2005) tri-tiered concentric circles, which explain how English expanded, how it was acquired, and the uses/status of English in countries across the globe. At the center of this depiction lies the Inner Circle featuring Anglophone nations. These countries serve as the cultural and linguistic foundations of English. The Outer Circle consists of countries, which use English as a secondary language including former African, South Asian and East Asian colonies of many of the Anglophone nations in the Inner Circle. Lastly, the Expanding Circle contains countries wherein English is spoken as a foreign language (EFL) and takes the form of performance varieties with restricted utility. Statistics show that there are well above 350 million English speakers in the Inner Circle, 300-500 million ESL speakers in the Outer circle and 500-1000 million EFL speakers in the Expanding Circle (Crystal 1997, p.61).

McKay posits that in the initial phase, English was propelled by colonialism and migration of speakers. Advances in technologies by the English speaking countries also helped to spread English in the initial phase (McKay 2002). However, its present spread has become vast with English becoming the language of globalisation, information highways and scientific and technological publications, in addition to
arts, entertainment, industry, finance and diplomacy (Modiano, 2001).

1.0.4 ‘Enriching’, ‘Inevitable’ and ‘Useful’

The spread of English, which has been documented above, has led it to become a global language. Those who support it have pushed the agenda for the use of English as “enriching”, “inevitable” and “useful”, a world view, which is essentially pragmatic in origin. Such labels help to establish English as the language of globalization, enabling non-native speakers to access modern knowledge, technological advancements, in addition to socio-economic and educational opportunities. Since a single neutral language does not exist, English is also seen as attractive because it facilitates cross cultural communication in the form of “enriching interactions with multicultural communities and traditions” (Canagarajah, 1999).

Canagarajah also posits that if the question of standard English is excluded then we may also view “nativized versions of English, novel English discourses in post-colonial literature, and the hybrid mixing of languages in indigenous communities” as a positive development partially attributable to the English language (Canagarajah 1999). The increased adoption and communicative use of English amongst global nations has also come to be seen as inevitable as it is conceptualised by ESL and EFL countries as the language of acquiring knowledge and accessing advances in technology.

From an Anglophone perspective, Burt (2005) also writes that the expansion of English is useful because it not only “saves resources” but also facilitates “cultural exchange”. Burt adds that this might be seen as so because the spread of English does not serve to threaten indigenous languages. Pragmatist perspectives also dominate in McKay’s (2003) thinking, and she makes a case for the use of English by saying that English is popular amongst global citizens as it offers access to scientific research resources, world commerce and tertiary education.

1.0.5 The Other side of the story: English as ‘Imperialist’ and ‘Damaging’

While in the earlier section, persuasive arguments have been made about the spread of English, amongst the critics of this perspective, there is a burgeoning growing belief that since mid-20th century, an Anglo-American agenda has pushed for English to be promoted as a way to extend and exercise control over countries at the periphery. The publicly voiced agenda of the British Council in its early stages towards the active establishment of English as a universal language eventually evolved into collaboration with the USA for the attainment of similar objectives. In both countries, policies of promoting the use of English a language for international communication were adopted for extension of the West’s economic interests, according to Gaffey (2005)

Such expansion and promotion of English has led scholars to conceptualise it as
‘imperialist’ and ‘damaging’, a view given academic ballast by the publication of Phillipson’s book *Linguistic Imperialism* (1992), which offers an insightful commentary on the essentially political nature of English. Phillipson (1992, p.47) takes the view that the expansion of English constitutes Linguistic Imperialism because it perpetuates institutional and cultural inequities in countries where it is promoted as a language of wider communication.

Echoing Ngugi’s (1986, p.15) contention that culture and language are one, Phillipson (1992) contends that the argument that ELT is apolitical divorces culture from structure, as this belief rests on the assumption that educational concerns can be separated from “social, political, and economic realities”. Phillipson implies that this, in fact, cannot be so. Herein is a point of great relevance to the current implementation of the English led CLIL reforms in the UAE. Indeed, if English is indistinguishable from culture then it carries ideological connotations, which notion demolishes the argument for its apolitical nature implicit in the arguments of McKay and Burt. A point of greater relevance is the contention that English impacts not only other languages by substituting or displacing them, as in the case of Arabic as EMI for key subjects, but that it may also impose “mental structures”, which end up shaping the very way people think (Phillipson (1992, p.166). The resistance to CLIL can be comprehended more easily in the light of this argument, for consciously or unconsciously when English is introduced by way of large-scale educational reforms, stakeholders are likely to experience a culture dissonance, which stems from the fact that language and culture have an inherent correspondence.

This point is corroborated by Pennycook (1994, p.23) who advances the view that we think of “language use as a social, cultural and political act” and inquire into the discourse constructed to present the expansion of English as apolitical and advantageous. In the light of this, if “language is located in social action” then the expansion of English brings with it the dilution of indigenous cultures and the enthusiastic promotion of English within the countries in the periphery assumes non-altruistic dimensions, the repercussion of which are likely to be experienced much beyond ELT contexts.

The dangers are many. First the prevalence of English can force other languages to recede into the background, also taking away resources from the development of these local languages (Phillipson 1992). Second, the spread and use of English can also cause lead non-native speakers to experience dissonance within their cultural identities, by way of insidiously causing the internalization of norms of the English L1 culture.

When English becomes dominant, pre-existing cultures, institutions, lifestyles, ideas become less valued, and even social stratification on the basis of English proficiency
may occur in the contemporary world. This may even lead to “linguicism”, which is tantamount to a feeling of linguistic superiority (Phillipson, 1992). Even more worryingly, self-exaltation on the part of English speaking countries can generate false non-native speaker expectations based on the association of English with undue prestige (Preiswerk, n.d in Phillipson 1992, p.38).

An insight offered by Ngugi (1986. p.4) is particularly useful wherein he argues that the language, which is promoted in a country, is naturally connected to how people define themselves in their socio-cultural environment and in relation to the world itself. Within UAE, such redefinition has led to uneasiness on the part of the stakeholders as a result of CLIL implementation, for it entails learning and expressing themselves in a language, which is alien to their social and cultural realities. While like other periphery countries, UAE may be implementing these educational innovations due to economic realities and not because they want to, there is a need to bear in mind that its adoption can lead to “inequality rather than opportunity, and the need to learn English is often a barrier to education and employment rather than an opportunity for it” (Tollefson, 2001). Hence, this study was designed and carried out with a view to understanding the experiences and beliefs of the key actors, namely the CLIL teachers, to implement CLIL, and the possibility of the sources of resistance inherent in their instructional practices due to the many subtle dynamics associated with increasing integration of English in their contexts. Then next section will discuss with greater specificity what bilingualism entails in this scenario.

1.0.6 Rising Bilingualism

Bilingual education is not a new phenomenon. It has been used at various stages of history to educate students in an international language or to help immigrants adapt to a new language environment (Räsänen, 1994). There are, however, diverse models of bilingual education (Baker, 2007; Garcia, 2009), which have developed over time.

One model is Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), a central pedagogical choice within bilingual education in UAE. CLIL is a dual-focused pedagogical method wherein a language diverging from the students’ first language is used for instruction in the content and the language (Mehisto et al, 2008). In CLIL, the emphasis is on studying the content and not just on learning the target language (Marsh, 2002). In being taught through CLIL, learners are introduced to the notion that the language used in the classroom is not only a target of learning but also a way to learn different subjects (Nikula & Marsh, 1998). Another purpose of using CLIL, as Marsh and Hartiala (2001) note, is to enhance intercultural understanding whilst teaching communicative skills. Thus, CLIL is related to language learning as well as to intercultural understanding.

However, in the UAE, CLIL has not been as effective as anticipated and learner outcomes have not improved in the wake of CLIL adoption. It is generally agreed that
teachers are central to successful implementation of pedagogical innovations, for instance CLIL. In this connection, Nikula and Dalton-Puffer (2014, p.118) note that it is important to examine teacher beliefs and motivations in order to find out more about CLIL implementation. More specifically, as Morton (2012, p.49) has found, it is essential to understand teacher conceptualisation of learning and language in CLIL because teachers greatly influence their learners’ language development. It is Arkoudis (2005, p.175) who clearly outlines the dimensions of the impact of teacher beliefs on curriculum implementation. She posits that the way teacher interprets the function of language in delivering content assumes great significance, along with their personal theories of teaching and acquiring knowledge as the delivery of the curriculum is shaped by the pedagogical conceptions of the educators. Given the importance of teacher beliefs to successful curricular innovation and implementation, it becomes essential to examine these in the UAE CLIL context. Thus, this study investigated how Emirati teachers conceptualised CLIL as well as the factors influencing their motivation to implement CLIL.

1.1 CLIL in practice: Challenges in the UAE context

The growing importance of English is an aspect of the globalization process (Altbach, Reisberg & Rumbley, 2009, p. vi). Widely viewed as an instrument of development for emerging world economies, English takes a central role in early schooling and has also helped to dislodge other languages as the instructional medium (Marsh, 2006, p.30). This has been paralleled by the emergence of the idea that effective language learning takes place when content is delivered to students in a language other than the native one. Studies in language education support the idea that English as a second language is learnt most successfully when used to deliver content that is motivating and relevant to the students. Drawing upon work done by a number of researchers (e.g. Krashen, 1982, Lightbown and Spada, 2006, Long, 1990 and Swain, 2000), Navés, (2009) points out that second language learning is deemed to be more effective when i) instruction focuses on content rather than on form, ii) the language input is equal to or in excess of learner proficiency, and iii) opportunities for meaningful learner interaction in a relaxed learning environment prevail. This approach has come to be known as Content and Language Integrated Learning. Marsh and Lange (cited in Wolff, 2006, p.546) define this as a general term, which refers to an educational approach wherein an additional language is employed to teach and learn subjects rather than the language itself.

Whilst CLIL has been observed to raise linguistic competence of students within the European context (Scott & Beadle, 2014, p.29), the outcomes are notably less clear in the UAE context. As CLIL efficacy is an under researched area in the literature on UAE, stakeholder impressions, especially those of the teachers, have given rise to the perception that CLIL is not succeeding as it should be in Emirati classrooms. While the current CLIL curriculum has been well designed and contains all the
characteristics of an effective CLIL programme, there is widespread perception that it is failing to address the requirements of Emirati teachers as well as learners. This indicates how only a minority of Emirati teachers actually implements CLIL in their classrooms, whilst a larger number of Emirati teachers stick to teacher-centered, transmission oriented methods. This may be due to the fact that it may not be an easy approach to implement in classrooms. It has been observed that CLIL is challenging for teachers tasked to use the approach (Vazquez & Ellison, 2013, p.69). As Marsh et al (2010, p.5) point out that teachers using the CLIL approach will need to develop multiple competences including expertise in the content subject, language, praxis, combining of the last three as well as the combining of this approach within the academic centre itself. Given the complexity of CLIL and centrality of teachers to its success, this study was designed to investigate what CLIL meant to teachers and the factors impacting their motivation for implementing CLIL effectively. The findings were assumed to be of relevance to policymaking vis-à-vis CLIL by the UAE Ministry of Education.

1.2 Aims of the Study

Despite the extensive support for CLIL provided by the UAE Ministry of Education, many Emirati instructors are still not implementing CLIL. Furthermore, the poor outcomes of mathematics and science and English language subjects have called into question the appropriateness and usefulness of using CLIL in UAE. Therefore, this study sought to inquire into both teachers’ understanding of the approach and their enthusiasm to implement it with a view to the impact of both on the success of the CLIL programme. In addition, it also sought to inquire into student perspectives and experiences of CLIL, as these were vital to developing a holistic picture of the state of CLIL implementation in MAG schools according to key stakeholders.

1.3 Questions Framing the Study

The study addressed the following main research questions:

RQ1: How do Emirati teachers conceptualise the Content and Language Integrated Learning approach?

RQ2: What variables influence the motivation of teachers in implementing CLIL?

RQ3: What are the perceptions and experiences of the students as to being taught CLIL?

1.4 Thesis Organisation
Chapter Two provides details of the context of the study. Chapter Three discusses the general background of CLIL and reviews the historical development of language education and CLIL programme inception and implementation in UAE schools. In addition, it examines the different definitions, and the origins of CLIL and assesses the positive effects of CLIL on language learning and learning. Criticisms of CLIL are also considered within this chapter. Chapter Three also review literature on teacher cognition and motivation, in addition to presenting the theoretical framework. This is drawn from Lee et al’s (2009) conceptual framework for examining the relationships amongst teacher beliefs and epistemologies and the impact of these on instructional practices in addition to Nolen et al’s (2007) concept of motivational filters in the process of teacher learning. Chapter Four presents details of the research methodology including coverage of the research design, methods of data collection, respondents, tools, analysis, and ethical considerations. Chapter Five presents the research findings and analysis, while Chapter Six discusses these findings and presents the recommendations. Chapter Seven sums up the key findings of the study, discusses the contributions to literature and outlines the research implications for policymakers and educators in the UAE and elsewhere.
Chapter Two: The Context of the Study
2.0 Introduction to Chapter 2

This study focused on teacher understanding of CLIL in the UAE and factors affecting teacher motivation in implementing the approach. Student perspectives were included to gain a fuller picture of teacher experiences of CLIL and the impact of teacher beliefs on instructional practices. This chapter outlines the context in which the research was conducted, also describing English language education in the UAE context and the political, social, cultural and economic issues that influence language policies in its educational system. Moreover, it assesses English language use in the country and in primary education.

2.1 The Significance of English Language Education in the UAE

The benefits of ‘Englishization’, as Mikitani labels it, are important for it is a fast spreading language in human history with an estimated 1.75 billion users worldwide (Neeley, 2012). Additionally, English is widely used for business as well as technology and is the preferred language for countries, which desire to participate and compete in the international economy (Phillipson, 2003). The attractive geographical location of the Middle Eastern countries with opportunities for trading has encouraged the use of diverse languages (Charise, 2007). In addition, historical links between the Middle East and the United Kingdom over the last hundred years or so helped to consolidate English usage in the area. With self-governance being allowed to the local rulers during British colonial rule, the Emirates rulers’ attitudes towards English remained positive (Charise, 2007), thereby predisposing them to seeing it as an instrument for national self-development rather than an obstacle. Another element governing the usage of English relates to the diversity of the population living in the country. The current population of the UAE stands at 9.577 million, of which figure 12% are Emiratis, whilst 88% are expatriates (Snoj, 2015). With such diversity, a mutual language of interaction was required, leading to a scenario where official and unofficial documents in the UAE came to be produced in both English and Arabic. Thus, knowledge of English has become a necessity to survive in the UAE, for it is used everywhere from ordering food, talking to shopkeepers, communicating with babysitters to dealing with business related responsibilities. It is uncommon to find a worker who cannot speak English in the UAE nowadays, with most preferring to use English instead of Arabic, as it is more accessible for speakers and learners alike. Most expatriates either speak English as a further language or as their native tongue.

Although English is widely thought to be important, and this perception finds expression in the UAE media, in 2009 the Federal National Council (FNC) asked the Ministry of Higher Education to relax the admission requirements for Emirati students, especially the English proficiency criteria (Shaheen, 2009a). The request was made in view of the low acceptance rate for Emirati university applicants, due to
low English proficiency levels developed from inadequate preparation within the schooling system. In addition, the FNC requested the Ministry to consider the inclusion of some Arabic related content for students with poor English skills (ibid). However, the Ministry of Education declined FNC’s request contending that proficiency in English was pivotal to national development and for global leverage (Shaheen, 2009a, p.2). This clearly indicated that the role of English in Emirati education was not negotiable in view of the government policies and roadmap for national development.

Many Emiratis concur with the statement above, as without English, the UAE would not enjoy its existing eminence as one of the most influential cities in the world. It is the English language, which is seen to have enabled the UAE to grow locally and internationally, a belief supported by students as well who feel, for example, that studying a subject like engineering in Arabic rather than English would close off job opportunities and chances of professional success (Shaheen, 2009b). Therefore, English is considered to be essential to ‘get the most out of life’ (Lewis & Khalaf, 2009).

2.2 State of Education in the UAE Context

Provision of quality education in the UAE began after the establishment of the first university in Abu Dhabi, Al Ain University (Viaca, 2015). Since then, the UAE has progressed by making efforts for ensuring high educational rates, setting up modern programmes and enhancing women’s access to and participation in education (ibid).

2.2.1 Educational Authorities

There are two ministries that manage the process of education within the country, respectively, the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Higher Education. Recently, UAE has experienced the emergence of private educational councils led by some of the Emiratis, which are established in specific Emirates to cater to the particular needs of the locals. In two of the emirates, Abu Dhabi and Dubai, these private educational councils work in collaboration with the UAE Ministry of Education to ensure quality and correspondence with UAE educational levels and requirements. Examples of such an arrangement are the Abu Dhabi Education Council and Knowledge and the Human Development Authority in Dubai, which are well known for their efforts in establishing educational programmes within their cities in line with the national educational policy.

2.2.2 Expenditure on Education

The government of the UAE expends about 37% of the budget on education
(Government Affairs - Federal Budget, 2016). This progressive investment in education can be attributed to the vision of the UAE ruler Sheikh Zayed, who believed in the power of education, averring that ‘through knowledge and science [would be opened] the horizons of a glorious future’ (Sheikh Zayed, n.d.¹). He believed that educational development was the key to long-term success (ibid).

2.2.3 Gender-segregated Learning

One of the characteristics of the Emirati educational system is gender-segregated learning, which is made mandatory due to cultural and religious traditions. Male and female learners usually have to be taught separately from primary school onwards. Further, there are more female teachers available in the UAE than male teachers (Al Halmodi, 2014). As a result, some primary schools for boys have female teachers, whilst at the postgraduate level, the teacher appointed can be male or female.

2.2.4 Educational System in the UAE

While the Ministry of Education manages the primary years and middle years schooling, the Ministry of Higher education and Science Research deals with postgraduate institutions. In the UAE, students have access to free state-funded education from primary through to the tertiary levels. Primary and secondary instruction is compulsory up to grade nine, and the students have to go through two years of kindergarten, spend six years at primary school, and undertake three years’ preparatory instruction and three years of secondary education. The preparatory instruction readies students for general or practical secondary instruction, involving a communal first year and later a specialization in science or arts. Students are assessed for the General Secondary Certificate at the close of the third year. The results of the assessment accompanied by the national placement assessment, Common Educational Proficiency Assessment, determine admission to tertiary institutes.

2.2.5 Madaress Al Ghad (MAG)

Seven years ago, grade one students were taught English for an hour a day while Arabic was used as the medium of instruction. However, from 2009 onwards, the UAE introduced the Madaress Al Ghad (MAG) into fifty schools in the UAE, which programme was founded upon using the content and language integrated method (CLIL) to teach subject-matter to Emirati learners. Thereafter, fifty schools in the UAE had two parallel systems operating within their schools, namely the previous educational programme and the MAG school programme. In the MAG schools, the medium of instruction is English, and students are taught Math and Science using the CLIL approach. Hence, rather than learning English for one hour every day, students
are exposed to three hours of English a day through the use of CLIL. The examination and grading systems remain the same as those for learners following the previous school programme with only a single hour of English instruction. However, it is a point of concern that within a year of the implementation of MAG, the number of schools using CLIL has decreased to 44 schools due to the withdrawal of six schools from the programme (Abu Zaid, 2012).

2.3 CLIL in the UAE

CLIL based reforms in the UAE can be understood in the context of parallel streams of curricular innovation leading towards the increasing use of English as medium of instruction for key subjects like science and mathematics as well as an immersive, to a degree, English language learning experience. Although the focus of this thesis is on the MAG programme, Abu Dhabi’s NSM will be considered as well to arrive at a clearer understanding of how these similar but separate programmes have been implemented in the UAE.

_Emirate of Dubai and Madares al Ghad (MAG) Programme_

According to official government sources dating back at least twenty years, Emirati students had a tendency to rely on rote learning, remaining unaware of their true potential (NAJAH, online, accessed 12-3-2013). According to Baker (2013, p.279), the United Arab Emirates was formed in the Arabian Gulf in 1971 “when the Trucial Sheikhdoms of Abu Dhabi, Dubai, Sharjah, Ajman, Umm Al-Quwain, Ras Al-Khaimah and Fujairah became a federation”. Baker (2013, p.284) explains that due to UAE’s and most especially Dubai’s reliance on expatriate labour, English has assumed the role of lingua franca within the federation. In 2006, H.H. Sheikh Mohammed bin Rashid Al Maktoum, Vice President, Prime Minister of the UAE, and Ruler of Dubai tasked the Knowledge and Human Development Authority (KHDA), the Dubai government educational authority, with transforming the educational sector within the Emirate of Dubai.

Layman (2011, p.5) describes how the growing need to develop the English proficiency of Emirati learners and the Ministry of Education’s decision to do away with the foundation year at tertiary level, traditionally used to build up English language skills for coping with curricular requirements at university, led to development of the Madares al Ghad (MAG) programme. Initiated in 2007/2008 in specified Cycle 1 schools overseen by the MOE, the standards for MAG schools were “adopted from the Abu Dhabi Educational Council (ADEC) which are aligned with the Common European Framework Reference (CEFR)”, with the aim being to “create bilingual UAE citizens who are able to meet the challenges of the 21st century” and “to serve as an example for reform in education in the public schools [with] the main focus of the program [being to teach] English to a level that enables students to enter directly into tertiary education without the necessity of a foundation year” (Layman,
Layman also explains that the MAG programme was rolled out in “six of the seven emirates in the UAE (Dubai, Sharjah, Ajman, Ras Al Khaimah, Fujeirah and Um Al Qiwain) [which had] two schools for each cycle, one for each gender in each cycle” (p.5). In the case of this study, the teachers and students participating in the study were based at schools in Ras al Khaimah, wherein MAG implementation was also in process, as reported by Layman (2011).

The adoption of the CLIL approach entailed several steps. Firstly, in 2008, new standards were introduced in fifty UAE public schools under the Madaress Al Ghad (MAG) programme, which aimed to introduce young learners to English language education from the onset of their schooling (Ahmed, 2010). Secondly, the medium of instruction for key subjects such as mathematics and science was changed to English from Arabic, making use of CLIL pedagogy for delivery of the teaching and learning experience (Salyman, 2008, online). According to Dr. Fouzia Badri, education head at the Ministry of Education (Salyman, 2008, online), the failure of the earlier system to develop learner proficiency in English was a major catalyst for the reforms. Dr. Fouzia Badri explained that adopting English as a medium of instruction for these subjects was done to make sure that the learners not only acquired English easily but also mastered the content and subject specific language just as effectively (Salyman, 2008, online).

**Emirate of Abu Dhabi and the New School Model (NSM)**

In recognition of the poor outcomes of earlier regressive approaches to learning, educational reforms were initiated in Abu Dhabi, the capital of UAE by the Abu Dhabi Education Council (ADEC) (Al Alili, 2014, p.6), which sought according to Kantola (2015, p.15) to develop a long-term roadmap for the development of the citizens’ skills in a language, technology and mathematics. It was in this context that “the New School Model was launched in the Arab Emirates in 2010 to all primary schools” (Loponen (2014 in Kantola, 2015, p.15). Gallagher (n.d) explains how the early introduction and use of English as Medium of Instruction (EMI) within higher education in UAE had proved challenging for the majority of Arabic speaking state school graduates with hitherto limited exposure to English as an EFL subject. This had entailed two years of intensive English language learning before the graduates could commence their university studies. To overcome the challenges of late immersion, the Abu Dhabi Education Council (ADEC) decided in 2010 to shift “the paradigm from ‘late-late’ to ‘early-early’ immersion in English language” through “the ‘New School Model’”, which saw “teachers from Kindergarten onwards using English as the everyday medium to teach some subjects, alongside the traditional medium of Arabic” (Gallagher, n.d). This signaled the introduction of CLIL as an approach to provide an immersive experience in teaching and learning English within the UAE context. Table 1 offers a comparative overview of the development of the MAG and the NSM programmes implemented in the Emirate of Dubai and the Abu Dhabi emirate respectively.
Asma Al Blooshi _ PhD _ 2017

Table 1: Comparison of development of MAG and NSM programmes (Based on Baker, 2013)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MADARES AL GHAD</th>
<th>NEW SCHOOL MODEL</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>The Emirate of Dubai and the Northern Emirates</strong></td>
<td><strong>Abu Dhabi Emirate and the Abu Dhabi Education Council</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Designation of selected schools as Future Schools:</strong></td>
<td>Formation of PPP partnerships as foundation to NSM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Twelve secondary schools (grades 10-12) working in cooperation with the Ministry of Education</td>
<td>• In 2006, formation of nine private public school partnerships (PPPP) as a foundation to ADECA’s New School Model (NSM) curriculum in Abu Dhabi Emirate.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Thirteen intermediate schools (grades 6-9): and eighteen elementary schools (grades 1-5)</td>
<td><strong>Provision of curriculum to PPP operators:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Integration of American, European and other native English speaking teachers into project at elementary schools to improve English language proficiency:</strong></td>
<td>• Curriculum provided by Technical and Further Education Global (TAFEG Global) [New South Wales Department of Education and Early Childhood Development] and in schools in thirty KG – grade 5 schools in Abu Dhabi Emirate – 12 in Al Ain, 12 in Abu Dhabi city, and 6 in the Western Region – Al Gharbiya.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In 2010, announcement of decision to extend MAG curriculum into grade 4 by Ms. Shaikha Al Maktoum, Chief Executive for Educational Affairs</td>
<td><strong>Signing up for PPP provision by two additional operators:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Baseline inspections undertaken by DSIB in 2008-2009:</strong></td>
<td>• In 2007, additional operators signed up to provide PPP education for 3 years in 30 new schools for grade 6-9 students.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>In 2009, 31 of the schools operating the MAG curriculum were located in the five Northern Emirate: Ajman, Fujairah, Ras Al-Khaimah, Sharjah and Umm Al-Qwain.</strong></td>
<td><strong>Previously (2013) all schools fall under KHDA umbrella, which comprises the following:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Presently (2017) all schools fall under KHDA umbrella, which comprises the following:</strong></td>
<td>• Dubai School Inspection Bureau (DSIB);</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Dubai School Agency;</td>
<td>• EDAAP (a scholarship program for high achieving students to study at top universities in the world);</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Preparatory Education Development Program;</td>
<td>• National Institute for Vocational Education and Talmeken, which encompasses students with visual impairments.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As Table 1 shows, both MAG and NSM are premised on the idea of a more immersive English language learning experience, involving the deployment of native speakers as teachers (MAG) and curriculum expertise from a foreign university (NSM). Table 2 (p.24) provides a clearer picture of the curricular, structural and educational changes entailed by MAG and NSM as well as teacher development provision for more effective implementation of the curricular innovations undergirding both programmes. As this thesis focuses on MAG, the discussion that follows will centre on the implications of MAG implementation for the schools in UAE. The transition to MAG involved the adoption of bilingual education (Arabic and English) grounded within a more learner-centered pedagogy supportive of problem solving and critical thinking. As the table shows, schools were selected for enrolment in the MAG programme, with one of the key elements being the integration of native speaking teachers for increasing the English proficiency of the learners. Perhaps, the most notable feature of the MAG programme is the integration of on-site mentoring support made available to both Principals and teachers in the form of the Instructional Leadership Coordinators (ILC) and Teacher Development Specialists (TDS). From the available literature, it would appear to be the case that site-based mentoring and support through ILCs and TDSs was believed to be adequate for teacher support and professional development. As Stephenson, Harold and Dada (20, p.4) observe that within the MAG programme “the underlying approach to professional learning [is] a mentoring/coaching approach with a focus on action inquiry and collaborative problem solving to promote student learning”.

In view of the swift initiation of these educational reforms, there seems to have been little time or effort to prepare the teachers for the impending implementation of CLIL, which would seem to hold true for NSM and MAG alike. As Stockwell (2015, p.15) reports in the case of the NSM reforms implemented in Abu Dhabi, the “incumbent
staff received no professional development (PD) prior to the adoption of the change proposal and the expectation was that “on the job” training would be sufficient for their needs”. Similarly in view of the MAG programme and the ambitious targets for further roll out of the MAG scheme, there also appears to have been little room for preparing and upskilling existing teachers prior to CLIL implementation. The Ministry seems to have addressed this issue with stop-gap measures like the hiring of native-speaking teachers and ILC and TDS professionals to help Emirati teachers survive the initial phase of CLIL implementation. In the wake of the implementation of CLIL reforms, a study by Sanassian (2011) investigating the impact of the rapid CLIL reform on Emirati teachers working in a school outside Abu Dhabi city found “several instances of teacher marginalization as the result of a top-down reform” and “a prevailing sentiment of teacher disempowerment because of the presence of foreigners operating in the country”. The multiplicity of issues surrounding CLIL implementation warranted further investigation of teacher and student perceptions of CLIL implementation in Ras al Khaimah, another UAE emirate. As the findings of the study will show, this gap, despite the best efforts of the Ministry and the educational authorities, has not been adequately overcome, resulting in a range of issues related to smooth implementation of the CLIL reforms.
### Table 2: Curricular, structural and educational changes and teacher development provisions for CLIL implementation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Changes in the wake of implementation of programme</th>
<th>MAG PROGRAMME</th>
<th>NSM PROGRAMME</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Curricular change</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• <strong>Bilingual education</strong> (Baker, 2013)**</td>
<td></td>
<td>• <strong>Creation of hard content and language focused curriculum through NSM</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• The MAG “curriculum will reduce the ‘textbook dependent’ style teaching and will be more of a learner-centred pedagogy where the focus is on implementing active learning which supports critical thinking and problem solving which is focused on individual needs” (Barell, 2014, p.14).</td>
<td></td>
<td>• <strong>Introduction of dual language bilingual system</strong> in KG and <strong>Cycle One</strong> (grades 1-5) schools for teaching math, science and English through EMI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Structural/educational change</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| • **Designation of selected schools as Future Schools** (Baker, 2013)**:  
  ➢ Sixteen secondary schools (grades 10-12) working in cooperation with the Ministry of Education;  
  ➢ Thirteen intermediate schools (grades 6-9);  
  ➢ and eighteen elementary schools (grades 1-3) |               | • **Initiation of NSM in grades KG-3** (2010), **Addition of grade 4** (2011), **Implementation** (2018) |
| • In 2010, **announcement of decision to extend MAG curriculum into grade 4** by Ms. Shaikha Al Shamsi, Chief Executive for Educational Affairs |               | • Hiring of **native speaking teachers** from to serve as EMTs under the NSM Model |
| • Teaching at KG level calls for **parallel immersion** with Arabic medium teacher (AMT) and English medium teacher (EMT) co-teaching learners. In **Cycle One** schools, **AMTs and EMTs teach specific subjects separately**. AMTs teach Arabic, Islamic studies and EMTs teach English, math and science. Other subjects may be taught in either language |               | • Teaching at KG level calls for **parallel immersion** with Arabic medium teacher (AMT) and English medium teacher (EMT) co-teaching learners. In **Cycle One** schools, **AMTs and EMTs teach specific subjects separately**. AMTs teach Arabic, Islamic studies and EMTs teach English, math and science. Other subjects may be taught in either language |
| • In a departure from traditional teaching models, **NSM focuses on student centered, technology enriched integrated learning environment**, encouraging, integration, differentiation and stakeholder involvement |               |               |
• **Integration** of American, European and other native English speaking teachers into project at elementary schools to improve English language proficiency

• *In 2009*, **31 of the schools operating the MAG curriculum were located in the five Northern Emirates: Ajman, Fujairah, Ras Al-Khaimah, Sharjah and Umm Al-Quwain.**

• Presently (2013) all schools fall under KHDA umbrella, which comprises the following:
  - **Dubai School Inspection Bureau (DSIB);**
  - **Dubai School Agency;**
  - **EDAAD** (a scholarship program for high achieving students to study at top universities in the world;)
  - **Emirates National Development Program;**
  - **National Institute for Vocational Education and Tamkeen,** which empowers people with visual impairments.

• **Benchmarked standards and learning outcomes** related to subject knowledge, understanding, learning behaviors and learning skills set out by NSM
Provisions for CLIL oriented teacher development and training

- According to Genc (2010, p.2-3), in the MAG program, there are teachers, Instructional Leadership Coordinators (ILCs) and Teacher Development Specialists (TDSs).
- TDSs and ILCs are in charge of providing help and development to the MAG teachers.
- They supervise, co-teach, and give model lessons. The TDS and the ILC have both administrative and teaching roles.
- One ILC is assigned to every MAG school’s Cycle 1, 2, and 3 throughout the UAE.
- Cycle 1 TDS mentors teachers work in integrated classes of English, math and science.
- Cycle 2 or 3 TDSs work with English language teachers.

ILC Roles

- Building bridge between between teachers, principals, and the Ministry of Education.
- Assessing both teachers and the TDSs.
- Collaborating with school principals to ensure that all aspects of MAG objectives are implemented at the school level.
- Facilitating ongoing professional development related to the creation of

| Establishment of Emirates College for Advanced Education (ECAE) to deliver B.Ed. degree to Emirati nationals. Shift to pedagogy suited to NSM implementation |
| Alignment of higher education teacher training programmes to changing school curriculum under NSM |
| Sabbatical scheme for further training of in-service Emirati teachers and expansion of professional development for all government school teachers |
| Foundation course at ECAE followed by enrolment in B.E.d programme making use of CLIL principles from Coyle’s Four C Framework, with the exception of culture wherein the Emirati culture, rather than multiculturalism, is promoted |
| Four pronged programme of study incorporating English skills, subject knowledge, pedagogically based courses and teaching practicum. NSM specific CLIL course and Integrated Course taught in year 3 and year 4 of programme to consolidate effectiveness as CLIL trained teacher. |
| Emiratisation of CLIL teachers underway with hiring of many ECAE graduates as EMTs and increase of Emirati staff at ECAE |
a learner-centered teaching environment.

- Assisting the school principal in the development of school-wide policies
- Building the leadership capacity of their assigned principal and other leaders in the school by mentoring and role modeling.
- Assisting principals with the observation and summative appraisal of all teachers
- Managing and distributing MAG resources related to teaching and learning.
- Planning, coordinating and supervising the ongoing professional development in the school.

**TDS Roles**

- Mentoring, observing and developing the teachers through co-teaching or demonstration teaching in school settings according to MAG objectives
- Maintaining assessment development and analyzing MAG guidelines
- Supporting school-wide reforms
2.4 Emergent themes in literature on EMI in the UAE

An examination of literature reveals that although English has been used as a medium of instruction within UAE tertiary educational sector over the last four decades, very little research has been carried out into its positive or negative impact on pedagogy and learning. King (2014) explains that this might be due to the fact that large-scale government investment in promoting English as a medium of instruction (EMI) to the possible detriment of the position of Arabic as a medium of instruction does not allow room for a critique of a much-favoured governmental policy.

Also, research is a time consuming process, which follows a measured pace. In view of the fact that the educational landscape in the UAE has undergone rapid developments and transitions over the years, it is possible that research findings have not had time to percolate into educational policymaking at the same speed as those of educational initiatives rolled out across educational institutions at governmental behests and directives. However, in recent years, a great deal of research into English as medium of instruction and its implementation, along with consideration of a range of variables has been carried out and published. This body of research can be categorised according to a number of themes including a belief in the centrality of its role in national economic progress and modernization as well as perception of English as a threat to Arab culture, language and society.

Studies show that EMI is believed to be central to UAE’s focus on preparing UAE for the realities of doing effectively business in a globalised world. According to Al Ateequi (2009, p.87), at the leadership level in UAE, there is recognition of the role English proficiency in the language of business and science can play in ensuring that Emiratis will be able to access business networks and opportunities in the international arena.

Amongst stakeholders too, there is awareness that learning English is essential to attaining economic progress (Clarke, 2006; Al Marzroui, 2011; Troudi and Jendli, 2011, Dahan, 2013). The research conducted by the above-mentioned researchers demonstrates that a great premium is placed upon English by Emirati learners who see studying the subject as pivotal to national development as well as the attainment of the nation’s place in the global community. Clarke (2006) also points out that as English tends to be connected to new pedagogies and methods of learning, stakeholders also perceive learning the language to be associated with being modern. This sanguine view of English is worrying to researchers like Troudi and Jendli (2011) who argue that an unproblematised view of English is particularly reflected in the adoption of “native speaker” competence models to guide the teaching and learning of the language. In earlier research, Troudi (2009) has pointed out that such an uncontested and complacent view of English equates to nothing less than a self-
imposed mental colonisation, which represents a continuation of the colonial occupation of the yesteryears.

The promotion of English as a medium of instruction is also seen to represent a possible threat to Emirati cultural and linguistic identities, despite the official view that learning languages other one’s native tongue should not be considered a betrayal or usurpation of one’s culture or identity. However, there are concerns evidenced in some research that EMI represents a threat to Arab culture and identity. For instance, Findlow (2005) found that as the teaching of key subjects related to UAE’s future growth is dominated by non-native or Western-trained educators, it is believed that learners will learn to prefer Western culture at the expense of their own culture. Dakkak (2011, p.34) reports that there are considerable reservations amongst Emirati educators that the “foreign origin” of much curricular reform serves as a threat to national identity, thereby coming into contestation with their own pedagogical beliefs and values. In other cases, the dependence of the UAE educational sector upon expatriate educators has led to reservations over the economic sustainability of the practice, which also dis-privileges local teachers as well as their expertise. This practice is seen to affect not only the potential to build the capacity of local educators but also opportunities to shape educational innovation in accordance with the culture and values of the Emirates (Farah & Ridge, 2009).

Research also showcases the concern that the Arabic language in the UAE is likely to be consigned to the periphery due to its connection with those aspects of UAE culture, including religion, norms governing socialisation and indigenous literature, which are in dissonance with the governmental focus on economic development and integration of UAE into the wider global community (Troudi, 2009).

In an insightful study outlining the challenges of learning through EMI, Durham and Palubski (2007, p.86) point out that the cognitive load of learning through this approach can be overwhelming for UAE learners, as they must surmount not only the difficulty of learning content through English but also get used to a learner-centered pedagogy and get accustomed to self-regulating their learning. Culturally and linguistically, these adjustments require a number of shifts in the traditional pedagogy and language of the learners, hence the extensiveness of their struggle in learning through EMI.

Another ramification of the UAE EMI policy is that English can lead to the disprivilging of less EFL-competent teachers and learners alike, thus creating a situation where opportunities to learn English, exposure and familial attitude to developing EFL competence may determine the progress Emiratis make in their teaching, learning and professional contexts alike. This is reinforced especially by the emphasis on native-like competence in English, which is believed by stakeholders to be possible only through exposure to teaching by native-speakers (King, 2014). This
is a view that complicates an already very complex situation, adding to the dynamics of the EMI equation by creating a form of self-marginalisation. As Kumaravidevulu (2003, p.548) points out this kind of self-marginalization by policy makers, teacher trainers and practitioners is reflected in a number of periphery English language teaching communities in a number of ways. These include preferring native-speaker candidates over non-native speakers for job openings and idealization of the native-speaker teachers by non-native speaker colleagues, whereby through the “uncritical acceptance of the native speaker dominance” (ibid) non-native teaching professionals end up sanctioning their own marginalization.

In view of these caveats and the concerns identified in literature, Troudi (2009) goes so far as to challenge the need for EMI, contending that socio-linguistic dynamics existing in the UAE and the position occupied by English serve against the rationale for implementing English as a medium of instruction. At the heart of Troudi’s argument is the idea that as a periphery nation, UAE does not need to promote native like competence in English amongst Emirati learners, which objective is what seems to be driving curricular reforms in the country. His skepticism as to the value of using EMI in the UAE is also justified on account of the scantiness of literature, which supports the pedagogical benefits of using a foreign language to teach content.

2.5 Conclusion of Chapter Two

It is within this context that the current study has been conducted. Several monolingual and bilingual teachers and students, with comparable backgrounds, language, traditions and education were selected as the main participants in this inquiry into teacher understanding of and attitudes towards the CLIL curricula and teacher motivation vis-à-vis CLIL implementation. Student perspectives were integrated to provide insights into the CLIL learning experience as shaped by the instructional practices of CLIL teachers. The next two chapters will look at some of the literature and theoretical constructs relevant to the current research.
Chapter Three: Literature Review

3.0 Introduction to Chapter Three

Chapter Three consists of a brief critical overview of field literature that has informed the study to date. Several key areas of literature are reviewed: (i) CLIL, (ii) teacher cognition, (iii) and learner and teacher motivation. Understanding the philosophy and development of CLIL is key to understanding why it is considered valuable for effective foreign language learning. Reviewing the literature on teacher thinking helped to explain how teachers theorise their practice and the beliefs and the values they hold with respect to teaching. Consideration of key notions such as reflectivity, Communities of Practice, ZPD and scaffolding helped to establish how CLIL implementation in the study context can benefit from the use of strategies based on these concepts by the teachers. Motivational research related to learners and teachers contributed to a better understanding of how stakeholder motivation can influence curricular innovation implementation.

3.1 Content and Language Integrated Learning

3.1.1 Origins, Definitions and Critique of CLIL

From 1990s onwards, the impact of the European socio-economic integration and led to the need for proficiency in international languages (Hunt, 2011). Within Europe, there was continuous emphasis on learners leaving school to have developed communicative competence in their L1 and two community languages (Marsh, 2003). However, Marsh (2002, p.603 cited in Graaf et al, 2007) found that the gap existing between foreign language curriculum as well as outcomes with reference to language attainment by learners still had to be overcome. Hence, the European Commission developed an Action Plan promoting language proficiency and diversity to enable all European students to demonstrate fluency in two different European languages other than their L1, which came to be known as the “MT+2 formula” (Marsh, 2003 in Graaf et al. 2007).

It was expected that this would lead to shared understandings as well as a recognition of how diverse the European models were (Coyle, 2007, p.554) and to promote greater plurilingualism with a view to economic competitiveness at a global level (Graaf et al, 2007, p.603) Various practical methodologies for language teaching and learning were launched to promote language learning and improve language pedagogy (Marsh, 2003). These experiments emphasised parallel focus on meaning and form to encourage greater practice in the language amongst learners (Marsh, 2002). Baker (1993 cited in Graaf et al. 2007) and Genesee (1987 cited in Graaf et al. 2007) state that effective language learning required interaction based on authentic and meaningful input with functional efficacy. Thus, in providing extra opportunities for learners to have exposure to functional environment for language learning, a dual-focused learning environment was implemented (Marsh, 2005 cited in Graaf et al.
2007). The success of this approach to teaching and learning on a global scale propelled its adoption within European mainstream education (in Graaf et al. 2007). This approach came to be known as CLIL.

The European Network of Administrators, Researchers and Practitioners (EUROCLIC) adopted the term CLIL in 1990s (Coyle, 2008, p.2) to refer to the use of a foreign language to teach a content subject wherein the language and subject share a joint role (Marsh, 2002, p.58).

The adoption of this term positioned CLIL alongside the other approaches, for instance Content Based Instruction (CBI), Bilingual Teaching, Dual Language Programs, English Across the Curriculum, Bilingualer Sachfachunterricht (BiLi), Englisch als Arbeitssprache EAA, and others (Dalton-Puffer, 2007). Coyle (2007) explains that whilst there are many elements shared with such approaches, the uniqueness of CLIL lies in an integrated approach, wherein language teaching/learning, or content teaching/learning is equally prioritised.

The 2006 Eurydice Survey, *Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) at School in Europe*, analysed CLIL programmes across 30 different European countries, finding that terminology varied according to the emphasis placed on the subject or the CLIL language (Lasagabaster, 2008). Grin (2005), indicates that there are over 200 CLIL-led programmes varying according to age, linguistic levels, duration, compulsory status and intensity (Coyle, 2007). Clegg (2003) distinguishes between CLIL wherein the focus is on language development and CLIL wherein the focus is on the subject by outlining fourteen criteria for profiling the type of CLIL used in a programme (Coyle, 2007, p. 545). She claims that these criteria must be taken into account before making any judgment about different CLIL models (Coyle, 2007).

In the CLIL Compendium, the European models are characterised according to where they are located according to the choice of language, learner age and level of proficiency (Coyle, 2007, p.546). The compendium also identified five important dimensions related to culture and environment in addition to others within CLIL as implemented in Europe. Each of these dimensions is considered in relation to three the age of the learners, social and linguistic environment, and familiarity with CLIL (Pinkly, 2010). These dimensions lead to a diverse range of CLIL programmes. Nikula (1997) stresses that the sociocultural settings and educational policies in each country affect the way CLIL is realised. Thus, there is no single blueprint for this approach to teaching, open to application in different contexts (Nikula, 1997). Coyle (2002, p.546) notes that CLIL, which emerged as a way to address the complex cultural and linguistic ecologies confronting European communities locally and globally, is pivotal to accommodating such diversity of forms. Coyle (2008) asserts that such flexibility can be considered both positively and negatively. The strength of CLIL focuses on
teaching content and language together (Coyle, 2007). However, he cautions that this needs to be aligned to clear aims and outcomes for the project (Coyle, 2007, p.546).

In the late 1990s, a variety of studies in CLIL contexts began to be published. Such studies established a quantitative evidence base for CLIL and classroom inquiry, demonstrating that in certain conditions and under specific settings, CLIL enhances learners’ risk-taking and confidence and develops their problem solving skills, improves their linguistic competence and vocabulary as well as grammatical awareness. It was also found that CLIL motivates learners and encourages their independence, develops their study skills and improves L1 literacy (Coyle, 2007 in Hunt, 2011).

Furthermore, Krashen (cited in Hunt, 2011) noted that learners acquire language more naturally through immersion entailed in learning content and language together (Hunt, 2011). Researchers such as Hood and Tobutt (2009) have come to believe that CLIL helps to promote natural language use amongst learners rather than restricting them to word-level usage and rudimentary topics (Hunt, 2011, p.367).

3.2 The 4Cs Conceptual Framework

While CLIL has been adopted in many contexts, Coyle (2007) finds that CLIL pedagogies lack cohesion and that content pedagogies are being systematically ignored (Bentner, 2009). Instead, diverse models have given rise to multiple methods as well as curriculum organization that respond to scholastic contexts in different countries. Yet for CLIL potential to be realized, Coyle (2008) contends that beyond the practical implications of integrating content and foreign language learning, there are certain theoretical principles of CLIL on which classroom practice must be built.

According to Otten (1993 in Coyle 2007, p.549), a content-led methodology entails a focus on the student, explicating language and content learning, delineating skills related to the subject, thereby making it possible for the learners to close the gap between their conceptual and cognitive abilities and linguistic levels. Swain (1998 in Coyle 2007 p.549) argues that good content teaching does not necessarily approximate to effective language teaching. In fact, in order to be effective content teaching must enable learners to understand the relationship between language form and meaning in subject being taught. The integration of all these elements needs to be monitored carefully.

Influenced by earlier research (e.g. Mohan and his Knowledge Framework,1986), Coyle (1999) developed the “4Cs Conceptual Framework” aimed at providing a sound theoretical and methodological foundation for amalgamating different aspects of CLIL to develop CLIL pedagogies (Coyle, Hood & Marsh, 2010). The framework does not treat subject-matter and language as discrete. Instead it envisions content as part of the ‘knowledge for learning’ domain and language as a medium for learning. The first consists of the integration of content and thinking and the second,

The 4Cs framework suggests that effective CLIL occurs when there is advancement in content knowledge, abilities and comprehension and evolution of cognitive skills as well as interaction. This pivots on using the language as a tool for learning while embedding language use in a communicative context and enhancing awareness of other cultures (Coyle, 2008). This conceptualisation brings together theories of learning and language as well as of intercultural understanding.

This framework is built on the following principles (as cited in Coyle, 2007);

(1) Subject matter is more than the sum of language or skills. Rather it is about learners’ construction of suitable knowledge as well as needed skills.

(2) Learning as well as thinking play an important role in helping learners to acquire subject matter knowledge and gain skills in addition to comprehension. As subject matter is conveyed through language, it entails linguistic demands upon the learner’s understanding, which CLIL can help to analyse and make accessible for students so they can create their own understandings of the subject being studied (Met, 1998).

(3) The language demands of all thinking processes involved in what learners are studying must be analysed so that development can occur.

(4) Context is indispensable to effective language learning. Thus the pedagogy of teaching subject matter through rather than in another language calls for a focus on the pedagogy of subjects taught through CLIL.

(5) When interaction is made central to learning through writing and discussions, learners get the opportunity to internalise and appropriate the material, thereby proving the centrality of interaction to the learning.

(6) Language and culture have a complex reciprocity that signifies the embeddedness of intercultural understanding within the CLIL approach.

According to Barbero, Damascelli and Vittoz (2007, p.103), it is the principles outlined above, which transform CLIL into a powerful tool for effective language learning and content subject learning.
3.3 Cooperative Learning in CLIL Contexts

As discussed above, the pedagogy of integrating content with foreign language has drawn international interest and acclaim (Snow, Met & Genesee, 1989). It has been asserted that such integration is key to stimulating learner enthusiasm and thinking processes towards language learning. It is also noted that learning subject matter in this way serves to turn learning into a contextualised as well as meaningful activity, which stimulates and enthuses learners and provides them with the opportunity to expand their linguistic repertoire by formulating and posing questions in the new language (Casal, 2008). It is asserted that each time discipline-based texts are accessed, learners gain new knowledge about the English language as well as the content being studied (Casal, 2008, p.2). However, this integration of language and non-language content is not synonymous with success. There are other points that need to be heeded including careful and systematic planning, specification of language objectives and synchronization of language with content syllabus and/or instructors (Casal, 2008). Integration of curriculum for both language and content must take place in such a manner that objectives for both are realised simultaneously (Casal, 2008). According to Cummins (1994), the most important point that all CLIL teachers should bear in mind is that they are all teachers of content and language (Stoddart, 2002).

Such integration is not without its disadvantages. It has been criticised by many for being teacher-focused, with the teacher becoming entirely accountable for delivering input, which is comprehensible for learners (The Guardian Weekly, 2011). The findings of the study support this observation, as participating teachers discussed at length the intensification of their work in the course of teaching with the CLIL approach. Kinsella (1997) argues that when a second language is learnt through the delivery of content, lessons will more likely to be controlled by teachers wherein materials are excessively simplified and adjusted for the students. Kinsella argues that this stops learners from developing the skills to learn independently (Casal, 2008). In the case of the learners in the study, simplifications and adjustments made by the teachers led to a decrease in the opportunities to gain useful exposure to English through both language and content teaching.

Genesee (1994 cited in Casal, 2008)) and Dalton-Puffer (2007 cited in Casal, 2008) indicate that in classrooms where language and content are integrated, learners are not given enough opportunities to speak or engage in a discussion, thereby affecting their productive outcomes. Mewald (2004 cited in Casal, 2008)) asserts that in CLIL lessons i) learners do not use as much foreign language as expected, iii) the situations where learners use the target language are restricted and iii) creative use of language is negligible (Casal, 2008). These observations were also confirmed in the findings. The learners participating in the study made a point of noting that they were learning
little English as the CLIL teachers not only struggled with using English as an EMI but also reproduced the lesson plans provided by the programme coordinators so rigidly that there was little time or space for learner experimentation or creative language learning.

3.4 Adoption of CLIL in the UAE context

3.4.1 Rationale for using CLIL: The General Perspective from the International Literature

One of the key reasons for using CLIL is for learners to become proficient users of the language. As developing such proficiency is time consuming, more time can be allocated to the language if it becomes the medium for teaching content subjects (Giles, Jones and Norman, 1997 in Montet & Morgan 2001, p.5). Studying in an integrative context helps learners to become more competent in a foreign language. This in turn helps to make them better-prepared for employment or further education. We may therefore think of CLIL as a medium of instruction policy adopted in the UAE in an attempt to improve the overall quality of education and to produce a proficient workforce that can compete internationally. Drawing upon Tollefson and Tsui (2004), Baker (2013, p.283) notes that within UAE “the position concerning English acquisition, is a progressive politico-pragmatic one that embraces a “discourse of opportunity”’. However, such an outlook is seen to be problematic because, as Phillipson (1992, p.8) argues “in language pedagogy, the connections between the English language and political, economic and military power are seldom pursued” and “in professional English teaching circles, English tends to be regarded as an incontrovertible boon, as does language policy and pedagogy emanating from Britain and the USA”. Phillipson also suggests that the discourse, which legitimates English as a force for catalysing progress as well as prosperity has proven so persuasive that it has led to the internalization of these ideas “by the dominated, even though they are not objectively in their interest” (1992, p.8). According to Phillipson (1992, p.47), this represents linguistic imperialism, which can be defined as “the dominance asserted and maintained by the establishment and continuous reconstitution of structural and cultural inequalities between English and other languages".

In view of the above, adopting English as a medium of instruction within the UAE is likely to entail many ramifications, and in order to understand the dynamics of CLIL implementation in UAE, there is a need for it to be discussed within a wider framework of language of education policy. As key contributors to research in the area of language of education policy, Tollefson and Tsui (2008, p.3) observe that not only does the language chosen as a medium of instruction (MoI) serve to maintain and revive a language and its culture but also, according to Fishman & Fishman.
(2000) it helps to transmit it across the generations. The importance of the medium of
instruction means that it can frequently be the instrument for what Skutnabb-Kangas
(2000, 2002 in Tollefson and Tsui, 2008, p.3) positions as the annihilation of the
language the MoI replaces. Tollefson and Tsui problematise the choice of MoI by
observing that the MoI policy can determine access of social as well as linguistic
groups to political and economic development, thereby serving as the means to the
distribution and redistribution of power and social construction and reconstruction.
The interesting point Tollefson and Tsui make in conclusion to these observations is
that the MoI policy being integral to educational policy tends to be linked to debates
related to educational effectiveness, thereby allowing policymakers to advance
educational agendas promoting/prohibiting specific language(s) in line with the
hidden vested interests of dominant groups. In the words of Tollefson and Tsui (2008,
p.3), this gives rise to the need “when examining medium-of-instruction policy issues,
to ask and address the questions, “Which Agenda? Whose Agenda?”. The scenario outlined by Tollefson and Tsui is similar to that found in the UAE,
where English as a medium of instruction (EMI) via CLIL is being promoted as being
pivotal to catalysing socio-economic development. Building up the context to his
study on EMI in higher education in UAE, McLaren (2011, p.10) points out that EMI
“is not necessarily the one and only, or even the most obvious, option for countries
coming to grips with rapid modernisation and the challenges of globalization”,
reinforcing the ideas advanced by Tollefson and Tsui (2008) that such language
policies operate under the impetus of complex political and economic agendas. This is
well-explicated in an insightful article by Sohail Karmani (2005, p.87) who
establishes in his review of literature that there is an emergent nexus between “the
dynamics of oil with the spread of English in the Arabian Gulf region. Karmani
contends that not only does this nexus allow for the spread of English
“disproportionately serv[ing] the economic interests of the English-speaking nations
of the West” but also accommodates the pacification of Islam so that greater
compliance with Western interests can be achieved at the expense of the religion
itself.

In a book which explores the connection amongst ideology, politics and language
policies with a focus on English, Ricento (2000, p.7) drives home the point that
“language policies can never be properly understood or analyzed as free-standing
documents or practices” and “to ignore the role of ideology, or to relegate it to a bin
of ‘extraneous’ variables...is to engage in ideological subterfuge of the worst sort”
(emphasis mine). While it is important to bear in mind the caveats advanced by
Ricento and to consider the ideological ramifications of the MoI policy adopted in the
UAE, it is also important to weigh these against the growing dominance of English in
the wake of globalization. As Spolsky (2004, p.220) suggests that changes have:

*taken place in the world in the last few decades as a result of globalization,
[prompting thereby] the consequent tidal wave of English that is moving into*
almost every sociolinguistic repertoire. Associated with it is the instrumental value of gaining access to an economically advantageous network by developing proficiency in the language of widest communication. In the last few decades, this force has multiplied in effect and narrowed in language choice, so that currently most societies feeling the effects of globalization are also moving rapidly to acquire greater proficiency in the global language, English.

With English as MoI having become a reality in the form of CLIL implementation, it may now be difficult to resist the “discourse of opportunity” (Baker, 2013) that surrounds the adoption of English in the UAE educational context. However, what may be sought is an appropriation of CLIL attained by a focus on Emiratization of curriculum design, teaching, assessment and teacher development that can in time do away with the need for reliance on native speakers of English as instructional leaders, teacher development specialists and curriculum consultants and experts. By exploring the attitudes of Emirati teachers and students towards CLIL implementation, a study such as the current inquiry can contribute to a better understanding of how curricular innovation is experienced by the stakeholders.

3.4.2 Rationale for CLIL: The SLA Perspective

Under the CLIL approach, L1 and L2 acquisition is connected, resting on the assumption that both languages make use of the identical mechanism of a Central Processing System and common mental processes (Cummins, 1980, 1981 in Montet & Morgan, 2001).

Cummins’ (1979) hypothesis relies on an ‘iceberg’ model. This model assumes that both languages represent two different peaks on the surface, but that below the surface both are supported by common mental processes (Istvan & Papp, 2009). Cummins contends that whatever we learn in L1 is more readily accessed through the L2 (Haynes, 2007, p.22). That is to say that learners’ academic competence in L2 and in L1 converge so that as learners learn a second language, they are also enhancing proficiencies that could be utilised in the primary language-learning context. The idea of a common base could also be related to the Chomskyan ideas of Universal Grammar, wherein universal principles apply (Montet & Morgan, 2001). Klapper (1996 in Montet & Morgan, 2001, p.4) explains Cummins’ ideas as signifying that no matter which language is used, the same mental activity informs linguistic performance, thereby allowing learners to develop needed proficiency in any language whenever adequate exposure is provided.

According to Montet & Morgan (2001), the CLIL experience is a first step for the learner to feel what it is to have a different language at home and a different language at school. The theorist Krashen (1982), although subsequently criticised (see McLaughlin, 1987; Mitchell and Myles, 1998; Brown, 2000), advanced the
concept of acquiring second languages through increasing exposure in the form of foreign language ‘comprehensible input’ (Ponniah, 2008). Krashen notes that the only way human beings acquire language is by deciphering messages or getting input. He expresses this as moving from the current level i, to \( i + 1 \), which pivots upon receiving and understanding input containing \( i + 1 \) (Ellis, 1997, p.101). A CLIL context is receptive to such input.

Using a second language as a medium of instruction has been well-supported in literature by a number of researchers including Cook (1992), Dornyei (1995), Johnson and Swain (1997) amongst others. It is believed that through this approach, learners develop enhanced metalinguistic abilities, improved mental flexibility and better fluency and interactional skills, as well as strategic and lexical abilities (Morgan, 2006). Canadian studies show that bilingual learners exhibit stronger metalinguistic awareness and abilities (Montet & Morgan, 2001), entailing the capacity to think in a flexible and abstract manner about language (Lee, 1997, p.505). For adults, such awareness can be observed in rule-based controlled language tasks such as poetry. In young learners, those with more metalinguistic ability make better judgments about sentence grammar and enjoy word play. It is theorised that while the ability is common to both monolingual and bilingual learners, the experience of being bilingual acclimatises the learner to exert greater control over mental processes (Lee, 1997).

3.4.3 The Theoretical Basis of CLIL

Before discussing the theoretical basis of CLIL, it is important to highlight the differences and overlaps between Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) and English as Medium of Instruction (EMI) as the two terms are sometimes conflated as if no distinction exists. This leads to confusion over whether it is EMI or CLIL being implemented in the Emirati school context. Most importantly, clarity over the differences and overlaps will enable a clearer understanding of what this thesis focuses on specifically. Dearden (2015, p.2) defines EMI as “the use of the English language to teach academic subjects (other than English itself) in countries or jurisdictions in which the majority of the population’s first language is not English”. (Dearden, 2015). Insofar as the description is concerned, this would seem to apply to the case of the medium of instruction policy delivered in the form of the CLIL approach for selected subjects in the Emirati educational context. However, as Dearden (2017, paras. 7-9) observes a number of key differences do exist between CLIL and EMI. Firstly, CLIL tends to be used at the levels of primary and secondary schooling and involves instruction through any foreign or second language whereas EMI entails delivering instruction through English specifically. Secondly, although in both CLIL and EMI, a subject is taught through EMI, the aim of the lesson or lecture is distinguishable. In CLIL contexts, the objective involves a dual focus on teaching the language as well as the subject content, whereas EMI, which tends to be used in tertiary contexts, involves teachers teaching a subject through the English language but not the language itself (emphasis mine).
Hence, this thesis focuses on CLIL, the key premise of which, is to integrate language teaching with content teaching. Two main assumptions underlying CLIL are that content can be learnt through a second language and that learners acquire this language more effectively if they receive greater linguistic exposure to the L2. In other words, extensive exposure to the foreign language is fundamental to becoming proficient in it. However, this position is different from Krashen’s who argues that both learning a foreign language and acquiring the L1 are equal, and that producing foreign language is the spontaneous result of exposure to what he calls “comprehensible input”. (Krashen, 1985 in Montet & Morgan, 2001, p.5). Hence, exposure becomes a prerequisite for effective foreign language learning. However, as mentioned above, Krashen’s “input hypothesis” (1985) has been widely disputed and critiqued. According to the critics (e.g. Doughty and Williams, 1998) current approaches to teaching require a much greater focus on form (Montet & Morgan, 2001). According to these researchers, CLIL should be considered as “complementing accompanying form-focused programs” (Montet & Morgan, 2001, p.5).

Even experts in the immersion programmes in Canada are now claiming that formal instruction is a crucial dimension (Montet & Morgan, 2001). Other hypotheses of value to the CLIL context have been formulated. An example is Merrill Swain’s ‘comprehensible output hypotheses’ (1999), which argues that opportunities for language output (production) and practice have to be created for oral and written proficiency with emphasis on linguistic exactitude (Montet & Morgan, 2001). Further effort requires useful feedback to the learners to encourage them. Gass and Selinker (1994) have advanced the notion of ‘intake’, outlining the phases occurring between exposure to input and internalization. They declare that learners need to internalise the input (vocabulary, grammar and expressions) before meaningful output is possible (Gass & Selinker, 2008). To promote internalisation, teachers have to make sure that input is “taken in”, which entails that it should be recognised and comprehended by the learners (Coyle, 2007).

Long’s (1996) Interaction Hypothesis focuses on interaction, which involves negotiated meaning. Or it focuses on ‘learnability/ teachability. The latter is founded on a model of staged learning in which learners take in only what is suitable for that stage (Pienemann, 1989 cited in Montet & Morgan, 2001, p.6). In this hypothesis, the process of interaction engenders acquisition. For instance, when a communication breakdown is experienced, learners negotiate to understand or to be understood. Modifications allow the input to become coherent and useful feedback helps learners to change their output for the better.

**3.4.4 Critique of CLIL**

There have been many arguments about the impact of using CLIL on the learners’
first language. Authors such as Nikula and Marsh (1998) indicate that these consequences have still not been comprehensively studied. They assert that the amount of foreign/second language used in teaching is linked to the learners’ own language development (ibid). However, there has still not been any evidence yet, which would prove that using a nonnative language as a medium in teaching negatively affects the learners’ mother tongue (Makinen, 2010). This may be because the CLIL teachers support their students by providing the key terms of the subject in their mother tongue and the learners use support materials that are available in their own language (ibid). However, it is believed that extensive use of CLIL may lead to, for instance, learners using the foreign/second language grammar or sentence structure in their own language. According to Seikkula-Leino (2007), if any learner has difficulties with the development of his/her mother tongue or in concentration, then it is not rational for him/her to be in a CLIL classroom. Seikkula-Leino believes that linguistic factors are vital when moving learners from or to CLIL classrooms. However, there are other factors that must be considered as well, such as motivation and social abilities (Makinen, 2010).

A key concern when learning through CLIL is that learners may focus too much on the language than the content being taught. However, authors such as Mehisto et al (2008) found that CLIL teachers believed that learners in CLIL classes learnt the content being taught better than in non-CLIL classes. This was considered to be attributable to teaching methods, assistance and materials used in CLIL classes (ibid). Nevertheless, there are learners who have problems in coping with CLIL teaching and learning the content in particular. Those problems are due to a lack of motivation towards the content. In other words, this could be due to motivating the learners towards the language rather than the content. For instance, these could be family and peer wishes. However, there is no study to date that shows that content learning in CLIL classes is or might be weaker than in non-CLIL classes.

Moreover, another assumption is related to student management in CLIL classrooms. It is well known that behavioral difficulties are an issue in bilingual education. These difficulties are believed to arise due to using a foreign language to teach other subjects in the curriculum. According to Cummins (1984), these behavioral difficulties occur when learners have cultural identity difficulties. In other words, these occur when learners’ native culture collides with the school culture (Makinen, 2010). These issues can result in behavioral difficulties. The home language may emerge as a source of difficulty and cause challenges in coping with the school language. Children who are in this situation may find themselves coping with a depressed and stressful home situation. This shows that CLIL learners face various difficulties that can influence their behavior at school. To sum up, it is crucial for CLIL teachers to familiarise themselves with their learners’ culture and home background. In the UAE, CLIL students might have trouble in coping with the second language taught, whether it is at home or at school.
Finally, the effectiveness of using CLIL in language and subject learning has been well-documented. There is no implication that CLIL learners with the difficulties mentioned above may be better than learners in non-CLIL classes as it is believed that learning in any language, whether first or second can be confusing (Hakulinen, 2009 as cited in Mäkinen, 2010). It is believed that there will be a noticeable decrease of the number of CLIL classes within the few coming years. He claims that the cause for this might be a result of poor resources and teaching materials or lack thereof (ibid). Therefore, there must be more awareness and research on CLIL and its methodology (ibid). It is believed that in every class, whether it is CLIL or non-CLIL, there are weaker learners than others, but that must not be a counter-argument against CLIL teaching.

3.5 New Imperatives in the Knowledge-based Economy

The new knowledge-based economy has created a need for citizens and workers to acquire broader knowledge and more sophisticated skills to thrive within the economic system (Alred et al, 1998. p.308). Subsequently, the role of the effective teacher and effective teaching have acquired greater significance in view of the greater demands on learners in contemporary society (Darling-Hammond, 2006, p.300). The centrality of teachers to student achievement and satisfactory learner outcomes has been noted in research (Goldrick, 2009: 1; Williams et al, 2004: 1 & 19; Hirsch et al, 2006: vii; Freeman, 2001: 608; Wong et al, 2005; Darling-Hammond, 2006: 300; Darling-Hammond, 2000; Rowe, 2004).

However, in view of the fact that new curricular demands and shifts in pedagogies create the need for teachers to acquire newer skills and understandings on a regular basis, there is a need for constant training and upskilling to ensure teacher quality. For instance, in the current scenario, the current circumstances of CLIL implementation can be described in the following way. It is widely known that MAG teachers have been transitioned to a programme with unfamiliar theoretical underpinnings, epistemologies, pedagogy, materials and assessment with the added burden of teaching content through English as medium of instruction (EMI). Additionally, such teachers themselves lack learning or teaching experience of EMI, thereby creating the prospect of a substantial struggle with comprehending even the support materials provided to help them design activities and implement key principles of CLIL. The lack of prior training for these teachers has compounded this situation. Given that it is unlikely for the flailing CLIL programme to be rolled back or massive retraining of teachers to be undertaken, it may be important to consider how existing CLIL teachers may be supported as they continue to teach and implement the programme.

The study contends that teacher beliefs as well as their conceptualisations influence teacher implementation of CLIL and even their motivation towards the MAG
programme. Hence, it is important to consider how teachers may unpack their beliefs and notions of epistemologies, which may be contradicting those contained with the CLIL programme. One key construct in this regard is the notion of reflectivity. Practitioner reflectivity, or examination of one’s practice, is an important way of unpacking what one believes and analyzing this with reference to ongoing practice. Enabling practitioners with limited exposure and training can also help them. The next section will discuss the construct of reflectivity, which has become a major part of literature on teacher development, due to its developmental practitioner-led focus.

3.6 Practitioner Reflectivity

According to Vaughn, reflective practice does not just represent a set of activities that encourage reflectivity; indeed, it also represents a way of thinking or state of mind as well (1990, p. ix). This means that teachers shift from making pedagogical decisions on autopilot or resorting to pedagogical troubleshooting to actually thinking about what choices they are making and how their beliefs play into their practices. Ideally, such reflectivity should be followed by positive change in teacher practice or strengthening of areas that are already strong. In recent decades, the concept of reflectivity has become very popular within professional and practitioner development literature, with Day (1999) noting that sustained individual and system-oriented improvement within educational settings cannot be realised unless and until teachers are involved in reflective practice collaborations, which demonstrate the interconnectivity between practice, improvement and change. A true teaching professional is one who sets himself or herself upon a career trajectory that includes the encouragement, fostering and rewarding of continuous professional growth linking back to classroom practices (Barker et al, 1997). The tendency to indulge in “mechanical problem solving” rather than “genuine reflective action”, which presently characterises contexts like the one under study offers little hope for the successful implementation of an education innovation like CLIL (Zeichner, 1981, p. 6)

Earlier views of teaching were skill-led, overly technical and simplistic in nature. With the emergence of thinking that positioned teaching as a complex, situation-specific process with ongoing challenges, the conceptualisation of professional knowledge experienced a sea change. In this regard, teachers’ own interpretations of their classroom experiences began to be considered very influential (Sparks-Langer & Colton, 1991: 37). This shift in thought has great implications for what this study set out to examine, namely teacher beliefs and epistemologies and their impact on how practitioners implemented CLIL in the MAG schools.

Within the educational arena, the key concepts of reflection have emerged from the theorisations offered by Dewey, Van Maanen as well as Schon. The idea of practitioners as dynamic, evolving and reflective professionals can be traced back to
Dewey (1933 in Copeland et al, 1993, p. 347). Considering the key objective of education to be linked to the complete transformation of the person in the moral, intellectual as well as social sense, Dewey (1933; 1938 cited in York-Barr, 2006. p. 5-6) posited the centrality of individuals’ interactions with their surrounding contexts. According to Dewey, reflective thinking is a matter of systematically and scientifically describing experience, positing hypotheses and articulating puzzles arising from experience and acting intelligently to address the hypothesis generated. In parallel with this, Van Manen (1977 in York-Barr, 2006) has suggested reflectivity in terms of a three tiered categorization including the following: technical reflection, which encompasses skills and methods used to accomplish predetermined goals; practical reflection, which probes the underlying assumptions of means by which the goals were achieved and impact on learners; and critical reflection, which inquires into the moral, ethical, and equity aspects of practice connecting such reflection within a wider context. This conceptualisation was also enriched by “pathic” elements of teacher praxis influencing effectiveness.

Donald Schon (1983, p.68-69) is another key thinker within the literature on reflectivity. His key contributions have included an emphasis on context and experiential knowledge. He contends that when individuals reflect during the process of taking an action, they become researchers in praxis, thereby losing their dependence on theories and techniques and becoming more adept at coping with uncertain or unique situations, to which existing theories may not offer solutions.

It was found in the study that CLIL teachers faced many uncertainties in their practice due to the implementation of the CLIL approach. Poor understanding of CLIL and institutional demands to apply the approach led to a contestation between teachers’ theories of teaching and learning. Hence, the CLIL teachers in the study context stand to benefit from developing such reflectivity, for CLIL implementation involves situations where their established theories are in the process of being challenged, thereby creating the need for these practitioners to become researchers of their own practice. This requires them to reflect on their practice and think about their pedagogical beliefs, actions and choices.

Established teacher knowledge cannot help in such cases, for the nature of the challenges is unique and situation specific. Therefore, reflectivity, such as that suggested by Schon, is an important way to negotiate the schism that separates the knowledge they have and needed competencies for implementing the innovation effectively. Such reflectivity, which requires higher order thinking makes practitioners autonomous and independent, thereby allowing them to transform their practice without having to continuously rely on training. Schon also distinguishes between reflection-in-action, which involves observing one’s own thinking and action as they are occurring, and carry out on the spot
adjustments and reflection-on-action, which involves retrospection upon an experience or action thereby shaping future action. Teacher knowledge can be built up in a variety of ways. These can include practitioners reflecting on their own teaching, inquiring into their own practice, working with peers for critical feedback and mentoring and networking with other teachers through different forums.

Reflectivity is very much in line with the constructivist educational philosophy, which embodies many of the principles at the heart of CLIL. Hence, CLIL’s emphasis on teacher-learner, learner-learner interaction and learning, which focuses on co-construction of meaning requires teachers and learners to develop reflectivity.

Before reflectivity emerged as an important concept in the education and training of teachers, the dominant perspective of teacher knowledge and practice was that of technical rationality, which focused on mechanistic and formulaic problem-solving and troubleshooting. This perspective did not accommodate teachers’ need to address challenges thrown up by what Schon referred to as ‘divergent’ situations in practice (Schon, 1983, p.39, 21 & 49). This view restricted the teachers to applying accepted theories and techniques irrespective of the requirements of the challenges. Thus, teachers lacked the ability to inquire into the puzzle and formulate their own responses limited practitioners to applying established theory and technique across cases and restricted the development of their abilities to reflect on and form their own responses to the situations. In the case of CLIL teachers, the lack of familiarity with CLIL philosophy and approach and support materials developed for dissimilar contexts hamper them for understanding the requirements of the approach and applying them effectively in their own contexts.

While there are many types and forms of reflectivity, it is agreed that no single form is more effective than others, with researchers (Day, 1999) indicating that these different manifestations should be thought of as a continuum rather than hierarchy. Although individual, purposive reflection is seen as a good way to becoming an effective teacher, it is held that there are limits to what one can discover from one’s own practice, which can also be a lonely exercise. Instead, it is suggested that teachers need to engage in collaborative reflection arising from peer networks and partnerships. Given the collectivist culture of the UAE context, the CLIL teachers may indeed benefit from collaborative reflection affected in a communities of practice setting discussed later.

3.6.1 What is Reflection?

Reflection has been described in many ways, from a critical and inquiry led outlook and focus on discovery as well as analysis (Knight,1996, p.165) to deliberate reflection about action which has been taken so improvement can be brought about.
Reflection is also about generating inquiry-based professional knowledge as to one’s teaching practice or influential factors to do with the curriculum, institution and ideology (Marcos et al, 2009, p.194-95).

In a nutshell, Reflection is about considering past, current and future decisions, actions, processes and events and involves comparing, considering alternatives, viewing things from different perspectives and drawing inferences (Jordan & Messner, 2009, p.466). Inherent to reflection is the view that it offers sustainable development of teacher thought and practice, especially helping practitioners whose work involves spontaneous assessment, revision and activities to facilitate learning, as in the case of CLIL teachers who must meet the demands not only of curricula, lesson plans but also learner generated queries and gaps in understanding.

This brings us to the consideration of another important construct of substantial relevance to teacher development. Within literature, there is strong support for the creating of space for shared, collective reflection within organization, namely, that which is carried out within a ‘community of practice’. It is held that for reflection to say something about the learning process of practitioners, there must be a collaborative element involving other people. However, this is incumbent upon how connected, safe and passionate groups feel when reflecting together. Within a context such as that of this study, the fear of being penalized for expressing uncertainty or admitting to being challenged as well as the cultural aspect of keeping ‘face’ might deter practitioners from convening in any community that is facilitated by the authorities. In such cases, it is better to encourage communities already in existence. In the context being discussed, the findings showed that there were two communities of practice in existence, which had evolved around two contrasting notions. One community of teachers showed enthusiasm for CLIL and the other did not. Yet, both communities were observed to share insights on practice, strengthening effective practices within a framework guided by their shared beliefs. A better approach would be to get these communities to examine their beliefs and perceptions so that they do not base their development around the idea of being pro CLIL or pro traditional methodologies. This would enable the communities to evolve and mature and sustain themselves for the benefit of the participants and their practice.

The Communities of Practice framework is valued due to the fact that it provides, by design, opportunities for practitioner development on professional and personal levels through the exchange of information and experiences and for co-learning facilitates this. The opportunities to participate range from peripheral participation to full membership, and reflectivity appears to be an organic part of the community of practice.
For the CLIL practitioner to become reflective practitioners, they would have to develop the ability to problematise practice, query it and analyse with the aim not of mechanistic problem solving but rather of increasing knowledge and learning with transformative learning. Such knowledge can develop only when individuals follow a path of discovery or reinvention on their own and in collaboration with others, according to Freire (1993). In this way, CLIL teachers not only theorise their practice but also experience developmental learning via participation in the broader context of a professional community.

3.7 Community of Practice

This section discusses how a community of practice works on ground, and its potential for developing a social discipline of CLIL learning and teaching.

Community of practice (CoP) is inspired by social theories (Vygotsky, 1978, Lave, 1988). The term refers to a form of social learning wherein people who have a common interest collaboration over extended periods to exchange thoughts, notions, values as well as beliefs and methods to do things (Wenger, 1998). The participants of community of practice cooperatively decide on a target, the means to accomplish it and ways of measuring progress (MacDonald and Star, 2008). Practice is developed through solving problems, seeking knowledge, observing others’ practices, making new use of assets, coordinating and synergising, deliberating over developments, observing others, documenting knowledge and looking for gaps (Lave and Wenger, 1991). In other words, CoP refers to individuals who come together to accomplish mutual goals, which keeps them together. In the process, these participants develop and exchange knowledge, techniques and beliefs of their common meanings. They create a learning society that is driven by the evolving nature of the mutual cause/aim in hand (ibid).

Teachers in schools represent a community of practice. They share mutual educational objectives, values and ways of solving problems. They formally and informally gather to discuss, evaluate, develop and enhance their teaching techniques as well as resources. Within the CoP context, old members mentor the newcomers, providing them with a legitimate access to teaching in a way that would gradually move them from being peripheral to full participants. In other words, they get the guidance needed to move from observing, learning and assisting to conducting and planning lessons as lead teachers.

3.7.1 The Concept of Community of practice in Second Language Teaching

There are many benefits of community of practice that can be used to promote effective CLIL implementation. One of them is that it links individuals with mutual interests, values, knowledge and understanding, including those who do not have
regular contact with each other (McDermott, 2000). As Stewart (1996) describes it, CoPs create a space for members of a group to learn, while collaborating and exchanging ideas so as to teach one another (p. 2). This empowers teachers, allows them to get access to new experiences, knowledge and skills. It also empowers them to tackle educational problems that face them in a daily base. The positive atmosphere among the participants makes it easy for teachers to share and discuss those obstacles. The similar cause, beliefs and knowledge that the members share among each other are the reason. They do not have to hesitate or feel underestimated when asking for assistance or help. This helps teachers improve their teaching and problem solving techniques, and overcome their problems in no time. Discussing issues with each other helps in generating solutions and ideas that suit the situation in hand. Also, it helps in looking into those aspects of the problem that was ignored or messed by the help/information seeker.

Moreover, community of practice is significant when implementing new changes in schools. It helps teachers to build their knowledge and effectively cope with the innovation. Whither the teacher is with or against the innovation, the community of practice she/he decides to join will create a comfort zone that would prevent issues in relation to teaching, learning, self-esteem and performance. Every school has a community of practice. There often is more than a community of practice in a school. I was not surprised to find more than a community of practice in both of the schools. There were two communities of practice CLIL teachers, to which teachers affiliated themselves. One was forged around the idea that CLIL was a positive development and the other centered on a negative view of the CLIL methodology. It was not difficult to differentiate who belonged to which group. Each community had its own beliefs and attitudes towards CLIL. It was not difficult to notice the huge gap between the two communities. Teachers who are with CLIL would not discuss issues in relation to CLIL learning and teaching with the opposite community. Within these communities, members built a way to connect with each other through the same beliefs, thoughts and attitudes towards CLIL.

It is normal to find more than a community of practice when an innovation is implemented without a prior practice, training or needs analysis, in particular. When teachers are excluded from educational decision making processes, they tend to create communities that give them a sense of relief and comfort them. They need to believe that whether they are right or wrong, they would always have a backup and support, and would not have to face complications alone. When teachers create their community of practice, they get motivated, whether they are taking the right or the wrong side, and that is another benefit or the community of practice. It encourages teachers to work hard to fit in. In other words, they would generate ideas and plans that would be effective to prove their effectiveness within the community. Not using the new innovation would not stop them from delivering an effective learning and teaching experience to their students/peers. Also, it plays a primary role in helping to
develop teachers. This is seen as learning to implement knowledge by collaborating with fellow practitioners in a professional community. (Schlager and Fusco, 2004, p.4). In educational contexts, such as this one in hand, teacher collaboration is the main key to raising teacher performance, as the participants have the opportunity to obtain new knowledge, explain their thoughts as well as beliefs, assess varying methods of conceptualising teaching and reflect on their own acts and decisions within practice (Rhodes & Beneicke, 2002).

Furthermore, it assists in constructing a sense of connectivity among the participants due to the communal cause that links them with each other. McDermott (2000) observes that candid conversational exchanges over real issues are what construct trust and connectivity amongst community members. In other words, as they subscribe to the same thoughts and practices, they develop common methods, objectives and experiences to accomplish things. This helped me obtain valid information from my participants, as their arguments and discussions were supported by mutual experiences and events that was witnessed and approved with each member of the community. The truthful and honest discussions they conducted during my data collection period helped me achieve my goals of the research. It has helped me study the teachers’ world from inside out. This was necessary, as I needed to learn about the teachers’ beliefs, thoughts, attitudes towards CLIL, and their reasons.

Moreover, community of practice can be used as an instrument to achieve an effective educational system. According to Lesser and Everest, CoPs ‘provide an important spark for innovation’ (2001, p.39) by sharing their experiences and ideas. Effective educational innovations cannot be established without an honest discussion with the community of practice that exists in schools. Teachers know their students and there needs better than any other member of the outer classroom zone. Those honest discussions and ideas with the communities of practice in schools is the most successful way to generate effective schooling system. Listening to both sides can help in countering the real issues and finding solutions better assist students and teachers’ needs.

In conclusion, using this concept helped to take a closer look at the participant teachers’ cognition, attitudes and experiences. It helped to better understand their attitudes towards CLIL, and examine their rational of using or not using CLIL. It was an excellent tool to gain valid and reliable data from the participants.

3.8 Sociocultural Theory
Sociocultural theory has influenced CLIL learning/teaching greatly. It is believed that teachers should have a clear understanding of this theory, ZPD and scaffolding in particular in order to succeed in effectively implementing CLIL in the classroom. The discussion below describes the reasons and the importance of using the sociocultural theory in CLIL classrooms. Additionally, relevance as well as
implications of this theory to CLIL teaching and learning are analysed.

Socio-cultural theory has its genesis in the theorisations of Vygotsky (1896-1934) wherein he locates the social context at the heart of the learning and interaction process. He suggests that one cannot comprehend human learning independently from the social and cultural forces that affect individuals, and that sociocultural interactions are crucial to learning (Barnard and Campbell, 2005). Human use various tools to learn and adjust their actions e.g. physical, psychological, cultural and language. In Vygotsky’s point of view, language is the most significant them all (ibid). Theoretical and social learning occurs through a Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD). ZPD is defined as the gap between the learners’ present developmental level and the level of potential development, which can be negotiated under the assistance of and collaboration of a more competent participant (Tryphon and Voneche, 1996). Thus, the contributors create the learning in a planned dialogue where the more proficient participant promotes the learning of the less proficient by constructing a scaffold in which the learner is allowed to develop from his current level of capability a higher level (ibid).

3.8.1 The Zone of Proximal Development
CLIL needs a solid theoretical background to be applied effectively. Therefore, when considering CLIL, it is crucial to study the Vygotskian notion of ZPD as it provides an effective setting for CLIL learning and teaching. The ZPD is known for recognising the significance of motivating learners to learn while providing them with assistance.

One of the techniques that helps in effective EFL learning involves referencing the learners’ personal experiences and interests. The reference to the learners’ own experiences and interests would lead to real world use of the foreign language they are learning, thereby allowing them to connect the content with their experiences or perspectives (Pauly et al., 2006, p.1). This can be seen in relation to Coyle’s (1999) 4Cs in CLIL, which include Content, communication, culture and cognition. With reference to cognition, teachers must ensure that their learners display cognitive engagement and encourage the learners to learn in and independent, discovery-based manner (Pauly et al., 2006). Learners’ independence is significant in CLIL mainly because learners do more self-regulated tasks under this approach than under conventional language learning approaches. Thus, promoting the use of metacognitive strategies and learner independence is a necessity for CLIL teachers (Coyle, 1999). This requires an awareness of the distance described in the construct of ZPD in terms of each learner (Pauly et al., 2006, p.1). Thus, when teaching CLIL, it is important for CLIL teachers to clearly understand ZPD and identify and implement it in practice. They need to understand that the key objective of teaching in the ZPD is to help students self-regulate their learning by becoming active learners and to become independent lifelong learners, which is one of the main elements of successful CLIL
teaching.

Referring to the zone as the distance between the aptitudes the learners displayed individually and those they developed with assistance of more capable others, Vygotsky theorised that this ‘zone’ was generated by learning (Morris, 2008). ZPD represented the gap between where a child presently resided and his/her potential for development. Unlike Piaget’s theory that declares that a child would only be influenced by society, Vygotsky sought to explain a child’s development through a ‘transformative collaborative practice’ containing cultural impacts, cultural tools, and other individuals (Zahi and Kim, 2009). As De Valenzuela (2006) accurately points out, cognitive development is not driven by biological sequences, but rather that it arises out of culturally and historically influenced interactions (as cited in Shabani et al, 2010, p. 238). In a nutshell, learning is central to the cognitive development of learners, and Vygotsky (1962) suggests that development cannot excised from social and cultural influences or settings.

The emphasis on this developmental learning, ZPD, is collaboration, which is crucial when teaching CLIL. To reach the ZPD, children require the assistance of adults or more competent individuals to scaffold their learning. This resonates with my own experience of L2 learning, where I have observed that learners learn better when assisted and guided by adults i.e. teachers, parents and classmates. Interactions with other people are essential for maximum cognitive development to occur.

Vygotsky’s ZPD defines aptitudes that are in the process of developing. It is the range of tasks that a child cannot yet accomplish individually without the assistance and guidance of a competent individual. He proposes that the level of assisted and guided performance within ZPD underlines the possibility for shaping behaviour and future development (Seelan, 2012). Cole& Cole (2001) indicate that the term ‘proximal’ indicate that the guidance provided by the experts must go somewhat above the learner’s existing capability, thereby enhancing their current aptitudes (Seelan, 2012). Vygotsky’s notion of ZPD provides the connection between education and growth.

Some authors such as Wertsch and Addison-Stone (1985 cited in Tryphon and Voneche, 1996) have commented that the notion of the ZPD is built on a more important notion, the general law of cultural development. Vygotsky (1981, p.163) defines this as “any function in the child’s cultural development” manifesting first on the “social plane” and then on the “psychological plane” (Vygotsky, 1981, p.163).

The general law of cultural development and ZPD alike reveal the valuable role that Vygotsky attributes to social collaboration and interaction in a child’s intellectual growth (Tryphon and Voneche, 1996). Certainly, to the extent that macro-genetic growth is concerned, “all superior psychological functions first manifest themselves
in inter-individual exchanges and only later become interiorized and part of the subject’s individual repertoire” (Tryphon and Voneche, 1996, p.174). To the extent that the ‘hic et nunc’ of micro-development is concerned, children’s enhanced performance throughout interaction with a more competent individual reveals their capacity to go beyond what they may do by their own, that is, in the absence of the support (ibid). The support of the expert peer, however, remains to be determined. For Vygotsky (1985), it involves putting suitable questions to the child, not only giving answers (ibid). As noted earlier, according to Vygotsky, ZPD could be used to ensure that education anticipated sociological development by teaching the learner to understand the next step in his or her learning. (Shabani et al., 2010, p.239).

3.8.2 Common Conceptions of the ZPD

As mentioned above, when teaching CLIL, CLIL teachers must understand ZPD and have the ability to put it in practice. They need to have an overall idea of the concept of ZPD and how to effectively apply it in their teaching.

The common conception of the ZPD, as can be seen from the above, presupposes collaboration between a less capable learner and a more capable other on a task so that the less capable learner independently tackles what was originally a collaborative activity (Vygotsky, 1981). Within this broad understanding, a triad of characteristics is stressed. According to Chaiklin (2003), the three characteristics together represent an ‘ideal type’ named ‘common interpretation’ of the ZPD named generality assumption, assistance assumption, and potential assumption.

The first assumption holds that a child has the capability to carry out certain activities on his own, while in collaboration, or possibly a greater number of activities. However, the tasks performed must be linked to the developmental levels (Chaiklin, 2003). The key point here is that ZPD must be related to development, but not with the development of capacity of any specific task.

The assistance assumption highlights how a more proficient adult must collaborate with a child. The concept of the ZPD often lays stress on the significance of more proficient assistance, which is a crucial component when teaching CLIL. Vygotsky believes that collaboration, guidance or any type of assistance from a more competent participant helps the learner to do more and solve more challenging tasks than he may do by his or her own (Vygotsky, 1981). The heart of the concept of the ZPD lies in viewing the learners as active participants in their own learning (Gerakopoulou, 2011). As Wells (1999) states that within ZPD, the child has to be seen as more than a passive recipient of adult expertise and that the adult does not simply showcase model
knowledge. Rather, the two work together to engage in problem-solving, sharing knowledge as well as responsibility for completing the activity successfully (Wells 1999, p.140).

Vygotsky states that awareness is built through a subject’s interactions and cooperation with others in the world (Verenikina, 2008). Social and cultural setting is part of the development that cannot be separated from each other. This as (ibid) claims lead to the notion that, mental processes can only be understood if the social collaboration and tools and signs that mediates them are understood. According to Wertsch (1985), this notion of mediation is Vygotsky’s most significant and unique contribution to understanding learners’ development (Verenikina, 2008). Therefore, teachers must fully comprehend the notion of teaching in the ZPD within the entirety of its theoretical context. Failure to do so would reduce ZPD to any other pedagogical technique in which the children’s learning progresses with adult assistance (Vialle, Verenikina, and Lysaght, 2005, p.61). Also, it would lead to misunderstanding the ZPD and interpretation it as a dimension over a learner’s creativity and activity (Vialle, Verenikina, and Lysaght, 2005).

The key objective of teaching through the ZPD is to help learners develop active engagement in their own learning and to become independent lifelong learners, which is one of the main elements of successful CLIL teaching. As in the ZPD, the teachers do not influence their learners directly, but by fashioning and shaping their social setting (Vialle, Verenikina, and Lysaght, 2005). According to Diaz, Neal & Amaya-Williams (1992), teachers must be critical when choosing their techniques when supporting their learners as these play a pivotal role while supporting learners’ in their learning and development as active and self-regulated learners (Scholnick, 1999). Therefore, when teaching in the ZPD, teachers should bear in mind they have to provide finely tuned assistance and indirect mediation of learner’s learning and comprehension.

The potential assumption is related to the learner’s capacity and willingness for learning (Chaiklin, 2003). This characteristic encourages that children’s learning can be assisted, if the appropriate identification of the ‘zone’ is carried out (Chaiklin, 2003). The potential for further learning is the strongest within this zone (Fabes & Martin, 2001, p. 42) as it represents the capacity for intellectual progression, which is not amenable to conventional measures of intelligence (LeFrancois, 2001, p. 587).

The common conception of the ZPD gives substance to the idealistic image of an experienced and intuitive teacher helping an enthusiastic learner master the content at hand (Chaiklin, 2003, p.3) whereas the reality is that ZPD can be challenging to implement, although the rewards, if it is implemented correctly, are immeasurable. While educational perfection is desirable, the objective of this study is to promote ZPD in CLIL teaching UAE so that CLIL pedagogy can be improved with
concomitant benefits for learners and teachers alike. Therefore, the above literature occupies an important place in this review.

ZPD has wide currency in current educational literature, with many benefits outlined in favour. Teachers can benefit a lot by considering Vygotsky’s ZPD in their teaching. According to Vygotsky (1980), ZPD provides psychologists and teachers with the framework for understanding how internal development occurs and enables teachers in particular to attend to the processes of maturation that have been completed but also those that are incipient (p.87). In addition, methods derived from the ZPD enhance learners’ construction by replacing passive absorption (Vygotsky, 1985). According to Noddings (1990), learners are constructing new learning via all actions and all experiences, even when it is as simple as notetaking or repeating the comments of their teachers. Therefore, when implementing the ZPD in the classroom, teachers have to be aware of the fact that it necessitates a move from the teacher-centered format to one that contains expert assistance and peer collaboration.

The Vygotskian theory proposes that language is the key tool for that mediates experience. It locates learning both beyond and within the learner, through collaborative interaction - especially with more competent participant, facilitated by language (Moate, 2011). In other words, the focus is more on interactive collaboration than innate intellectual abilities or individualized processes of learning. In Vygotsky’s point of view, the fundamental component of this comprehension of learning is that “thinking first occurs on the social plane, before becoming part of a learner’s psychological make-up” (Moate, 2011). From this viewpoint, the role of interactive verbal collaboration in the classroom is of dominant significance, especially in CLIL classrooms where, as mentioned above, sharing ideas and collaboration is essential. It enhances learning as well as progress in academics. As Goos, Galbraith and Benshaw (2003) note, collaboration helps learners to take responsibility for their own learning, a key feature of an effective educational community (p.95). A key component of Vygotsky’s concept is that when a learner exhibits competent thinking during the course of a collaborative activity, this performance must be absorbed by the learner for further use in subsequent individual activities (Tudge, 1992, p.1365).

Hence, a proficient learner may benefit in different ways, from the application of ZPD. I will be investigating the consequences and benefits of collaborating with participants ranging from those with equal competence, more competence to less competence. I believe that collaboration in CLIL classrooms is a key element that can enhance learners’ learning and academic growth.

3.8.3 Scaffolding in CLIL Classrooms

Within CLIL settings, scaffolding of learners is crucial, as they must develop the
ability to articulate complex ideas in a language other than their native tongue, thereby requiring a repertoire of academic skills. Thus scaffolding can serve as an important strategy to realise effective teaching in CLIL.

One feature of CLIL that is associated to the way that language learner is challenged in the classroom is its social nature. The learner’s “socialization is expressed through the practice of interaction between teacher and students” (Gerakopoulou, 2011, p.2). Carefully planned lessons, teaching and class activities as well as the assistance provided by teachers are considered necessary to accomplish interaction during the lesson. The methods and language approaches that the teachers implement to help their learners in order to enhance their cognitive and language aptitudes, expand their comprehension and become proficient and autonomous second language learners are all included in the concept of scaffolding. According to Gerakopoulou (2011) “learning that is retrieved through scaffolding and interaction and the role of the ‘reflective practitioner’ are considered basic concepts in CLIL education”. Therefore, it is imperative that CLIL teachers should understand scaffolding as they must enact dual classroom roles, namely to assist learners in comprehending content and to acquire language simultaneously.

The notion of ZPD has experienced expansion, adaptation and modification since the original conceptualization was put forward by Vygotsky. While Vygotsky made no mention of scaffolding as such, it is an idea that is linked to ZPD, being advanced by social-cultural theorists extrapolating ZPD to educational settings (Verenikina, 2011). Scaffolding involves the imparting of assistance by a more knowledgeable peer or teacher to a learner until the assistance needed to cover the distance in ZPD is negotiated. According to Nancy Balban, scaffolding can be accomplished by posing questions to and interacting positively with the learner (Culatta, 2011), and according to Wells, it is seen as the operationalization of ZPD (1999, p.127). Wells observed that scaffolding is characterized by three features, including the dialogic nature of the interactions and the discourse used to jointly construct knowledge, the importance of the activity within which the act of knowing is actualized and the artefacts, which help to mediate the acquisition of knowledge (Wells, 1999, p.127).

According to Mercer and Fisher (1993 cited in Wells, 1999) the key objective of scaffolding is to bring about the transfer of responsibility for accomplishing the task to the learner in the ZPD. They propose that, for successful scaffolding of, a teaching and learning event must allow the students are to perform a challenging task that they would be incapable of accomplishing on their own, thereby moving them towards independence in learning. In addition, there needs to be some substantiation of the benefit of the scaffolding experience in the form of learner proficiency (Wells, 1999, p. 221). Mercer and Fisher’s definition lays emphasis on the collaboration between the expert and the student being followed up by enhancement of knowledge as well as skill in the latter (Verenikina, 2011). Similarly, Donato (1994) maintains that in
academic contexts, scaffolding enables the teacher to model the anticipated task and then steadily transfer responsibility to the learners (Turuk, 2008). ZPD and scaffolding support each other both theoretically and syntactically (Swain et al., 2010). According to Wells (1999), scaffold is a “helpful verb to operationalize the meaning of a ZPD” (Swain et al., 2010, p.26). In co-construction of knowledge, guidance is given when necessary and in the quality and quantity required, and is then dismantled when the learner can mediate itself (Swain et al., 2010).

Some believe that scaffolding cannot occur without the classroom teacher, which I believe is not right, especially in CLIL classrooms. Student-student scaffolding can be powerful also as well as self-scaffolding (Park and Jang, 2008). Students can learn better sometimes when interacting with each other. Scaffolding, in my opinion, is a must when CLIL teaching. Scardamalia and Bereiter (1996) state that peer scaffolding facilitates learners in sharing knowledge and enhancing problem solving abilities. There are many authors that suggest the importance if peer-scaffolding. Werchadlo and Wollman Bonilla (1999), for example, highlight the importance of peer scaffolding. Lee and Choi (2006) also emphasize that peer scaffolding is an important element of learning. They studied the differences in the frequency and the techniques of scaffolding by a teacher group and a peer group. The outcomes illustrated that 86% of peer-scaffoldings were appropriate for successful problem solving.

There are several advantages of using scaffolding in CLIL classrooms. It serves to clearly direct learners, explicate the function of the activity while keeping the learners focused on the activity at hand as well as to help students identify key sources and to deal with task-related uncertainty without compromising on the momentum of the activity (McKenzie, 1999 in Turuk, 2008, p.252). Scaffolding engages learners in an active process of learning where teachers build on the knowledge the learners already have of a particular concept (Peters, 2012). This could lead to another advantage of scaffolding, which is motivation. This kind of engagement could help teachers in motivating learners and give them an urge to learn more. Also, it helps in minimizing learners’ level of frustration (Peters, 2012). In my teaching experience, I have found that some learners can be easily frustrated when learning. I have observed that scaffolding can be one of the most effective solutions that teachers can use to soothe those learners. It provides learners with assistance and structure until they individually accomplish the task (Searle, 2010).

However, scaffolding can be disadvantageous. It requires a great deal of energy as it necessitates time to learn the different ZPD in a class (Schmitz, 2008). It is not easy to keep in mind the requirements of all learners at a time. Losing track of a learner is possible. Moreover, scaffolding necessitates that the teacher gives up some of the control and let the learners to make mistakes, which, I consider, might be difficult for teachers to do. Also, it is time-consuming; teachers might not have enough to complete their entire scaffolding lesson (Peters, 2012). Teachers might become forced
to cut down the time allocated for each learner in order to accommodate all learners. This would cause frustration and could reduce learners’ urge to learn.

Daniels (2001) argues that a scaffold can be “interpreted as one-way act, that is, as an experience constructed by the expert alone, whereas the ZPD is constructed as a negotiated activity” (Turuk, 2008, p.26). It can be agreed with Stone (1998, p.349) that scaffolding leads to the imposing of structure upon students. Hence, the interaction in such cases could be dominated by the adult, thereby precipitating a return to conventional teacher-centered pedagogies (Turuk, 2008), which is not conducive to CLIL teaching.

Despite the enumerated disadvantages, scaffolding can positively influence CLIL learners’ learning and growth, with greater impact than the negative resonance of the drawbacks.

3.9 Teacher Cognition

This section will (a) explain what is meant by teacher understanding and attitudes, (b) discuss the impact of cognition on practice, and (c) explore the teacher cognition literature on English medium instruction / CLIL in particular.

Teacher cognition can be defined as the self-concepts and beliefs held by teachers about teaching and learning as well as pedagogical strategies implemented within classrooms (Kagan, 1990). Within literature, teacher cognition is a term that signifies practitioners’ knowledge and beliefs as well as their ways of thinking (Calderhead, 1996; Kagan, 1990). Much research has been carried out on how teachers do their planning through the exercise of approaches, evaluations and attitudes that are commonly linked to mastery of practice.

Under teacher cognition, theorisations exist, which differentiate between teacher beliefs and teacher knowledge (Calderhead, 1996; Richardson, 1996). However, the differentiation is rarely reflected in studies, or elsewhere. While definitions of perception and know-how can be found in literature, they diverge widely (e.g. Kane et al. 2002: Pajares, 1992). According to Pajares (1992, p.313), while teacher beliefs have yet to be conclusively defined, belief may be considered as being founded upon evaluation and judgment whereas knowledge rests upon objective facts. To exemplify this, the case of two teachers with similar know-how may be considered whose teaching methodology, however, differs starkly due to individual beliefs about teaching. In such a case, information about practitioners’ beliefs might be essential for anticipating the pedagogical choices that they make (Calderhead, 1986).

3.9.1 Teachers’ Beliefs
It has already been established that teacher beliefs are frequently conflated with teacher knowledge due to being a less-than-clear construct defined under confusing nomenclature and encompassing a host of terms such including attitudes, theories, perceptions and values (Pajares, 1992, p.309). In Clanindin and Connelly’s (1987) review of the provenance and meaning of such constructs, they discovered a similar plurality of terms ranging from what Pajares (1992, p.309) refers to as standards of teaching, personal theorizations and conceptions as well as the cornerstones of practice.

Beliefs have been variously defined. Ranging from experience-based mental constructs, which have been incorporated into concepts or schemata (Sigel, 1985) to a person’s own representation of reality (Harvey, 1986), beliefs may be descriptive, evaluative or prescriptive, according to Pajares (1992, p.314).

According to Kagan (1992, p.74), a practitioner’s professional knowledge-base resides in the instructional context, subject matter to be taught and his or her self, which relates to the personal belief system. This personal belief system is used to filter new information from different sources, which is then incorporated into the unique pedagogy of the teacher (p.75), which then governs teacher decision making, judgment and behaviour (Richards & Lockhart, 1994; Pajares, 1992). The sources of teacher beliefs include past experience as learner, for instance via the ‘apprenticeship of observation’ (Lortie, 1975) or teacher praxis, personality, educational principles, research and methodological principles (Richards & Lockhart, 1994).

Beliefs seem not only to have many nexuses but also multiple facets and have an impact on perception as well as behaviour (Mohamed, 2006, p.19). Although beliefs may exist in connection to other beliefs, they can be contradictory (Breen et al, 2001) as well as the source of wide variations within the belief systems of teachers who are otherwise committed to similar educational practices (Clark & Peterson, 1986).

Literature on teacher beliefs is vast, and the aim of this study was specifically to chart the territory broadly as a way to highlight on the centrality of teacher beliefs vis-à-vis effective curricular innovation. Within the scope of this study, it is adequate to sum up with reference to Buehl and Beck (2015, p.66) who capture the gist of the foregoing discussion by noting the key ideas to emerge from the review of teacher beliefs. Firstly, they acknowledge the breadth of literature by noting that teacher beliefs have been defined with varying emphases on their implicitness, explicitness, stability, situated or generalised nature and relationship to knowledge. They also highlight that irrespective of the variations in the nature of beliefs, these exist ‘within a complex, interconnected, and multidimensional system’. Buehl and Beck (2015) also note that these beliefs have multiple functions, which include filtering and interpreting information, framing a specific problem or task and guiding immediate action.
According to Fives and Gill (2015, p.1), the importance of teacher beliefs resides in their impact on practice. They note that when it comes to the day-to-day implementation of practice, teachers depend greatly on beliefs stemming from their sense of what is right and habits developed over time. In a way these beliefs can propel or obstruct practice by performing the function of a filter to direct the actions and decisions teachers undertake (Fives & Buehl, in press).

The next section will discuss the impact of teacher beliefs on practice, and more specifically in the case of this study, successful CLIL implementation.

### 3.9.2 Impact of Cognition on Practice

Reviewing teacher cognition was insightful for this study, as it helped in understanding the “unobservable cognitive dimensions of teaching”, namely the knowledge, beliefs and thoughts of teachers about teaching (Borg, 2003, p.81) and hence the relationship of these to what teachers did in the CLIL classroom. Language teachers are increasingly viewed as reflective decision makers with the ability to arrive at pedagogical choices by relying upon a complex and practical web of what they know, think and believe (ibid, p.81). Therefore, it is vital to comprehend their cognition and rationalizations behind these attitudes before seeking to implement any educational change or bring about any innovation to their teaching approaches. Diaz and Requejo (2008, p.152-153) have pointed out that in view of the strong influence of teacher beliefs on their behaviour and understanding, it is necessary to understand these as much as possible when attempting to improve teaching practices. They add that as such ideas are adopted early on and represent cultural concepts derived from the teachers’ own socio-cultural context, these can be difficult to change. This is an obvious constraint on implementing curricular innovation, especially when it comes to bilingual teachers whose ‘personal baggage, knowledge and concept of bilingualism’ (Diaz & Requejo, 2008, p.153) will be of great significance in acceptance and implementation of the change.

In view of the above, it was considered useful to review the role of teacher cognition in the effectiveness of CLIL implementation in the UAE context. The next section looks at learner and teacher motivation in the context of the implementation of curricular innovations.

### 3.10 Motivation in Second Language Teaching

Motivation is another important component in CLIL context. CLIL is a new innovation for the UAE schools; therefore, both teacher and student motivation towards CLIL is crucial to ensure quality CLIL outcomes. As innovations represent extra workload for both teachers and students, stakeholder motivation has to be high for curricular innovation to be implemented effectively. It was significant to this study to review motivation as motivation assists in understanding teachers’ and students’
attitudes better as well as in identifying strategies to overcome motivation related difficulties in the CLIL programme in UAE.

Motivation refers to why people do what they do or the reasons for their behaviour (Guay et al., 2010, p. 712). Motivation can be categorised into two key types, namely intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation is motivation, which is animated by means of private entertainment, interest, or delight. According to Deci et al. (1999) internal or intrinsic motivation enables individuals to show enthusiasm for activities, which give them satisfaction such as play or discovery or anything not governed by the conferral of external rewards (p. 658). Of the two types of motivation, intrinsic motivation is thought to be more desirable as it leads to the gaining of higher knowledge than extrinsic motivation alone (Deci et al., 1999).

Motivation is linked to people’s perceptions as well as their values and pursuits in addition to actions, which are closely associated components of this construct. Gottfried (1990) explains that instructional motivation is a form of motivation, which involves the use of mastery orientation so that practice is improved through discovery and persistence and self-improvement (p. 525). However, Turner (1995) believes that motivation corresponds to cognitive engagement, which he explains as mastering strategies that are self-regulated and consist of being attentive, planning as well as monitoring (p. 413). This discussion substantiates the need for attention to the motivation of the CLIL teachers who must be intrinsically and extrinsically motivated in order to help implement CLIL effectively in their classrooms. This can be addressed through the development of teacher repertoires so that they can identify and use appropriate strategies to cope with the challenges of implementing CLIL. It can also lead to considerations of the support they need to become more motivated in using the approach effectively.

Although the focus of this study is on teacher motivation, due to its close association with stakeholder commitment to curricular innovation, the next section will present an overview of learner motivation. This is because learners in the study context also represent important stakeholders, and it is important to look at what motivates or demotivates them.

3.10.2 Learner Motivation

This section evaluates literature on the motivation of standard-age learners. Research indicates that motivation becomes more differentiated within and across different subjects as learners grow older. Eccles & Wigfield (2002) point out that learners place a greater premium on activities in which they excel as they have a greater interest in studying subjects within which they can achieve highly. In a longitudinal study of learners’ motivation and achievement in reading and math, Gottfried (1990) found
that motivation to learn math could be anticipated by prior attainment in the subject and earlier interest. On revising the idea of differentiation in motivation literature, Guay et al. (2010), concluded that youngsters aged five to seven usually no longer differentiate between challenge areas, while children age eight–eleven are better at evaluating their strong and weak areas.

The foregoing discussion supports the possibility of motivating learners within the CLIL programme through a pedagogy that stimulates and challenges them and provides opportunities for improvement. At present, the evidence in the study suggests that the somewhat inexpert and inexact use of the CLIL approach by a majority of the teachers in the research context is leading to a situation where learner interest is not stimulated through interesting and interactive activities. This could also be attributable to the fact that the CLIL lessons, which are designed by the programme coordinators, are implemented very rigidly, without creating space for interaction or engagement.

3.10.3 Empirical Evidence on Fostering Motivation

The CLIL approach is a student-focused one, and the following discussion of empirical research on fostering motivation in young learners identifies how a learner-focused pedagogy can motivate CLIL learners. In a study carried out on structured skill-led classroom instruction versus child-centered instruction focusing on motivation and attainment, Stipeck et al (1995) found that learners in the child-centered setting performed better when evaluated against criteria of programme soundness and developmental suitability. In this study, classroom types were identified according to the independence exhibited by the learners, teacher empathy, the use of positive rather than negative reinforcement, focus on fundamental skills, pressure to perform and use of norm-referenced comparisons. The study also found that although learners in both types of classrooms enjoyed school, learners in the child-centered setting had more positive estimations of their abilities and higher expectations for attainment on specific tasks than their peers in the didactic classroom. Overall, the learners in the child-centered classroom were inclined to take up difficult tasks, be proud of what they were accomplishing academically and worry about academics less than children in the other type of classroom. Such research is helpful in identifying the impact of the type of programme implementation enacted by the teacher on the learners. This research shows that CLIL learners would be more motivated to learn if they learnt from teachers who were empathetic and fostered independent learning within a student-focused classroom.

3.10.4 Specific Academic Strategies

This section discusses the various strategies that can be used to foster learner
motivation. According to research (e.g. Deci et al., 1999; Guthrie, 2000; Hidi and Harackiewicz, 2000; Pintrich, 2003; Stipek, 1996; Turner, 1995, learner motivation can be supported in many ways. These include the judicious use of rewards, encouragement of learner independence and decision making, use of collaborative task accomplishment and study and the establishment of classroom environment conducive to programme objective accomplishment and evaluation. However, tangible rewards in the form of grades or privileges can negatively impact independent learning and interest in learning when compared against less tangible rewards such as teacher feedback. When rewards are conferred for participation or engagement but not for completion of the task or high attainment, this is likely to negatively influence younger learners than middle school learners.

Although praise or performance feedback can have a positive impact on learners, generic remarks such as “keep up the good work” can reduce intrinsic motivation, as it may be seen as controlling. Further, if learners are not interested in an activity or task or see it as a burden, even the use of extrinsic rewards is unlikely to motivate them (Deci et al., 1999). However, some researchers like Hidi and Harackiewicz (2000) contend that tangible rewards do not influence intrinsic motivation negatively. They hold that the question of motivating students through extrinsic or intrinsic rewards is linked to the duration and complexity of the activity. For protracted learning activities, intrinsic motivation and extrinsic rewards need to be combined, for instance in the form of overall performance remarks.

The context within which the rewards are conferred can also impact how they are perceived by the learners. When rewards are used to regulate individuals, they may end up weakening their sense of self-determination (Deci et al., 1999). In other cases, they may convey positive messages about learners’ competence. Drawing upon research by Deci, Nezlek et al (1981) and Koestner et al (1984), Deci et al. (1999, p.657) note that rewards can be made less controlling if those conferring the reward minimise the use of a peremptory and commanding style and tone, do not use the rewards to modify behaviour, provide choice as to how the task must be accomplished and highlight other motivating aspects of the activity.

Stipek (1996) notes that performance-related rewards can be seen as controlling or informational depending on the context wherein the reward is conferred. If a controlling remark is made at the time of giving the reward, learners’ intrinsic motivation is likely to be affected adversely. The impact of rewards on intrinsic motivation can also be influenced by other practices with negative ramifications, such as reminders of deadlines, surveillance and referrals to punitive measures, if the task is not accomplished adequately. Deci et al. (1999) advance the view that teachers can make use of spontaneous rewards on occasions without a negative impact on intrinsic motivation, although they caution that learners should not get accustomed to relying upon the conferral of such rewards on a regular basis. Another approach for
encouraging learners is to provide them with greater independence and autonomy (Guthrie, 2000; Pintrich, 2003; Turner, 1995). Hidi and Harackiewicz (2000) argue that giving learners more free choice over their learning can motivate them towards the task and lead them to form an enduring interest in the subject.

According to Turner (1995), when teachers allow learners to make decisions about the way they approach the tasks set to them, learners are likely to experience greater interest. Offering alternatives and options incline the learners towards exhibiting greater self-regulation in their learning behaviour. The findings suggest that in a bid to implement CLIL in all its surface aspects, CLIL teachers in the study context were focused more on controlling the classroom situation and applying CLIL, rather than promoting learner interest and autonomy. In other words, their efforts seem to be dedicated to applying CLIL to technical perfection but not to achieving its broader goals, which include changing the way learners learn through this pedagogical intervention so that they become autonomous in their learning. This is rather the case of the teachers failing to see the wood for the trees, or simply put, to focus on the means but not the outcomes. Revisiting Stipek et al. (1995) and their comparison of didactic instruction and child-centered instruction, it may be recalled that learners in the child-centered classroom evidenced not only higher self-evaluation of their abilities but also greater expectations of academic attainment. In addition, youngsters in self-directed studying packages took on more challenging tasks, showed pride in their educational achievements and less dependence on authority figures. They also experienced less tension in the academic settings than their peers in the didactic classroom. These effects show that instructional strategies, which lay emphasis on learner choice, can yield a powerful effect on learner motivation.

As Stipek (1996) notes, more motivated learners can be groomed if educational institutions devolve responsibility to learners for deciding when they will do the whole assignment and allow grade four students to use self-assessment and carry out self-charting of their progress, in addition to entering into “work contracts” at school encompassing negotiated cut-off dates and deliverables for long term work.

Guthrie (2000) suggests that learners should be allowed to decide upon the texts, which they will study as well as the topics they wish to pursue. Deciding the sequence of the activity, choosing peers to work with, selecting books for reading and deciding upon topics to be used for writing are other forms of autonomy, which the teacher can offer learners (Turner, 1995). Despite the focus on learner independence and decision making in literature, the learning of the CLIL learners seems to be dominated by decisions made by the ministry and by their teachers, thereby reducing the very aim of using the CLIL approach, which is to help learners self-regulate their learning and become autonomous.

Learner motivation can also be augmented by making use of collaborative study
Bossert (1988) notes that collaborative working allows peers to encourage one another and to help learners to engage with the assignment, also allowing them to shift attentional sources. Collaborating with others on work can lead to greater long-term interest in the subject or activity. As Turner (1995) points out collaborating allows learners to experience disequilibrium, which leads to further interest in the activity. The scope for peer modeling is also greater in collaboration. Collaborating leads to academic engagement and learners working together are more likely to persist with challenging tasks than if they were working alone.

Although collaborative studying techniques are well-supported in literature, Stipek (1996) points out that specific class groupings can be detrimental to learner motivation. For instance, grouping by ability carries certain risks, if the learners have been grouped according to whether they are all competent or less competent learners. Hence, the frame of reference for comparisons is important. If learners of different ability are grouped, advanced learners with greater potential may feel more competent when comparing themselves to their less competent peers. However, low-ability learners may also benefit from being located in a special “pull-out” magnificence as their performance will be viewed more favourably in the smaller context of the group than the wider classroom where they may be compared with higher ability learners (Stipek, 1996).

Due to the ramifications of homogeneous ability groups, Stipek (1996) recommends the usage of blended-capacity groupings, so that each group is more or less equal in reflecting the spectrum of ability in the class. Furthermore, feedback for every learner must be made contingent upon the performance of the group.

Aggressive mastering environments are usually contrasted negatively with more collaborative settings for learning, as competition can lead to a diminution of motivation (Deci et al., 1981, as stated in Stipek, 1996). However, mixed ability groupings in which members are on approximately equal footing can allow learners to be more positively motivated. The main issue in this is that every member of the group must have an equal chance of succeeding (Stipek, 1996).

Research on collaborative study favours blended-capacity groups over identical groups. Webb (1991) found that in identical excessive potential groupings, members often took for granted that they knew the solutions, gave fewer explanations, and showed a poorer performance than excessive-capacity learners embedded in combined-capacity organizations. In identical, low-ability groups, learners were unable to provide correct reasons to one another and they fared worse than peers in mixed-potential groupings. It was found that learner motivation was best enhanced by the homogeneous slight-capacity group, wherein learners with average capacity took active part and experienced more success than average-ability learners in
heterogeneous groupings. The findings of the study suggest little awareness on the part of the teachers as to the significance of grouping configurations to learning. In their bid to retain control of their classrooms, while applying CLIL, teachers are more concerned about learner behaviour, which they term as disruptive due to the inherently interactive nature of CLIL activities, if and when they are used in the classroom. It is possible that a better understanding of learner grouping can help teachers to turn group dynamics to the advantage of student learning, which can fulfill the aims of the CLIL approach and activities.

The school room environment also has an impact on learner motivation, and this includes aims, orientations as well as attributions. It has been suggested that if educators prioritise mastery or gaining knowledge of goals rather than performance, learners will most probably internalise these desires. Discussing aims orientations, Ames (1992) found that studying goals are related to mild chance-taking, willingness to engage in tough obligations, acceptable attributions, better effort, powerful trouble-solving strategies, and greater delight in mastering activities. Overall performance objectives, then again, can cause individuals to exhibit venture-avoidance, and the outcomes of such goals may be detrimental for learners who have low self-efficacy. Again the findings suggest that the teachers are so much focused on performing CLIL that their learners are unlikely to see doing CLIL or procedural knowledge as the classroom goal rather than developing the ability to take risks or to aim for achieving mastery over content and language learning.

Bringing together the conclusions of several studies, Stipek (1996) notes that school room environments, which focus on stimulating learners to subscribe to mastery goals, tend to equate achievement with development, lay stress on effort, study as well as taking up challenges and focus on how learners acquire knowledge rather than the procedures of knowledge, treating mistakes as developmental.

While in aggressive classrooms, fulfillment is promoted as outperforming others, mastery oriented classrooms see fulfillment as personal development or attaining a preset standard. Those standards have an effect on grade four students’ attributions. Under aggressive aim systems, learners will tend to lay emphasis on capacity and chance attributions. Under mastery systems, learners focus on effort (Ames, 1992).

External assessment can also impact learner motivation. When assignments are used to talk about grades rather than to provide evaluation through feedback, learner motivation is likely to diminish (Ames, 1992). The impact of this will be worse the more challenging an assignment or task is (Hughes, Sullivan, & Mosley, 1985, as referred to in Stipek, 1996). However, Stipek (1996) finds that if the risk of external evaluation can be minimized, then challenging assignments will have a positive effect on intrinsic motivation. Confirming this, the study found that learners who did make an effort to approach assignments in an innovative way were penalised, thereby
becoming demotivated. The CLIL skeptic teacher failed the assignment as she felt it was not appropriate in terms of the objectives of the exit assessment all learners in the study context must undertake. As a result, the learner was dissuaded from venturing to take risks with the answers she produced in the future. The problem seems to be with the conflict amongst three variables. The Ministry wants to develop autonomous learners who are ready for the new knowledge economy through the CLIL approach, but the untrained CLIL teachers are constrained by personal epistemologies, which make them skeptical towards the CLIL methodology. Additionally, the objectives of the CLIL approach seem to be at odds with the way the exit exam for the learners is designed. So the conundrum seems to arise from a conflict between Ministry objectives, teacher epistemologies and assessment goals. It is likely if this conundrum were addressed strategically, CLIL learners may actually abandon caution in favour of discovery, risk-taking and experimentation, and in the process find themselves more motivated to learn in this new way.

One way to overcome learner hesitation in experimenting in the CLIL class would be to set up some assignments that are feedback only. It has been found that when assignments are designated “feedback only”, learners reflect a better internalization of what they have learnt and develop and maintain more interest in what they have studied (Butler & Nisan, 1986, as noted in Stipek, 1996). The criteria used in external evaluation also matters in terms of the effect on learner motivation. Stipeck (1996) found that standard-referenced comparisons enhanced motivation, whereas evaluations using normative comparisons diminished motivation.

CLIL teachers looking to motivate their learners should be able to use different strategies including rewards, learner environment, collaborative task groupings, assessment methodologies and learner autonomy to motivate learners. In addition, if they understand that each learner exhibits a different type of motivation, they can use the rewards according to the learner’s motivational needs to achieve successful outcomes. At present, the findings of the study show CLIL learners continue to be challenged by the learning environment, lack of rewards and constraints on their autonomy, with the result that most of them are less than motivated towards CLIL.

3.10.5 Teacher Motivation

The findings in this study showed that majority of the teachers exhibited a high degree of demotivation with regard to CLIL implementation. While the idea of using rewards and incentivizing teacher contributions to curricular implementation may serve as shortcuts to motivating CLIL teachers temporarily, for lasting change to occur in their behaviours, their self-efficacy must be addressed.

According to Johnson (1986, p.55), teacher motivation can be explained through three
theories. The first of these, expectancy theory, contends that teachers are more likely to struggle in their work, this entails an external reward in the form of a bonus or a step up the career ladder. The second of these theories, equity theory contends that teachers will experience dissatisfaction if they are inadequately rewarded for the efforts they put in and or their attainments. Enrichment theory, the last of these theorizations, pivots on the understanding that teachers will achieve more and put in a better performance if their work is interesting and stimulating. However, Johnson makes an important point when he notes that while monetary incentives may prompt teachers to exhibit certain behaviours such as taking responsibility for challenging work or helping students to achieve higher assessment scores, there is much evidence in literature to suggest that teachers are primarily motivated by their professional efficacy rather than money.

In the case of the CLIL teachers who participated in the study, monetary incentives or career rewards are unlikely to persuade them to view or implement CLIL with great enthusiasm, as their demotivation is largely attributable to their self-identified lack of efficacy in using the approach. Johnson also notes that teachers are also more likely to enjoy collaborating on institution wide initiatives rather than to be induced by individual competitive rewards. This observation also holds true in the CLIL context, as working with programme coordinators in a spirit of collegiality was observed to be more beneficial to teacher enthusiasm than the teacher performance awards conferred on those deemed to be performing well.

Teacher motivation can be further categorised as having four aspects: i) intrinsic component, ii) contextual factors, iii) temporal dimension and iv) negative influences (Dornyei, 2001, p.160). In this study, data showed that teachers lacked internal motivation to make an effort towards implementing CLIL by putting in extra effort towards understanding the approach or applying it in the classroom. Instead, they exhibited a tendency to dress up conventional pedagogies as CLIL and to observe CLIL principles superficially so as to pass muster during evaluations and observations.

This is despite the fact that intrinsic motivation has been seen as having centrality in the profession of teaching, with teacher desires focusing on the wish to help learner gain knowledge as well as values, thereby contributing to communal or national development. Drawing upon Csikszentmihalyi (1997), Dornyei (ibid) notes that intrinsic rewards can be linked to the process of working with learners and supervising their educational transformation and contributing knowledge to the field of one’s new specialism, thereby gaining new skills. In contrast with this, the demotivated CLIL teachers in the study context duly evidenced the belief that CLIL was a burden and an imposition, rather than an approach, which could help them to improve their teaching practice and impart new skills to the learners. Hence, the overall implementation of the approach in the context was impacted negatively.
According to Deci and Ryan (1985), behaviour that is intrinsically motivated is connected to three fundamental human requirements, which include autonomy (self-directed behaviour), relatedness (feelings of closeness with others) and competence (experiencing a sense of attainment). Dornyei (2001) points out that during the course of teaching, autonomy and relatedness are satisfied as teachers tend to teach and handle their classes with a fair bit of independence and working with learners and colleagues offers opportunities for closeness. Efficacy can be further divided into teaching efficacy, which refers to teachers’ beliefs about learning and factors that affect learners as well as personal efficacy, which relates to teachers’ self-evaluation as educators. In addition to intrinsic interest, teacher performance also depends on the clarity of the outlined goals and feedback on performance (ibid, p.162). This means that teachers will be more motivated when their work requires multiple skills and is of significance to peers and learners.

In addition, teachers must be able to decide what must be done along with how and when it is done. Lastly, teachers must receive feedback on their performance to sustain their motivation. As the findings showed, most CLIL teachers had not received adequate training to implement the methodology successfully. Further, they had been given no choice in implementing the approach or have the independence to decide what had to be taught and how. The Ministry of Education had provided them with ready-made materials, teacher proof lesson plans and foreign expertise through the medium of programme coordinators. They had also been given no opportunity to provide their feedback to the policy makers or involved in any of the decision making to do with CLIL at any level. With so much of their teaching regulated, the CLIL teachers’ lacked the self-efficacy to keep themselves motivated in applying the approach.

3.10.6.1 Contextual factors

According to Dornyei (2001, p.164), teacher motivation is influenced by multiple macro and micro-contextual factors. Macro factors relate to the expectations held in regard to teaching profession at the societal level by different stakeholders including parents, policymakers and even media. With such massive investment in CLIL implementation by the government, the teachers participating in the study were under enormous pressure to implement CLIL effectively, and they were also subject to extended scrutiny of their performance. The stress from the influence of the macro factors was also compounded by organizational-level issues, which Dornyei describes as micro factors. Micro factors are linked to the climate of the organisations in which teachers work, particularly characteristics of the environment including the classroom and the learners. Climate, school norms, relationships with colleagues, institutional facilities, school systems and the educational leadership and decision-making system all have an impact on teacher motivations. Teachers in the study shared that the
organisational climate, school norms, relationship with the Principal and the systems in place were all influencing them adversely. With the implementation of CLIL, there were more rules and regulations to follow and an enhancement of the workload as well. The Principal herself expressed dissatisfaction at the upheaval caused by the implementation of the new methodology, voicing concern at new demands transmitted by the ministry to involve teachers in more activities in addition to their regular teaching workload. This shows how the top-down momentum of an innovation can become diluted due to the poor motivation of the teachers, who are negatively influenced by a gamut of macro and micro contextual factors.

3.10.6.2 Temporal dimension
As teacher motivation is linked to being a teacher over the course of a career, the temporal dimension also influences the motivation of teachers. Intrinsic motivation to teach must be paralleled by external rewards spanning contingency paths, which include variety in the courses taught, development of new courses and curriculum, conducting research and undertaking teacher training (Pennington, 1995-209-210 in Dornyei, 2001, p.167). The findings of the study did not reveal the existence of such contingency paths for the CLIL teachers, thereby revealing another source of demotivation for teachers in the form of non-existent external rewards.

3.10.6.3 Negative influences
While intrinsic motivation drives teachers, there are a number of factors, which can demotivate them. Teachers can be demotivated by the stress surrounding the act of teaching, constraints on teacher autonomy by curricular restrictions, testing, imposed methodologies and state mandated policies. In addition, they may experience demotivation due to lack of adequate training, limited scope for self-development and poor career paths (Dornyei, 2001, p. 168). In the case of the CLIL teachers participating in the study, it was found that each of these negative influences existed in their environment. With the introduction of a methodology that required the teaching of not just English but also difficult subjects like math and science through EMI, the burden on teachers had increased. The pressure of these state-mandated policies was also made worse by restrictions on their autonomy and the pressure of strengthening the learning foundations of the learners with a view to the high stakes examination in the years to come. Poor understanding of CLIL and inadequate fluency in English also influenced teachers negatively in implementing CLIL.

3.10.6.4 Teacher Motivation and Educational Innovation Effectiveness
Gorozidis and Papaiouannou (2013, p.1) note that over recent years, the implementation of innovations in schools have become integral to efforts around the globe to transform education or to replace conventional pedagogies with more modern approaches, which are student centered. In innovations such as CLIL implementation, teachers play a central role in contributing to the effectiveness of the innovation.
Hence, their will to learn is a prerequisite for participation in learning related to implementing curricular reform. In their study of teacher learning in the workplace, Van Eekelen, Vermunt and Boshuizen (2006) found that the will to learn, which they described as consisting of a desire for discovering new ways of doing things, proactivity and receptivity to experiences and people amongst other behaviours, as important. The will to learn can also be described as motivation and represents one of the key features of learning undertaken by teachers (Shulman & Shulman, 2004).

Drawing upon Deci et al (1996) and Niemiec & Ryan (2009), Gorozidis and Papaioannou (2013, p.2) point out that “autonomous motivation is instrumental” for effective learning as well as performance, adjusting to changes, being creative and persisting in one’s endeavours within educational contexts. Hence, it may be presumed that teacher motivation towards experiences, which require new kinds of learning is essential to the successful implementation of the programme.

Curricular innovation such as that contained within a programme such as CLIL involves teacher learning. It requires teachers to be responsive to the changes, understand and learn the principles of the new approach and regard challenges as puzzles or opportunities for learning rather than obstacles. The study by Gorozidis and Papaioannou (2013, p.1) used a mixed method approach for inquiring into the motivation of 218 teachers towards participating in the training and teaching of a new academic subject. They found that autonomous motivation influenced participants positively towards taking part in the project, thereby implying that policy makers should make use of strategies, which promote this kind of teacher motivation, if they are interested in successfully implementing curricular innovation.

Over a decade ago, researchers began to focus their attention on the role played by teacher beliefs, perceptions as well as qualities, which were pertinent to motivation, in the successful implementation of educational reform and innovation (Webster, 2006, p.6). As early as 1990, Cuban (1990) had cautioned that there was likely to be a cycle of educational reforms as decision makers continued to disregard local, contextual factors in successful implementation of improvement efforts. These factors included teacher beliefs. According to Webster (2006, p.18), teacher beliefs play a central role in the success or failure of innovation implementation because innovations require teachers to adopt and apply novel or unknown practices.

In the absence of the cognitive structures required to achieve this, teachers demonstrated a greater reliance on their beliefs to make decisions and make sense of the changes in their practice. Hence, Webster argued that in order to understand the reasons underlying teacher decisions to implement innovations, it was important to examine the impact of their beliefs (ibid, p.30). Teacher beliefs have been examined in detail in section 3.7. According to Webster (2006, p.94), considerable support
exists in literature for the idea that teacher efficacy can predict the success or failure of educational innovation. In the context of this study, exploring self-efficacy of teachers was considered important for understanding their motivation or demotivation towards CLIL implementation.

3.10.6.5 Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy has been defined by Bandura (1986) as people’s evaluation of their ability to set up and implement courses of action needed for realizing performances required of them. In sum, teachers’ perceptions of their self-efficacy can have an impact on the choices they make, the efforts they make and the persistence they show in successfully carrying out activities (Webster, 2006, p.32). Webster also notes that teacher efficacy is key to implementation of innovations because it shapes the expectations teachers establish for learner outcomes, their choice of pedagogical techniques and methodologies and their persistence in using these and new techniques despite the challenges that arise. While teachers with high efficacy believe that they can positively influence their learners’ achievement through the pedagogical choices that they make, those with low efficacy view anything affecting their practice and learner achievement as beyond their sphere of control. As will be discussed in the chapter on the findings, CLIL teachers in the study context exhibited both kinds of behaviour, with the majority of the teachers exhibiting low self-efficacy and lack of control over the changes wrought by CLIL implementation. In line with Bandura (1993), such teachers who lacked confidence in their abilities to teach using the CLIL approach viewed the CLIL innovation as having little value and unconducive to lasting change in student learning. The activities they selected also depended on how confident they felt about their ability to handle the tasks. Hence, in general, CLIL activities were avoided as they required the integration of content and language learning, which were preempted by the teachers’ lack of fluency in English, inadequate understanding of CLIL and doubt in the effectiveness of the CLIL approach.

Teacher self-efficacy is important to curricular reform and implementation of innovations. Drawing upon a number of studies, Gibbs (2003) notes that this is because it can allow teachers to persist in situations where failure is possible and to adopt and apply new pedagogical approaches (Gibson & Dembo, 1984), in addition to demonstrating risk-taking with the curriculum (Guskey, 1988). As the study found, the self-efficacy of CLIL teachers in the research context was poor due to the lack of CLIL training, poor command over using EMI and conflict between pedagogical theories held by teachers and those underpinning CLIL. Thus, for instance, teachers who had considered themselves competent before found themselves floundering as they attempted to teach through CLIL in the classroom. As a result their self-efficacy deteriorated, so for them applying CLIL became a case of classroom survival rather than building upon their existing expertise, thereby leading them to become
demotivated towards the implementation of this approach.

Despite efforts of the Ministry of Education to support effective CLIL implementation in MAG schools within UAE, the approach has not been implemented effectively, and as a result, learner outcomes have not experienced the kind of improvement envisioned at the outset of CLIL adoption. While the MAG programme is a good example of a top-down curricular innovation, like all programmes, its success depends on effective implementation by the teachers. Existing research on the MAG programme is scant and largely focused on student achievement scores rather than on how the innovation is conceptualised and implemented by the teachers at the classroom level. It is widely agreed that the personal epistemologies and beliefs of teachers and teacher motivation are of significance to their instructional practices, which can include appropriating curricular innovations into the classroom. In view of this, an urgent need to examine the role of teacher beliefs and teacher motivation vis-à-vis successful CLIL implementation was identified. This study was based on the notion that beliefs of CLIL teachers, conceptions of knowing and learning and their motivation have a large impact on how they apply CLIL. Given the cultural-led contrast between the beliefs and epistemologies of UAE CLIL teachers and the Eurocentric epistemological principles underscoring the CLIL approach, it was premised that resistance to the MAG programme and subsequent misapplication was likely to originate from what the teachers knew and believed about CLIL.

Hence, the study sought to understand the MAG teachers’ conceptualisations of CLIL and their motivation to better understand how the programme was being implemented at the classroom level as well as to map the associated challenges confronting the teachers. Considerable research has been carried out to examine the relation between teacher beliefs and personal epistemologies, which are believed to shape teachers’ instructional practices (Lee, Zhang, Song & Huang, 201, p.120), hence highlighting the usefulness of a similar study in the context of CLIL implementation in UAE. The study addressed the following questions:

RQ1: How do Emirati teachers conceptualise the Content and Language Integrated Learning approach?
RQ2: What variables influence the motivation of teachers in implementing CLIL?
RQ3: What are the perceptions and experiences of the students as to being taught CLIL?

With a view to the above, the examination of two central constructs became relevant to the study, namely teacher conceptualisations or beliefs and teacher motivation. The discussion that follows will provide an overview of teacher beliefs and epistemologies and teacher motivation as a way to provide a background to the conceptual framework selected for this study.
3.11 Teachers Epistemological Beliefs and their Impact on Practice

According to Chan & Elliot (2004, p.817), “teachers’ conceptions about teaching and learning are beliefs driven”. Research on teacher thinking supports the idea that instructional practice and curricular decision making are undergirded by teachers’ personal theories and beliefs (Ross, Cornett and McCutcheon, 1992, p.3). Indeed, a number of studies have affirmed the nexus amongst what teachers believe, how they behave in class and the environment in which learning occurs (Nespor, 1987; Kagan, 1992; Brown & Rose, 1995). In recent decades, interest has burgeoned in analyzing teacher beliefs about the nature of knowledge and learning or epistemological beliefs (Flores, 2001; Howard, McGee, Schwartz & Purcell, 2000). In addition, this interest has extended to how such beliefs or epistemologies influence the implementation of curriculum and teaching practice (Hofer & Pintrich, 1997; Prawat, 1992)

3.11.1 Epistemological beliefs

According to Hofer and Pintrich (1997) and Schommer (1994), epistemological belief relates to what knowledge is and how it is acquired. More specifically, these consist of beliefs about “the certainty and organization of knowledge and the speed and control of learning” (Schommer-Aikins & Hutter, 2002, p.5) These beliefs are understood to affect the way people learn, conceptualise things and carry out problem solving (Cano, 2005; Chan & Elliott, 2004; Chan, 2010).

In early research on epistemological beliefs, Perry (1981) inquired into how the attitudes of undergraduate students toward knowledge and learning evolved while progressing through university. Initially believing that knowledge was simple, absolute and transmitted by authorities, the students later came see knowledge as complex, tentative and uncertain. However, Perry’s conceptualization of epistemological beliefs and those of researchers who followed him was critiqued for being “unidimensional and develop [ing] in a fixed progression of stages” (Schommer, 1990, p.498). Schommer points out that a better explanation for this was believed to be “that personal epistemology is a belief system that is composed of several more or less independent dimensions” (Schommer, 1990, p.498). According to the five dimensions developed by Schommer (1994), a person holding a naïve epistemology believes that knowledge i) is simple, clear and specific, ii) resides in authorities and hence static, iii) concepts are learnt quickly or not at all, iv) learning ability is inborn. On the other hand, a person holding a sophisticated epistemology believes that knowledge i) is complex and uncertain, ii) can be learnt through reasoning and iii) can be constructed by learner.

The examination of teacher beliefs is also important, as during the course of daily interaction, teachers have to make many decisions, which shape their behavior. Since
such decision-making is based on meta-cognition, it is likely that the context of the classroom as well as the teachers’ beliefs vis-à-vis the nature of knowledge and knowledge-acquisition play an instrumental role in the pedagogical decisions undertaken by the teachers (Chan & Elliot, 2004, p.818-819). For instance, teachers with relativistic epistemologies tend to make use of more constructivist teaching strategies than those holding more naïve epistemologies. Teachers with relativistic epistemologies are more likely to be innovative, democratic and empathetic and teachers with naïve epistemological beliefs tend to adopt a more transmissive teaching approach (Arrendondo and Rucinski, 1996 in Brownlee, 2005, p.7). Brownlee (2005) points out that teachers with naïve epistemologies consider knowledge to be absolute, and they tend to assume that learners have to be directed by more knowledgeable others, whereas teachers with more relativistic beliefs are more reflective about their practice and likely to believe in helping learners co-construct their meanings (Brownlee, 2000, 2001). Hence, this study is premised on the understanding that as the beliefs of individual teachers can predict the types of instructional practices they will implement within the classroom context (Pajares, 1992; Tsai, 2002; Jones & Carter, 2007), it is worth examining teacher beliefs and epistemologies to understand the failure of CLIL implementation in UAE.

3.11.2 The Influence of Teacher Beliefs on Teacher Motivation

As identified in earlier discussion, Motivation is another important component in CLIL context. CLIL is a new innovation for the UAE schools; therefore, the motivation of teachers towards CLIL is crucial to ensuring quality CLIL outcomes. The link between teacher beliefs and teacher motivation has been documented in a study by Hileman and Knobloch (n.d). In their phenomenological study, Hileman and Knobloch examined the experiences of senior level preservice teachers in a learner-centred teaching methods course. This environment was dissimilar to the teacher-centered university classroom that they were familiar with. It was found that the participants’ prior educational experiences and epistemologies played a significant role in “their motivation and willingness to adapt to methods of instruction that were unfamiliar to them”. Secondly, the participants held entrenched “beliefs shaped by previous experiences in agricultural education and behavioralist and cognitive views of learning”. As a result, they not only lacked motivation to learn but also to reflect in a critical way on their pedagogical and learning experiences. Hence, the study of teacher motivation and influence of teacher beliefs and epistemologies on the former was seen as significant to understanding the demotivation of CLIL teachers towards the MAG programme.

Horsley (2010, p.40) notes that ‘motivation in learning has usually been conceptualised as an individual phenomenon’. However, according to Walker (2009) a new, sociocultural research movement has led to the development of the idea that
motivation in educational contexts is socially situated. Hence, in teacher education, it is premised that the motivation to learn and to develop skills is likely to be impacted by the role of context, in addition to scaffolding and existing learning artefacts (Horsley, 2010). A useful approach to understanding motivation with reference to curriculum innovation in the study context is Nolen et al’s (2007 in Horsley, 2010) notion of dynamic and complex motivational filters, which are employed by teachers in training to “evaluate, choose and reject (filter out) teaching practices and pedagogical approaches they incorporate into their teaching repertoire”. These motivational filters consist of “developing pre-service teachers’ teacher identity, their relationships with those promoting the practices and the perceived fit of the promoted practice with pre-service conceptions of the real world of teaching” (ibid).

According to Nolen et al (2009), “the concept of motivational filters marks a shift from thinking about general or even situation-specific approaches to learning (goals, orientations) to seeing learners as making moment-to-moment decisions about what they will learn and how well”. This is a useful lens for this research because CLIL teachers in the MAG schools, who did not receive CLIL training before implementing the approach, display a tendency to ‘filter out’ the techniques and practices they encounter as they implement CLIL. If the concept of motivation filters is applied, then the motivation to learn on the part of the CLIL teachers would also seem to be influenced by, as in the case of Nolen et al’s (2009) teaching interns, their ‘identities as… teachers, their relationships with other members of their multiple worlds, and the processes of negotiating practice with powerful others’, In turn, as Nolen et al (2009) contend this may provide an explanation for taking up or dismissing a practice, which is being promoted and how such decisions will undergo further transformation with greater experience of CLIL teaching.

3.12 Conceptual Framework

This study aimed to examine the nexus amongst CLIL teachers’ beliefs and epistemologies, understandings of teaching and learning as well as instructional practices in MAG schools in the UAE. It made use of a conceptual framework employed by Lee, Zhang, Song and Huang (2013) in their study of Chinese in-service teachers and the link between their epistemological beliefs and instructional practices (see Fig.1). This framework suggested that teachers’ epistemological and pedagogical beliefs indirectly or directly affected their instructional practices. Although the aim of Lee et al’s (2013) study was to also “see how teachers’ conceptions of teaching and learning, whether traditional or constructivist, influence [d] their preference for instructional practices”, this study highlighted the role of CLIL teachers’ beliefs and the influence of these on the effectiveness of CLIL implementation. Inquiry into teacher motivation explicated a nexus between what teachers believe and know and attitudes expressed towards the CLIL programme and its implementation. Student perspectives were explored as a way to provide insights into teacher beliefs and
motivation as expressed in their classroom practices.


### 3.13 Conclusion to Chapter Three

This chapter reviewed the literature on the origin, theoretical underpinnings and rationale identified for using CLIL in the UAE educational context. It found that CLIL was highly favoured by the UAE policy makers due to its dual focus on content and language learning, which were seen as essential to helping Emirati learners to attain the English language proficiency warranted by its social and economic development vision and international status. The chapter also examined the literature on reflectivity, finding that CLIL teachers, as a way to overcome the gap of poor/non-existent training, needed to become more reflexive so that they could integrate CLIL within their practice more effectively as they examined beliefs and conceptions hampering the use of CLIL approach and identified solutions for their local contexts. The chapter also looked at the literature on communities of practice, finding that teacher communities of practice are effective means for teacher development. The study context showed the existence of such nascent communities in the settings researched, suggesting that these communities may be nurtured further as a means to catalyse teacher development and to foster curricular reform implementation. As CLIL is anchored on the notion of learning through interaction and collaboration, the chapter also reviewed the literature on socio-cultural theory, finding that the phenomenon of curricular implementation explored in the research context could be explained effectively in terms of the emphasis on the socially situated nature of learning in the approach itself and the fragmented application of this within the setting examined. An examination of research on teacher cognition, learner and teacher motivation and teacher beliefs helped to unpack how the poor performance of majority of the CLIL teachers stems from the conflict between their theories of learning and those of CLIL. A review of research on motivational highlighted the importance of learner as well as teacher motivation to CLIL implementation. Stakeholder motivation is frequently a make or break factor for the success of curricular innovation, and the literature highlighted many key points of relevance to
the future direction of CLIL in UAE. While poor teacher training as to using the CLIL approach can lead to a negative influence on learner outcomes and classroom experiences, the diminution of the teachers’ existing expertise and the demands of CLIL affect the self-efficacy of the CLIL teachers. The result is that teachers lose the motivation to work towards improving their understanding of CLIL or implementing in the curricular innovation in letter and spirit. Lastly, the chapter reviewed the conceptual framework advanced by Lee et al (2013) to understand how teacher beliefs and conceptions can influence instructional practices. The next chapter will present an overview of the methodology used in the study, providing details of the approach, data collection methods, procedures used and ethical considerations undergirding the inquiry.
Chapter Four: Research Methodology

4.0 Introduction to Chapter Four

This chapter introduces the philosophical principles underpinning the research design. In addition, it presents the research strategies as well as the empirical methods of data collection and analysis, which were applied within the study.

There are six sections within this chapter. It begins by reminding the reader of the focus of the research in the form of the questions guiding the inquiry. There follows a description of the research strategy with justification of the use of a qualitative cross-sectional research design. Then, the selection of the research participants is described. Next, the data collection tools conducted in the study and the proposed analysis of the qualitative outcomes is discussed. The remaining parts are dedicated to the discussion of other issues, such as credibility, dependability, transferability, conformability, and research ethics.

4.1 Research Questions

As the reader may recall, the main research questions in this study are:

RQ1: How do Emirati teachers conceptualise the Content and Language Integrated Learning approach?

RQ2: What variables influence the motivation of teachers in implementing CLIL?

RQ3: What are the perceptions and experiences of the students as to being taught CLIL?

This study makes use of the idea of teacher conceptualisation as a broad umbrella term within subsuming teacher concepts and beliefs as well as their epistemologies. It takes this understanding of conceptualisation from the ideas advanced by Elder and Paul (2001):

*Concepts are to us like the air we breathe. They are everywhere. They are essential to our lives. But we rarely notice them. Yet only when we have conceptualized a thing in some way, only then, can we think about it. Nature does not give us, or anyone else, instructions in how things are to be conceptualized. We must create that conceptualization, alone or with others. Once conceptualized, a thing is integrated by us, into a network of ideas (since no concept or idea ever stands alone). We conceptualize things personally by means of our own ideas. We conceptualize things socially by means of the ideas of others (social groups). We explain one idea by means of other ideas.*
The above quote posits conceptualisation as a way of thinking about the discrete concepts around us, independently or collaboratively, and integrating these into a network of ideas belonging to us and to others. Thus, teacher concepts, beliefs and epistemologies contribute to the way teacher conceptualise or think about CLIL in this study.

For a clearer understanding of the components of such conceptualisation, the ensuing discussion addresses understandings of teacher concepts, beliefs and epistemologies in turn. Dunkin (2002, p.41) describes teachers’ concepts as well as their beliefs about teaching in terms of how they judge the effectiveness of the interventionist role of teaching, estimate their own influence on the outcomes of their learners, evaluate their own teaching competences and use criteria to assess not just their teaching but also themselves as educators. Hence, these concepts represent what Brilhart (2007, p.18) defines as “internalized understandings”. Teacher epistemologies may be understood as the beliefs teachers hold about “knowledge and knowing, otherwise known as personal epistemology” (Hofer, 2010 in Lunn, Walker and Mascadri, 2014, p.319). These are important because they “have been shown to influence other knowledge and beliefs” (Schommer-Aikens, 2004 in Lunn, Walker and Mascadri, 2014, p.319). It is clear from the above discussion that teacher concepts, beliefs and epistemologies contribute to the broader teacher conceptualisations and shape not only the way teachers teach but also the way they think about teaching and the nature of knowing and how teaching and learning should take place.

4.2 The Interpretive Approach to Research

This study was framed by the interpretivist paradigm. Justifying this choice calls for a discussion of the ontological and epistemological considerations undergirding the research design in this study. According to Bracken, adopting an ontological perspective “or ways of viewing social reality” relates to what the researcher understands to be the nature of reality (Bracken, 2010, para.3). These differing ontological views might involve understanding reality “as a rational, external entity [which is] responsive to scientific and positivist modes of inquiry” or “social reality [that is] co-constructed by individuals who interact and make meaning of their world in an active way” which meanings are accessible “through rigorous interpretation” by the researcher (Bracken, 2010, para.3). On the other hand, epistemology relates to the nature of knowledge and the forms it can take (Cohen et al., 2007, p. 7). Essentially epistemology questions how the knower and the known are related (Guba and Lincoln, 1994, p.108). Hence what epistemology explores is the researchers’ “perceived relationship with the knowledge [they] un/dis/covering” and whether “[they are] part of that knowledge or …external to it?” (What is Paradigm, 2017, para.5).
The ontology of the interpretivist paradigm is a relativist one assuming that “reality as we know it is constructed intersubjectively through the meanings and understandings developed socially and experientially” (Cohen and Crabtree, 2006, para.2) and its epistemology “assumes that we cannot separate ourselves from what we know” (Cohen and Crabtree, 2006, para.2). These ontological and epistemological assumptions are in line with my own understandings. As I view social reality as being co-constructed in social interaction rather than being a “rational, external entity” (Bracken, 2010, para.3) that is knowable and discoverable through observation of human behaviour, the relativist ontology of the chosen paradigm made it more suitable as the frame for my study. Considering myself to be a part of the knowledge being constructed in interaction with my subjects through my inquiry (What is Paradigm, 2017, para.5), the interpretivist paradigm also seemed more appropriate for this study because its epistemology accommodated my view of the inseparability of the knower and the known. Hence, using this approach enabled me to access richer insights into the social and organisational phenomena in the context of CLIL implementation in UAE schools.

The study was framed within interpretivism also because it allows the researcher to generate ‘understandings of the world’ by way of ‘representing’ individuals’ constructions (Avramidis & Smith, 1999, p.28), an act which privileges the experiences of the participants. Additionally, constructivist inquiry also made it possible to observe the actions of participants within the natural setting. As Dey highlights (1993, p.116), meaning from this perspective is context-dependent with interpretation of phenomena pivoting on the setting within which it is produced.

There are seven principles proposed by Klein and Myers (1999) to improve the quality of studies conducted from the interpretive viewpoint (Macome, 2002). These principles are based on hermeneutic orientation (ibid). They include “(i) the hermeneutic circle, (ii) contextualization, (iii) interaction between the researcher and the subject, (iv) abstraction and generalization, (v) dialogical reasoning, (vi) multiple interpretations and (vii) suspicion” (Macome, 2002). It can be observed that these principles are interconnected. Therefore, while doing this research I first had to decide what was relevant to my study context. Then, I had to keep in mind that all my data should be created in relation of my research subject where principle three plays its role. In deciding the theories and the ideas, which the study helped to offer generalizations for, I used principle 4. When my own intellectual history was at issue then I had to use principle 5. Many forms of views came into play. When examination of the impact of the social settings and documenting of the various interpretations of issues was necessitated, I had to use principle 6. Principle 7 was used when the aspects of authenticity were offered in order to formulate research questions critically (ibid). It was important to remember that it is not possible to define all features of the setting. The researcher has to be critical when deciding on what to say relying on the participants and the issue that he/she wants to present (Rabinowitz, 2012).
Using these principles helped in making my research work more reasonable and convincing to the target participants. In addition, it helped in improving the cogency and plausibility of the study.

4.3 Research Design

Research designs are vital as the “credibility of the research, and its usefulness rests with the design implemented” (Bickman & Rog, 1997, p11). According to Bichman and Rog (1997), they serve as the “architectural blueprint of research” (p. 11) as they involve consideration of the research strategy to be conducted, and the data gathering and analyzing approaches that are best for the study (ibid). Research designs connect data collection and analysis with the questions guiding the inquiry and ensure that all aspects of research will be covered (Phakisi, 2008, p.31). In my study, I used an exploratory and descriptive research design within a grounded theory framework of qualitative study, as I needed to explore the insights of the research participants and to understand the experience of CLIL implementation through their eyes. Although, Patton (1990) suggests that this type of research designs cannot be entirely specified in advance of research, the details of this research develop “as the study occurs” (ibid, p. 61).

This study made use of a qualitative cross-sectional research design and strategy (Bryman, 2004, p.45). Within the quantitative strategy, Bryman defines a cross sectional research design as consisting of data collection on multiple cases at a specific point in time. The aim in this design is to gather quantifiable data in conjunction with multiple variables so that “patterns of association” can be identified. The similarities with such a design, which is rooted not in quantitative but rather in qualitative research, according to Bryman, is that it too entails the collecting of qualitative data from a lot of participants at a single point in time. Additionally, Bryman and Bell (2011, p.68) note that “when a qualitative research strategy is employed within a cross-sectional design, the approach tends to be more inductive”. The overall research strategy implemented was to collect data from case studies of CLIL classrooms in two different MAG schools between. February 2014 to May 2014. The data collection methods included observations, interviews and document analysis.

4.3.1 Strengths and Limitations of Cross-sectional Research Design

Not only do such studies provide a clear 'snapshot' of the outcome and its characteristics at a specific point in time but also this kind of research enables researchers to drawing inferences within the individuals or phenomena studied. Researchers are usually purposively selected and such studies are not geographically constrained. The cross sectional research design also provides researchers with the capacity to collect data from many participants. Such research also allows
the researchers to identify a population trend due to the nature of the sample.

However, the advantages can be counterweighed by the fact that the results are static and bound by time, and thereby not capable of indicating “a sequence of events or revealing historical or temporal contexts”. Such studies cannot be used for establishing causal relationships, and there is always a possibility due to its snapshot nature, that the results could have been different if a different time-frame had been selected. Lastly such a research design does not allow for a follow-up to the findings (USC Research Guide, 2015)

4.3.2 Case Studies

This study involved examining two groups of CLIL teachers and students in two different school settings, using the exploratory case study approach. An exploratory case study inquires into “distinct phenomena characterized by a lack of detailed preliminary research, especially formulated hypotheses that can be tested, and/or by a specific research environment that limits the choice of methodology” (Mills, Durepos and Wiebe, 2010, p.372). According to Mills et al (2010, p.372), such a case study is frequently used as the “preliminary step of an overall causal or explanatory research design” which explores a new area of scientific inquiry lacking precisely identified research questions or substantive data available for the formulation of hypotheses. The exploratory case study was chosen for this study because CLIL implementation is in its early phases yet, and the research on teacher and student attitudes towards such curricular changes has not been adequately defined or established so as to enable the easy formulation of hypotheses.

These case studies allowed me to analyse within and across each context. These case studies helped in investigating several cases to comprehend the similarities and differences between the cases. Such case studies can be used to predict similar results with the aim of a literal application or contrasting results with the aim of theoretical replication (Yin, 2003, p. 47). For example, these cases helped me to investigate the similarities and the differences of the ten teacher participants’ thoughts and ideas as to CLIL teaching and their motivation towards it. It also shed light on the attitudes of students towards CLIL teaching and learning and their experiences of the CLIL classroom. In this context, their conceptualisations and attitudes represented a case, as they comprised what Merriam (2009, p.41) calls the “bounded system”. Merriam described such a system as “an instance of some process, issue or concern”. Hence, within the phenomenon of CLIL implementation, teacher and learner attitudes represent a “bounded system” or in other words a case. The key characteristics of these types of case studies is that even that they deal with various case narratives and present them collectively, each of the case narratives is represented with its unique actors and setting (Shkedi, 2005).

While case studies are widely used, they have also been critiqued from different
perspectives. For instance, they are observed to have the capacity for a lack of accuracy (Zainal, 2007). In this connection, Yin (1984 cited in Zainal, 2007, p.21) points out at times the researcher using the case studies has not been adequately meticulous and has allowed equivocal evidence to shape the conclusions drawn. In other words, the richness of the data gathered can lead the researcher to different interpretations and towards potential bias. Moreover, they offer very little foundation for statistical and scientific generalizability as they utilize a small number of topics (ibid). The criticism that is commonly raised relates to the potential for generalizability based on findings from a single case (Zainal, 2007, p.5). This makes it hard for the researcher to reach a conclusion, which can be extrapolated to other settings (Tellis, 1997). Yin (1993) considers case method as a “microscope” due to the restricted number of sampling cases. To her, limited establishment as well as objective setting are much more significant in a case study than in a big sample size (ibid). A further criticism is that case studies are often considered as being too protracted, time consuming, complex, difficult to carry out and prone to generating a huge amount of documentation (Yin, 1994).

However, literature also supports the use of case studies. For instance, Pettigrew (1985) considers case studies as an effective strategy for “developing and refining generalizable concepts” and he also notes “multiple case studies can lead to generalizations in term of proposition” (p.67). Yin (1994) contends that case studies are useful tools that should be used for diagnostic generalisations, where the purpose of the researcher is to generalise a specific set of outcomes to some boarder hypothetical plans. Similarly, Walsham argues that the value of the case study depends on the “plausibility and cogency of the logical reasoning applied in describing and presenting the results from the cases and in drawing conclusions from them” (Walsham, 1993 cited in Myers, 2009, p.40). It was in view of these advantages that I integrated the use of this approach in the research design for this study.

4.4 Participants

Thirty participants including ten MAG teachers, and twenty MAG students were selected as participants. The schools, at which these participants respectively taught and studied were located in a government school in Ras al Khaimah, one of the emirates making up UAE. The MAG schoolteachers in general can include Emiratis as well as Arab expatriates. However, in the case of this study, the teacher participants were Emirati females, aged between twenty to forty years. Only two of the ten participants had an English teaching degree, while the others held either math or a science teaching degree in Arabic. The eight content teachers did not have knowledge of either CLIL or the English language. One of the two English teachers, teacher ‘S’, had good knowledge of CLIL and an excellent command of English, whilst teacher ‘N’ has good language skills but lacked knowledge about CLIL. The content teachers
amongst the participants had never taught English in their life before they were asked to teach CLIL. Most of these math and science teachers had more than 15 years of experience in teaching science and math in Arabic. For the past ten years, they have been teaching grade four students in MAG schools, using the traditional way of teaching adopted from the onset of their teaching careers. They had not undergone any training with regard to CLIL prior to the implementation of the innovation. They began to receive training after the MAG programme had begun to be implemented.

Twenty Grade 4 female Emirati students (two each), drawn from the classes of the ten teacher participants, took part in this research. They were all selected once the purpose of the study had been discussed with the participating teachers.

4.4.1 Participant Selection

In this study I used a purposive sampling method. As generally understood within educational research, sampling refers to the process of locating participants or sites for research in order to obtain access to the research site and to establish a relationship with the participants provide for collecting relevant data (Creswell, 2012). During the process of sampling, the objective is to secure a representative sample of the target population (Mouton, 1996, p.110). It involves the selection of a selected number of people from the target population. The logic behind sampling a small group of participants purposefully selected by the researcher is to ensure that they will represent the larger population from which they have been drawn and reflect characteristics relevant to the research questions (Schumacher & McMillan, 1993).

It can be agreed with Lincoln and Guba (1985) that there is no sampling without any purpose in mind. I decided to use the purposive sampling method to select this study’s participants due to two reasons. First, it allows the investigator to choose unique and rich cases for in-depth study. These information rich cases as Patton (1990) notes would help me gather information about phenomena that are vital to the aim of my study. The second reason was of convenience. For example, interviewing the participants and observing them is time-consuming. Therefore, the aim was to get relevant data from relevant participants as efficiently as possible within the time frame available.

4.5 Pilot Study

A pilot study with three CLIL teachers and three CLIL students was conducted two months before the actual study. The participants were interviewed and observed over a week. The data gathered were not used to inform the findings of this study, but the process was vital as it helped to refine the research design, the interview guide, themes, classifications and organisation of the information, and strategies for data
One of the changes made as a result of the pilot study was to the way student interviews were conducted in the actual research. It was found that inviting students to volunteer for the interviews rather than requiring them all to participate in these conversations made them more amenable to sharing views and perspectives regarding CLIL teaching. It was also decided that to help the interview conversation flow, the students would be interviewed in Arabic rather than English, as this was the language, which they were most comfortable communicating in. There was no change made to the interview items as such.

Moreover, conducting the pilot study helped to identify several practical difficulties regarding the research methodology. For example, at the beginning of the research, I planned to use questionnaires. However, conducting the pilot study established the ineffectiveness of using such method in the selected contexts. The responses were ineffective and lacked trustworthiness. Thus, the pilot study assisted in strengthening the research methodology and the trustworthiness of the research carried out in this study.

4.6 Methods of Data Collection and Procedures

This section describes the methods used to collect data. The data for this study were obtained using three data collection methods: observations, interviews and document analysis. Data were collected through individual interviews, focus group interviews and classroom observations to allow triangulation and to develop dependability and therefore credibility of the interpreted outcomes, as suggested by Schumacher and McMillan (1993). Document analysis was also used. For instance, posters, students’ work, teachers’ work and classroom rules and principles, and student progression charts were analysed. The purpose of this was to explore existing knowledge in the field, and to identify critical questions as well as possible gaps in the literature (Denscombe, 1998).

4.6.1 Observations

Observation was one of the key methods used to collect data. Observations are fundamental in qualitative studies as they permit the researcher to detect certain patterns of behaviors. It can also be argued that required data could be gained solely using interviews. However, it is significant to remember that “individuals are often unaware of their own conduct, especially of practice and routines to which they have become accustomed over time” (Teague, 2012, p.50). CLIL classrooms are no exception, as neither teacher nor students have conscious attitudes and beliefs towards teaching and learning in CLIL, which inexorably direct their actions in the classroom. Hence, the key reason behind the decision to use observation in this study was the observable information that it could provide in identifying characteristics of the
classroom relevant to CLIL teaching and learning, such as quality of learner participation, materials used, and teachers’ teaching and preferences. Using observations permitted me to observe how teacher beliefs expressed in the interviews were enacted in their classroom behavior and how they impacted their instructional practices. For the purpose of this study, it was decided that participant observation would be used as this "combine[d] participation in the lives of the people being studied with maintenance of a professional distance [allowing] adequate observation and recording of data” (Fetterman, 1998, pp. 34-35). Participant observation is defined by Schensul, Schensul and LeCompte (1999, p.91) as "the process of learning through exposure to or involvement in the day-to-day or routine activities of participants in the researcher setting".

4.6.1.1 Observation Procedures

The observations were carried out twice a week in science and math content classes in two different MAG schools, with the aim of finding patterns of behavior and attitudes towards CLIL teaching and learning and their effect on the CLIL programme’s success. All the ten teacher participants were observed. During the first month, neither students nor teachers were participative. However, as the data collection progressed, the participants grew accustomed to my presence, allowing me to blend into the class environment and observe them in their natural setting. Twenty observations were conducted from March to May 2014. These observations were scheduled according to the teachers’ timetable. The total numbers of observations were limited to twenty as different school celebrations and exams took place within the study period, and on these occasions conducting an observation was not possible. The data from the observations was rendered into field notes, which were later typed up and saved on the computer to ensure easy retrieval. Each session consists of the following details: researcher’s name, observation number, observation purpose and teacher’s anonymous given alphabetical letter by the researcher.

4.7 Interviews

Interview was the second method used in this study. According to Teague (2012, p.53), interviews permit the researcher to probe interviewee responses with a view to collecting insightful data about participant experiences, attitudes, values and feelings, amongst other factors. It is noticed that when conducting qualitative type of studies, many researchers tend to combine observations and interviews as instruments of their data collection as these can build on each other and prove quite complementary. To be more specific, the data acquired from the observations can be discussed, confirmed, explained, extended, and reflected upon during the interviews sessions. In this way, respondents easily reveal attitudes and thoughts to the issue at hand. Considering that, this research focused on the attitudes and beliefs vis-a-vis CLIL and CLIL
teaching and learning, interviews proved to be essential for generating rich data.

Interviews can range from structured, semi-structured to unstructured interviews. It is believed that deep ingrained thoughts and beliefs can only be achieved by face-to-face conversations. As Flick (1998) notes, such interviews are expected to allow better access to participant views than standard questionnaires requiring no interaction with the respondents (p.29).

McMillan and Schumacher (1993) point out that qualitative research calls for interviews with open-ended queries so as to access participant views on how they interpret their world or events in their lives (p.29). This method was selected in view of the nature of the research problem and the learner and teacher attitudes towards CLIL teaching and learning. Thus, face-to-face interview methods were chosen as they provided insights into the phenomenon of CLIL implementation as experienced by the participants and helped to gain access deeply ingrained thoughts and beliefs. For the purpose of this study, unstructured and semi-structured interviews were found to represent a beneficial and practical choice for collecting data.

Informal interviews were carried out mainly with teachers and students before and after the class, and on occasions in which the researcher happened to meet the students and the teachers in the school grounds during the breaks or after school. As the research was carried out, formal in-depth interviews were conducted with the participants. Qualitative interviews emphasising “the relativism of culture, the active participation of the interviewer, and the importance of giving the interviewee voice” (Kuntjara, 2001, p.35) were utilised. The interview questions were semi-structured. The participants were asked identical questions and some of their responses were taped for later transcription and analysis. Tape-recording was crucial as it helped in securing the data. However, not all of the participants agreed to be recorded for some personal reasons. Therefore, the responses for some of the interviews were transcribed by hand during the session. Using qualitative interviews was advantageous as it allowed me to involve the participants in the process of research, to interact freely with interviewees and furnished the opportunity to clarify data emerging from the conversations (Bless & Higson-Smith, 2000, p.104-109).

4.7.1 Individual Interviews Procedures

In this study, semi-structured in-depth individual interviews were conducted with the participants. These interviews allowed the comparison of participant perceptions and attitudes towards CLIL and identification of the relation of these to CLIL programme success. As stated above, such interviews permitted the researcher to obtain deeper understanding of the participants’ personal and communal beliefs towards CLIL and CLIL teaching and learning. These interviews were piloted with other participants before being carried out in this study.
Interviews with the participants were conducted during the months of April and May 2014. As mentioned above, the participants comprised ten CLIL teachers and twenty CLIL students. All of the interviews lasted approximately 30 minutes with each teacher and 10 minutes with each student. All of the interviews were conducted with the formal permission of each of the participants (See appendix 1), and subsequently transcribed by the researcher. Further, those who did not want to be taped were asked for verbal permission to refer to their responses in this research.

Individual interviews involve piloting “intensive interviews with a small number of respondents to explore their perspectives on a particular idea, program, or situation” (Boyce & Palena, 2006, p.3). They are useful when detailed data about the participants’ perceptions and attitudes are required and when new issues need to be explored in depth (ibid). Individual interviews are often used to provide frameworks for other data, thereby providing a more intense information and a complete picture of what happened and why (ibid).

When conducting individual interviews, researchers have to remember that interviewing is much more than asking questions. The questions have to be well designed and wisely worded to achieve the kind of data the researcher requires to answer the research questions (Leedy & Ormrod, 1985).

4.7.2 Focus group Interviews Procedures

Before discussing the interview method used to collect data, I will begin by explaining the guidelines I followed to carry out the interviews with the children in particular. As this study sought to collect data from twenty students of grade 4, it was important to keep in view the guidance available in literature for carrying out research with children. Pinter (2011) suggests that researchers working with children must focus on a number of things before and while doing the research. These should include examining their own “underlying beliefs about children and childhood” and how these influence the kind of project chosen by them. In this instance, I believed in the model of a “‘strong, resourceful child’” who could work with me as an adult researcher in providing valuable insights into her attitudes towards CLIL teaching and implementation, thereby implying that the young learners participating in this study were “able to take control and responsibility” for the judgments they were contributing to the research (Pinter, 2011, p.202-203). Hence, in view of the research questions, this understanding also led to the decision to include an exploration of the learner attitudes to CLIL implementation in addition to that of teacher perspectives. Pinter also advises that researchers should be aware of and conform to the research ethic guidelines applying in their “context/country/institution”. In my context, this involved securing permission from the gatekeepers (Ministry and Principals) for
carrying out the research as well as fulfilling the ethical research requirements of my own University (Consent Form). The learners were interviewed on school premises within groups.

An effort was also made to reduce the “power gap” between the participating learners and myself by “getting to know them, reassuring them about focus of research, respecting their voices” (Pinter, 2011, p.204). The consent of the participating learners was also sought, and it was ensured that they understood the aims of the study (Pinter, 2011, p.208). Given that “one-to-one conversations with a researcher are often difficult for children” (Pinter, 2011, p. 212) and children are likely to be more participative and more likely to share opinions if they are in the proximity of friends they trust (Spencer and Flin, 1990, p.213), I chose to carry out group interviews by inviting participating learners to volunteer for these, rather than compelling all learners to take part in the interviews. The participants who volunteered for the interviews were friends who trusted one another enough to voice their opinions frankly. In line with the suggestions made by Pinter (2011, p.214-216), I also made further accommodations for the younger learners participating in the study. These included using their “stronger language (L1), namely Arabic, to ask the interview questions (p.214) as well as “ground[ing] the questions in the discourse of the children” so that the “probing and questioning [were not] threatening and linguistically unusual to the children.”(p.216).

The interview method was chosen to obtain data related to the attitudes and perceptions of the teachers and students towards CLIL and to identify the reasons underlying these attitudes and perceptions. Four teachers in each of the two MAG schools in this study and twelve students (5 in one school and 7 in the second school) participated in these interviews. Four sets of interviews were conducted with each group of participants bearing in mind that ‘interviewers who propose to explore their topic by arranging a one-shot meeting with an interviewee whom they have never met tread on thin contextual ice’ (Seidman, 1998, p.11). In this study, four focus group interviews were conducted with the teachers and two with the students selected for the study.

Schurink and Schurink (1998) define focus group interview as a “purposive discussion of a topic or related topics taking place between nine to twelve people with similar background and common interests” (p.30). Focus groups involve spoken and non-spoken modes of interaction and communication of thoughts and beliefs of the participants. It allows the researcher to build on new ideas and concepts. Authors such as De Vos (2002) believe that the focus group is critical for achieving deep insights into the beliefs, attitudes and thoughts of a research participant in a setting of active group interaction. More specifically, focus groups help to obtain data related to how participants think and to clarify perceptions of events, thought, belief or
experience. As Schurink and Schurink (1998) put it, the method saves time and is economical for the researcher and participants can carry on the conversation at the same time and in the same place (p. 2-5).

After carefully listening to, reading and analysing the first interview data, I formulated additional questions aimed at exploring the participants’ perceptions of CLIL and CLIL teaching and learning. Subsequently, the student participants were asked if they would be willing to meet as group to answer several more questions. Each discussion lasted approximately 40 minutes. The discussion outcomes were written by hand and later transcribed in a word document. It was difficult to record the students, as some were uncomfortable being recorded. Therefore, I had to respect their request and transcribe the interview instead of recording the conversation.

Furthermore, I asked the ten participating CLIL teachers if they could dedicate 45 minutes after school on days that were suitable for them to elaborate on some of their statements and comments given during their previous interviews. After getting their agreement, I interviewed them for about 45 minutes in four different days. I could not tape-record the interviews; they refused to be recorded for personal profession related issues. They ensured me that they would provide more authentic information and details when not being recorded. I believe that it was because they found the prospect of being recorded as a risk to their jobs. These interview-sessions generated additional data that enhanced and deepened the previous data, by answering those research questions related to the teachers’ understanding and attitudes as well as students’ attitudes towards CLIL teaching and learning.

4.8 Document Analysis Procedures

In addition to observations and interviews, I gathered and analysed some formal and informal documents available in the classroom and from the participating teachers. That is, as they would help in supporting my observations and interviews outcomes. These included posters, students’ work, teachers’ work and classroom rules and principles, and student progression charts. Those documents were photocopied, photographed and scanned for analysis. Permission was requested for when a piece of the participants’ own writing was scanned or photocopied. Such document analysis allowed me to examine the effectiveness and the extent of CLIL use in the classrooms and offered an authentic, illustrative basis for triangulating data from different sources.

Using document analysis method can be effective in showing existing knowledge in the given field, studying critical questions, and revealing gaps in the literature (Denscombe, 1998). However, when analyzing these documents, there are
possible drawbacks that one should be aware of. One of them is that the collected documents may be unfinished. Also, they might not be produced for my study purposes and would be complicated to comprehend (Merriam, 2009). Moreover, they would be difficult to validate or to examine for accuracy (Creswell, 2012; Merriam, 2009). Thus, it is significant to have a level of confidence in the validity and accuracy of the gathered documents.

There are some advantages along with disadvantages of using document analysis. One of the benefits is that they are easy to access. They may, in some cases, be the only method to use in order to access data (Merriam, 2009). Another is that they are long lasting and can be accessed by other researchers to validate information (Denscombe, 1998). According to Johnson and Reynolds (2015) there are also a number of disadvantages associated with this method. These include the researcher having to depend on processes and procedures of data collection followed by the organization, confidentiality and inaccessibility of the raw organizational data in some cases and difficulty in working out the practices followed by organizations for keeping their records. However, overall this method played a vital role in supporting my interviews and observations findings.

4.9 Methods of Data Analysis

This section describes data analysis procedures. First, data regarding source and content of the collected data is discussed. This is followed by an evaluation and analysis methods utilized. Finally, the outcomes of the data analysis and their application to the study will be described.

In this qualitative study, I used inductive data analysis to analyse the dataset. Thus, the data itself shaped the content, topics, outlines and categories of analysis. As Patton (1990) states, they arise from the information collected rather than being imposed on them former to data collection and analysis. According to Marshall and Rossman (1995), researchers have to be analytical and follow analytic procedures when conducting a qualitative research. These include organising the information, producing categories, topics, outlines, examining the developing theories against the data, finding explanations of the data and writing the report.

I began the data analysis by clarifying the main phrases and terms that will be used in the process which was done through reading and rereading the data. As Marshall and Rossman (1995) assert that events, participants and what they say during the data collection period sift continually through the researcher’s mind. Once I had developed typologies for certain key features of the procedure, I searched for outlines, classifications, and topics to form the basis of a typology would be built to clarify my outcomes. However, this was not an easy task to do, as such structures, as Patton (1990) declares, need to be done with considerable care in order to avert generating
unauthentic outcomes that do not exist in the data. When all my classifications and outlines became evident, I started the procedure of evaluating the credibility of emergent theories and assessing them through the data. I also looked for additional and alternative reasonable clarifications for these data and link among them. These alternative clarifications do exist and are significant. Every researcher must look for, find, define them, and then demonstrate how the clarification offered is the most credible (Marshall and Rossman, 1995). When writing about the data as a researcher in this study, I always kept in mind that it is a continuous procedure in qualitative study, and that it cannot be separated from the analytical process.

In this research, data were analysed using an iterative method of content analysis method of content analysis where I was searching for each classification in the whole data set and all examples were compared until a new different classification could be recognized. When using this method, I went through four stages involving (1) comparison of events valid to each classification, (2) integration of classifications and properties, (3) delineating the theory, and (4) explicating the theory (ibid).

Most of the interviews were audiotaped and transcribed, coded, and organised into topics, classifications, and outlines that would evolve out of the produced data in this research. At the stage of open coding, I had already formed initial classifications of data about the issue being studied by dividing the data using continuous comparative method mentioned above. The classifications covered many issues in relation to this study questions whether indirectly or directly. Moreover, each of the classifications was assigned a code. During the process of open coding, I was identifying several different categories. Some of these categories would be specific while others would not be so. In axial coding, subcategories are linked to their classifications through the model (Strauss and Corbin, 1990). These subclasses are related to a classification in a set of relationship representing casual situations, issues, setting; intervening situations, actions, and consequences in a grounded theory (ibid). In this study, I had to identify the central categories related to my research. They were all coded and categorised in terms of similarities and differences in relation to my study. In the process, each of the emergent categories was given a code.

4.10 Transcription

An exact word for word transcription was generated of each interview and observation in Arabic language. Some of the transcribed interviews and observations used in the thesis were then translated into English. The process of translating was labor-intensive, however, I needed to be very careful in order to guarantee that the reader gets relevant meanings and values of the interviews and observations.
4.11 Trustworthiness of the Research

In this study credibility, dependability, transferability and conformability were key aspects that were used in order to establish trustworthiness of the research. The reliability of the data collection methods is very significant, as “the conclusions researchers draw is based on the information they obtain using these instruments” (Fraenkel and Wallen, 1993). This indicates the necessity for ensuring that the study provides trustworthy outcomes by establishing the above-mentioned criteria. Evaluating the accuracy of findings in qualitative research is not easy. Still, a number of strategies and criteria can be used to ensure the trustworthiness of the findings.

4.11.1 Trustworthiness

This is a term used by qualitative researchers to measure the quality of their studies. The term represents the extent to which the findings and their analysis are credible as well as trustworthy. A number of methodology experts, Guba and Lincoln (1981), Krefting (1991) and Creswell (1998) recommend four strategies for ensuring the trustworthiness of qualitative research. These include credibility, transferability, dependability and conformability, which run parallel to quantitative measures of internal and external validity, reliability and objectivity. Each strategy uses standards such as triangulation, reflexivity and intense explanations (Thomas, 2010) to ensure trustworthiness is achieved. In view of the foregoing, I opted to use the term ‘trustworthiness’ to discuss the credibility of the study findings.

Positivists often question the trustworthiness of qualitative research. This may be because common concepts of validity and reliability cannot be addressed in the same manner as in naturalistic studies (Shenton, 2004). However, several authors such as Silverman (2001) have proved how qualitative researchers may combine standards that deal with these issues. In addition, there are many researchers e.g. Pitts (1994) who have tried to respond directly to these issues in their own qualitative work. Nevertheless, several naturalistic researchers have favored using a different term for the purpose of distinguishing themselves from the positivists (Shenton, 2004). One of those researchers is Guba (1981). He suggested four criteria that a researcher has to consider when conducting a qualitative study. It can be said that his concepts correspond to the criteria used by the positivist researchers; for instance, credibility is analogous to internal validity, dependability to reliability, transferability to external validity and generalizability and comfortability to objectivity (ibid). While Lincoln (1995) proposed that the entire area of qualitative research was still emergent and in the process of being defined, Guba’s concept has been recognised by many (in Shenton, 2004) as being useful for establishing the credibility of qualitative research.

4.11.2 Dependability of the Findings

94
Dependability is analogous to reliability. This refers to the extent to which the data collection instruments can produce consistent outcomes if implemented more than once in the same situation or if implemented by different researchers (Opie, 2004). According to Lewis, Ritchie, Ormston and Morell (2013, p.356), “the reliability of the findings depends on the likely recurrence of the original data and the way they are interpreted”. As De Vos et al (2002) note, ‘reliability is primarily concerned not with what is being measured but with how well it is being measured’ (p. 169). Authors such as Marshall and Rossman (1999) and Seale (1999) argue that it is hard to accomplish an absolute replication of qualitative research as they reflect social realities, which are dynamic and changeable. They refer it to as an unrealistic requirement. However, it is believed that reliability is not impossible to achieve. It can be agreed with Seale (1999) that, reliability may be attained through reflexivity, which explicates the procedures leading to the research conclusions (p.158).

However, reliability is problematic. Human performances, behaviors, attitudes and perceptions are susceptible to change depending on various stimuli. In addition, implementing research in different institutions with different cultures and contexts or by different researchers might not essentially generate the same outcomes. That is to say that the implications are reliant on the personal development of meanings based on the researcher’s experience and knowledge and expertise at collecting data and understanding them. Therefore, the traditional concept of reliability is not applicable to qualitative research. As Merriam (1998) points out, within qualitative research, reliability must be determined by whether or not the outcomes tally with the data gathered.

To enhance dependability in this research, I undertook a number of measures. Most of the interviews were taped in order to obtain more dependable evidence and to avoid faulty recall. Gray (2004) suggests that taped conversations are better than syncopated field notes at ensuring the requirements of reliability (p.345). Furthermore, the interview questions were outlined clearly and the participants were interviewed in a natural manner using a natural tone of voice. When the participants misunderstood any question, the question was repeated and clarified to assist them understand what they had been asked. Also, the participants were given the right to explain their personal beliefs and views freely without any interference of any kind from the researcher that could form bias in the participants’ answers. Moreover, the observations’ purpose and procedures were discussed with the teachers being observed to avoid any misunderstanding that would affect the research’s dependability. Additionally, I acted as a ‘fly on the wall’ and did not interfere in any way during the lesson either with comments or gestures that would create bias in the teachers’ teaching while being observed.
It is evident that the circumstances of the current research would differ if replication were to be attempted. Therefore, in order to assist others to comprehend the study procedures and decisions and to enhance the potential for replicability, the processes were set out clearly. Detailed information about the purpose of the study and the research procedures as well as rationale for the selected data collection instruments and research strategy have been documented in this chapter.

4.11.3 Credibility of the Findings

Credibility is a significant factor in establishing trustworthiness (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). It refers to the credibility and dependability of the data collected and the analysis (ibid). Credibility runs parallel to internal validity, which relates to how study outcomes match reality. Nevertheless, in qualitative research, reality is related to how participants view the reality of their lived experience within social contexts (Thomas, 2010). Therefore, this research might be valid for the researcher but not essentially for the readers ‘due to possibility of multiple realities’ (ibid, p. 319). It depends on the readers’ judgment of the extent of the research credibility based on their comprehension of the research. According to rationalists, realities are difficult to be discovered, as there is more than a single reality that exists in a social context (Smith & Ragan, 2005). Each human builds his or her own personal realities within a social context (ibid). Hence, from an interpretive viewpoint, understanding is constructed in interaction with others in the world, and there is no objective reality to which the findings of the research might be compared. Thus, to ensure credibility, I developed an understanding of the research participants’ culture as well as context before the first round of data collection took place. This was accomplished by visiting the school on a regular basis and spending time with the research participants. Also, it was made clear to the participants that they had the right to withdraw from the research at any point without any explanations. This ensured that participation in the study and the subsequent sharing of information would be free of any coercion. Moreover, I asked both of my supervisors and the research participants to check the findings in order to obtain feedback, interpretations and inferences on the data. Despite its disadvantages, I also chose member checking by the participants to confirm that the data was accurate. It can be agreed with Lincoln and Guba (1985) that, inviting the participants to check the findings is a “critical technique for establishing credibility” (p.314).

Another method I used to ensure credibility of the research is the pre-testing instrument. It can be agreed with Burns and Grove (2001) that the data collected on pre-test would advance the responses of participants. It is a ‘small-scale trail of the data- collection instrument to determine clarity of questions as to whether the instrument elicits the desired information’ (Kasinja, 2009, p.53). In order to ensure validity, the interview schedule was pre-tested on three students and two teachers.
teaching and learning in CLIL. Participants were interviewed on separate dates, individually and in privacy to avoid other participants over hearing and that data obtained from the pre-test was not disclosed. Moreover, two observations were conducted in two different CLIL classrooms on two different dates, which venue and scheduling suited both the teachers and the students. Based on the results of the pre-test outcomes, adjustments were made. The data gathered from the pre-test were omitted, as they were not part of the research.

The research took place in a natural environment, as the purpose was to explore the participants’ knowledge and experiences of teaching and learning in CLIL. Conducting the data collection in a natural setting helped to ensure the validity of the emerging data. The participation and the responses obtained from the participants were more natural and realistic as they were observed and interviewed in an environment that they were familiar with. This helped avoiding issues like discomfort and anxiety that could affect the data collected.

4.11.4 Transferability of the Findings

The ability to assess trustworthiness ensures “credible and defensible outcomes” (Johnson, 1997, p. 283), and this can lead to transferability, which is one of the criteria proposed by Stenbacka (2001) for documenting and conducting qualitative studies. It can be said that the quality of a study is associated to transferability of the outcomes and therefore to assessing and elevating the trustworthiness of the study. According to Maxwell (1992), the extent to which a study is considered to be generalizable is a factor that that visibly differentiates between a qualitative and quantitative research strategies. Despite the fact that the generalizing of outcomes to broader groups and contexts is a common quantitative criterion of validity, Patton (2002) proposes generalisability as one of the tests for quality research depending on the cases chosen and studied. According to him, ‘the validity in quantitative research is very specific to the test to which is it applied, where triangulation methods are used in qualitative research’ (Golafshani, 2003, p.306).

Triangulation is the means adopted by researchers to secure trustworthiness (Pierce, 2008). Mathison (1988), for example, advocates triangulation stating that it addresses an important methodological issue in naturalistic and qualitative approaches by enabling the establishment of bias-free and valid outcomes (p. 13). In addition, Patton (2001) asserts that combining methods is an effective way to reinforce a study. When using triangulation, researchers can apply this strategy to methods in both qualitative and quantitative approaches (ibid). Nevertheless, Barbour (1998) challenges the notion of combining methods within a qualitative paradigm. According to Barbour, “each method within the qualitative paradigm has its own assumption in terms of theoretical frameworks” brought to bear upon the research (p. 353). Barbour (1998)
does not argue against using triangulation in qualitative paradigm. However, she stresses upon the necessity of defining triangulation from a qualitative study’s perception in each paradigm. I agree with her because, unlike quantitative studies, exceptions in qualitative research do not cause disconfirmation of the theory (Golafshani, 2003). They can be used to adjust the hypothesis and are productive.

All of the above-mentioned arguments in favour of triangulation impacted the decision to employ the strategy in this research. In this research, triangulation is the key means for ensuring transferability of the findings. To this end, different types of data collection methods including observations, individual interviews, focus group interviews, and document analysis were used.

Findings from observational data were triangulated with data from the individual semi-structured interview outcomes. The data from the focus group interview were triangulated with data from the observations and the document analysis. Therefore, triangulation was applied at various points to arrive at conclusions based on multi-perspectival insights.

4.11.5 Confirmability of the Findings

Confirmability represents the degree to which the research findings can be confirmed by other investigators (Baxter & Eyles, 1997). This relates to ensuring that the findings are derived from data (Tobin & Begley, 2004, p. 392). Several studies indicate that confirmability of qualitative study is accomplished through an audit trail and triangulation (Bowen, 2009, Seale 1999; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). According to Seal (1999) auditing is an effective technique for ensuring confirmability, through which the researcher provides a “self-critical account of how the research was done” (p. 45). To make auditing accessible to other researchers, I have archived all the data in an organized form so that it is available for analysis, if the research outcomes are challenged. In addition, I have used the triangulation approach explained above.

4.12 Using the Social Constructivism Paradigm

The aim of this research was to “engage in research that probes for deeper understanding rather than examin[es] surface features” (Johnson, 1995, p.4). Constructivism was seen to assist in achieving that purpose. The concept of constructivism is that reality changes even if the researcher tries to control it (Hipps, 1993). Looking at this research via a constructivist lens means valuing the multiple realities the participants experience in terms of CLIL. Thus, to assure credibility, transferability, conformability and dependability of the research, I have used multiple methods of collecting and searching data. Using triangulation was one of the most significant means. The methods mentioned in the previous sections and data
triangulation helped to establish that the documented of the phenomenon was sound. To advance the analysis and the comprehension of the multiple realities the research participants, PhD colleagues, and my supervisors’ interpretations of the data collected were considered throughout the research process. As Johnson (1997) maintains, the use of triangulation and the consideration of notions and clarifications produced by additional members can assure effective research outcomes and a better understanding of the case in hand.

4.13 Ethical Considerations

To ensure the ethical conduct of the research, the researcher observed the following:

4.13.1 Permission to Conduct the Research

I obtained permission to conduct the study from the Ministry of Education (See appendix 2). After obtaining the permission, I explained the purpose of the research to the participants. When briefing the participants, the first ethical principle that I considered was the principle of autonomy implying “the right to self-determination and the right to full discourse” (Polit and Hungler, 1999, p.102). Self-determination means that the research participants are given the right to decide voluntarily if they want to take part in the research or terminate their participation. Thus, I had to get informed consent before conducting the study. According to Streubert and Carpenter (1999), the design of qualitative study requires a different method to informed consent. Those authors believe that consent is an ongoing procedure that has to be renegotiated as the study progresses. The participants were apprised as to the purpose and the nature of the research as well as what would be done with the findings once the research had been completed. Participants were promised confidentiality, anonymity and privacy and were informed that their contribution was voluntary and that they could withdraw at any time. Additionally, I ensured that the participants’ rights to self-determination and full discourse were endorsed. Moreover, the participants were given a written consent form to indicate their readiness to contribute in the research (See appendix 1). The form was saved separately from the interview schedule and the document analysis folder so that it could not be used to identify the participants.

4.13.2 Privacy and confidentiality

This principle is based on the principle of respect. According to Burns and Grove (2001), privacy is the right of an individual to determine the circumstances, time, and extent, type of information to share or withhold from others (p. 200). In order to ensure confidentiality in this research, the participants were interviewed individually and their personal details were omitted in the interview schedule. In addition, they were not compelled to answer any question. They had as choice as to answer the
question asked or not. The participants’ names and identity were not written anywhere on any of the documents gathered or in the interview or the observation schedule so as to maintain anonymity. Participant names were anonymised.

4.14 Conclusion to Chapter Four

This chapter provided details of the methodology, including research approach, data collection methods, procedures, trustworthiness of the study and ethical considerations. In addition, the chapter also established the rationale for the research design adopted in the study. The next chapter will present the findings and analysis of the study.
Chapter Five: Research Findings and Analysis

5.0 Introduction to Chapter Five

This chapter presents findings on CLIL implementation as experienced by the teachers and students who took part in the study. Presentation of the findings will cover participant perspectives on teacher and student perspectives on and attitudes towards CLIL, curricular factors influencing the use of CLIL in UAE, relationship between teacher motivation and CLIL and between CLIL materials and impact on teachers and learners. The discussion that follows is based upon the coding model developed from the codes and themes identified in the data (p.101-102):
5.1 Theme 1: Teachers’ Understandings of and Attitudes Towards CLIL

5.1.1 Teacher identified Challenges in the Implementation of CLIL

A key finding to emerge from the data pointed to a lack of knowledge about CLIL amongst the teachers prior to the implementation of the programme. According to teacher ‘D’ and teacher ‘N’, who were two of the first teachers chosen to teach CLIL in Ras Al Khaimah, an emirate of UAE, they learnt about the new programme nine days before the school opened (See appendix 6). Five of the participating teachers experienced a similarly abrupt introduction to CLIL. They were not involved in the programme nor were they trained for it prior to the implementation. The participants noted that this had an impact on the way they viewed CLIL and used it in their classrooms. The lack of CLIL training disadvantaged the participants significantly and pointed to the need for an in-depth needs analysis (Butler, 2005) prior to programme implementation, which could have identified the need for CLIL teacher training in advance. The lack of training may also possibly account for the wariness
towards CLIL displayed by the participants and subsequent dilution of CLIL effectiveness in the participating schools.

An overwhelming majority of teacher participants did not know how they would teach an integrated lesson, as they had neither prior CLIL teaching training/experience nor an English literature degree or English language certificate. They all had either a degree in Arabic science or Arabic mathematics. They also confirmed that they had no prior knowledge of English language teaching and that they had no longer than a month to acclimatize to the idea that math and science were to be taught in English instead of Arabic. Upon learning this, they were given course books and asked to follow the instructive step-by-step lesson plans provided by the administrators. The participants indicated that they were not given a choice as to whether or not they wanted to be CLIL teachers. The extent of their struggle is illustrated by the experience of one of the teachers, Teacher ‘G’, who observed:

“No one likes to be a joke in their own class. It is hard when you know that you are teaching something you and the students know you are weak in. It is so embarrassing sometimes. Imagine a student asks you something you don’t know the answer of? I feel like a student. I always go back home and STUDY for my tomorrow’s lesson. Imagine I STUDY it while I am supposed to PREPARE for it. It so hard and time consuming, I hate that”. (See appendix 4)

The quote above reflects a number of themes common to the experience of all the participants. One is the challenge to their self-conceptualization as authorities in their subject areas. The strength of Teacher G’s loss of professional self-worth is evident in the descriptors (joke, embarrassment) that she uses in describing her attempts to teach her subject through CLIL. Two other themes are evident in the extract above. When Teacher G says that she feels like a ‘student’, this seems to offer evidence of her latent belief that ‘teachers’ are not ‘students’. CLIL is primarily a methodology of European origins, premised upon Western notions of teacher as lifelong learner at odds with the Arab notion of teacher as expert. Another idea which is emergent in this quote is that of CLIL being ‘hard and time-consuming’. It can be assumed that the lack of training prior to programme implementation can be linked up to this, although management have attempted to address this issue by providing teachers with pre-prepared lesson plans. This again reflects a symptomatic approach to implementing curricular innovation wherein deeper issues of teacher readiness for CLIL implementation are overlooked while shortcuts such as ready-made lesson plans are utilised instead. This would seem to resonate with the idea that materials and documentary curriculum support are adequate substitutes for trained teachers. Overall, the themes evident in the quote above reflect teachers’ struggle with the notions of CLIL pedagogy.

CLIL teachers also faced challenges with using English as medium of instruction (EMI). In the extract quoted below, Teacher F notes the need for English language lessons to meet the demands for using EMI successfully. Her chief struggle seems to
be with keeping up with vocabulary needed to teach her subject in English. As her own training for the job has made use of Arabic as the medium of instruction, her lack of acquaintance with English terms for the content she is teaching is natural. The extract below also showcases the lack of collegial support due to colleagues facing difficulties with CLIL themselves or a lack of time. She sees teaching through CLIL as a burden wherein her work is doubled due to the need to prepare her lesson and learn the language to deliver the lesson. This corroborates Teacher G’s observation that teaching via CLIL is demanding and time consuming. Teacher F’s own experience of learning seems to coming into conflict with CLIL pedagogy, which demands the use of EMI, rather than her native Arabic, for teaching her subject. The fact that her education and training has been dominated by the use of Arabic as a medium of instruction appears to be a major factor in her present struggle with using EMI within the CLIL model. Again, this seems to suggest that policymakers have not taken into account the past experiences of teachers as learners as a contributory factor to the success or failure of CLIL implementation. This appears to have been exacerbated by the lack of CLIL training at the outset, which may have mitigated the impact of teachers’ past experiences on implementation. The quote also shows that teachers’ needs during the implementation process are not being addressed appropriately, pointing to a lack of curricular support for the CLIL teachers.

“They have to give us English language lessons. It is so hard for me to keep up with all the vocabulary. I cannot ask my colleagues 24/7 as I know that either they are struggling as me or have no time, as most of their time is spent figuring out how to teach tomorrow’s lesson. They really have to give us English lessons or let us teach as we used to where math and science were taught in Arabic, much easier. Now we have two jobs, learning the language for the next lesson as well as studying and preparing in unusual way for it” (Teacher ‘F’, see appendix 4).

Data shows that the majority of the participating teachers face similar constraints and issues. Given that readymade lesson plans were available to facilitate the CLIL teachers, it appeared necessary to question in depth the source of struggle for the teachers tasked with implementing these. The participants indicated that the teachers faced issues with almost all aspects, which make CLIL successful, namely using EMI expertly as well as, content and method knowhow. The teachers indicated that i) they could not understand the English used to explain the tasks and the instructions in the lesson plan, ii) that they found the equations difficult and requiring more study and iii) that the pre-prepared lessons are complicated and needed time to be understood and for adaptation to the local context. Another issue, which emerged in connection with the lesson plans was that of participant oversight in following the lesson plan as laid out exactly. During lesson observations, it was found that all teachers had different topics, tasks, levels and styles while teaching the same lesson in five different classes. In some cases, the teachers would achieve the lesson objectives broadly but not follow the lesson plan exactly, while in other cases, the teachers failed to achieve even this. In some cases, it was found that while teachers were able to
follow the lesson plan successfully, they could not use EMI effectively, misusing
English or even resorting to the use of mother tongue throughout the lesson.

This reflects a lack of comprehension as to the aims of CLIL, which is to use English
not just as a vehicle for communication but also to build up English language skills
while teaching content. This links up to the participants’ conventional
conceptualisations of learning and language, which compel them to see English as the
means rather than the end in teaching via CLIL. The objective of providing more
exposure to English via CLIL so as to improve English proficiency amongst Emirati
learners seems to have been overlooked by the participating teachers.

In addition to these challenges, CLIL teachers in the research context struggled with
the workload created as a result of the need to maintain an achievement folder, which
serves as a record of the tasks and projects they have undertaken in the form of
pictures, videos, CDs and relevant documentation. This is linked up to assessment of
the teachers’ effectiveness. Participants indicated that they felt pressured by the need
to maintain the folder and that not only was it time consuming but it also put a strain
on collegial relationships, due to the competitive aim and outcomes of achievement
folders. Once a month, the folder is submitted to the school principal, who awards the
teacher a mark based on the quality of the work, and the teacher who secures up to
90% receives an award for being ‘The teacher of the month’. This practice, while
well-intentioned, seems to be creating more challenges for the participating teachers
who tend to see maintaining the folder as a burden rather than as a developmental and
formative exercise. In addition, the idea seems to give rise to competitiveness rather
than collaboration, setting apart teachers rather than bringing them together to
implement CLIL more effectively. The function of the achievement folder seems to
have become punitive with participants stating that as it is mandatory, they risk losing
marks and getting a bad report from the administration (see Appendix 6). The
teachers’ discontent with the practice is reflected in this quote from a teacher, who
notes that she wants the Ministry to eliminate the requirement for the folder:

“I wish the ministry cancels it. It is a waste of time and energy. It is a bad idea. All teachers’
focus on nowadays is how to make their folder look and sound the best. Now teachers do stuff
not for their students’ success but to make sure that their folders is full of picture of and smiling
students who has to show that they are enjoying the tasks. For example, they would delay or
cancel a whole lesson just to apply a project that has no relation to the curriculum neither the
students to fill their folder with its pictures and reports” (See appendix 6).

This shows that the intended objectives of maintaining the achievements folder have
been sabotaged and transformed into something negative, disrupting curriculum
implementation rather than improving effectiveness of CLIL implementation. This
seems to suggest that there is some distance between what the Ministry has
conceptualized and how it is implemented by the administration and subsequently
experienced by the teachers.
In addition to the achievement folder, teachers have to organize and/or take a part in competitions in and outside the school. They have to prepare their students for it during the class or in their free or preparation time. These competitions then become an achievement to be documented in the achievement folder. Teachers, as the findings show, have no objection to being part of these competitions; rather it is the amount of time and energy needed for these, which are a source of concern. During the group discussion, teachers revealed that they could get in trouble if they refused to participate in a competition. As one of the teachers observed with regard to the mandatory nature of such competitions that “when the order comes from ‘up there’ we have no choice but to do it”. Another teacher added:

“We have no problem, and we love to participate as it is a great chance to show our talent and creativity as well as our students’ abilities. It is only when they ask us in the last minute and ask us to spend our classes and preparation times to just focus on the competition and train students for it” (See appendix 6)

A third teacher shared that a whole week of hers was wasted as she had to prepare a student that she does not even teach for a story telling competition. The administration decided to change the students at the last minute and as time was tight, they selected her to train the new student, as she was a highly ranked teacher in the school. She described how the week was taken up with training the student and leaving her students to do revision worksheets. During observations, it was found that many of the other teachers followed the same practice, when they had to coach two or three students, consigning their own students to revise earlier topics on their own. These incidents suggest two things. The first is the administration’s high-handed approach to promoting co-curricular and extra-curricular excellence amongst selected students at the expense of planned curricular activities for the rest of the students. The second is the teachers’ lack of autonomy is also evident in this, for when the administration assigns such work, they are not given a choice to accede or not accede to the directive. The link with the achievement folder is also a disincentive to disagree for most teachers mindful of their assessments and evaluations. Both are reflective of challenges to successful CLIL implementation at school level.

The teachers’ education and training poses a further challenge to CLIL implementation. During the data collection process, it was found at the MAG schools participating in the study, there were more than twelve English teachers, of whom only five had a degree in English teaching, whilst the rest had no English language teaching qualifications. These teachers were content teachers who relied largely upon translation as a second language support. It was found that they could not visualize themselves as both competent language and subject teachers. Rather, they could be successful content teachers OR language teachers. This led to a lack of discussion amongst teachers, which could lead to a more effective implementation of CLIL in their classrooms requiring a full integration of content and language. In addition, the
teachers were found to be unenthusiastic about using or sharing resources received for content or language classes. This corroborates Coyle (2007 cited in Coyle et al. 2010) and Marsh’s (cited in Coyle et al. 2010) contentions that one of CLIL’s main disadvantages is team teaching. The teachers interviewed considered their lack of content and English language proficiency to be the reason behind their reluctance to work in teams, confirming Butler’s (2005) point that teachers’ deficiency of the content or the language knowledge has a huge impact on CLIL success. That is to say, teachers might link the success of CLIL to their level of English and content proficiency. As discussed earlier, the teachers had not received CLIL training. However, surprisingly, it was found that they did not think they needed such training. Rather, they believed that all they needed to implement CLIL successfully were English courses to improve their language skills. This suggests that teachers’ understanding of CLIL is inadequate, with eight out of ten teachers believing language to be discrete from content in CLIL. During observations, it was found that the average lesson taught by the participating teachers employed conventional pedagogies wherein language and content are taught separately as two different subjects. The lesson commenced with the presentation of the vocabulary and then the use of Arabic to explain the content. This was noticeable across the multiple classroom observations carried out in the study (See appendix 3). For instance, in one session, the teacher only used one English, phrase namely ‘fruit salad’ during an hour-long class. The rest of the lesson was about the steps for making fruit salad and the ingredients were explained in Arabic. When interviewed, she said that the reason she used Arabic was because she wanted the students to understand the content. She believed it was important for the students to learn the new vocabulary and what these words meant in their own language in order to understand the content. Moreover, she states:

“I believe my way of teaching is harming no one even that I know I am not following what they are asking me to do. However, I am following the objectives, so at the end of the day the students get what they are supposed to get. Two things cannot be taught at the same time as students would not understand the content if its connected to teaching a language as well. It is too much for the students. There should be one focus” (See appendix 4)

It is interesting to note how the teacher sees the objectives as being separate from the methodology and how she privileges her own ‘way of teaching’. This shows her personal epistemology at work, which is further evidenced in her belief that content cannot be understood at the same time as language for it is ‘too much for the students’. The majority of teachers showed consensus upon this point, suggesting a shared belief in the efficacy of the previous system in which teaching/learning was separated from the subject teaching/learning. This also provides evidence of resistance to the new programme, reflected in the foregrounding of prior beliefs, techniques and methods when teaching. The participants were also of the view that they could make CLIL move by changing CLIL ‘a little bit’ for effective implementation in their classes. This suggests the significance of enabling teachers to
analyse their own beliefs and tally these with the requirements of the CLIL pedagogy, which again is something that can be made possible only if teachers are provided in-depth CLIL training beforehand and continuing support during implementation.

Teacher participants identified training opportunities, support by the Ministry of Education, and teaching resources were as being vital for the success of the CLIL programme, factors perceived to be relevant to quality assurance in CLIL (Coyle, 2007). Two schools supervisors who were interviewed revealed that although these factors were important, they were rarely addressed in practice. For example, enough training opportunities were not available for teachers and the ones they got did not serve the programme’s objectives. One of those supervisors said that:

“There is no need analysis for the teachers’ needs when they, the trainers, prepare for the training sessions. The training is always teaching teachers what they already know not what they need to know about how to effectively implement CLIL in the class. Most of the teachers find those sessions useless, as they believe all the sessions are the same and not serving their needs. There should be a real needs analysis when doing these kind of things”

The quote above shows that CLIL programme implementation is not being supported appropriately through the trainings available, as these are not tailored to teacher needs rather to reprising existing knowledge. A possible solution offered by the supervisor is that the Ministry should support the teachers by ‘going easy on them’. In other words, teachers have to be given enough time to prepare themselves and the lesson. One of the teachers suggests that:

“The Ministry would do teachers a great help if they cancel the achievement folder and the other extra activities that we have to do. If they do that then we will have time to follow whatever they want”. (See appendix 4).

The supervisor agrees with her, as she believes that giving the teachers extra work on top of what they already have to do to prepare for CLIL classes is too much and can lead to distress as well as further resistance. The resistance of teachers is not surprising as this is a likely scenario when innovation fans out from the center to the periphery, where the teachers, the materials and the students are under prepared to contribute to effective programme implementation (Lyster & Ballinger, ). With reference to resources, teacher claim that the course books are so complicated, and most of them lack relation to the students’ lives. This point links up to the complexity of the readymade lesson plans identified earlier, which makes it difficult for teachers to implement CLIL. In the quote below, a number of themes can be identified, ranging from the difficulty of lesson content, lack of contextualization to local context, doubt over future utility of content being taught and lack of belief in teaching it through EMI or a non-native language. One teacher commented saying that:

“It is hard to teach my students some of the parts in the lesson plan. How can you teach students a subject that has nothing to do with the students’ lives and that you know that they would never
benefit from it in the future? In addition to that you have to teach it in a nonnative language” (See appendix 4)

As cited in the literature, when teaching via CLIL, resources should match the students’ needs and should be related to their lives. As Ballman (1997) asserts, the publishers and curriculum planners need to produce books or lesson plans that are related to the kind of life learners experience in their settings. This lack of resources is a key disadvantages faced by teachers, as it implies more workload for CLIL teachers (Cooran, 2007 and Moore& Lorenzo, 2007), who may have to adapt CLIL materials for local use.

The challenges identified with CLIL extend into conflict over assessment objectives as well. The non-language National examinations lay emphasis upon the content while CLIL focuses on both the language and the content at the same time. This creates difficulties for the educational process manifests a specific set of targets, while the national test is directed by a different agenda. Observation of classroom sessions showed that eight of the teacher participants persisted in using conventional pedagogy wherein language and content were taught separately.

Insights gained from inquiring into the research context suggest that school principals and CLIL supervisors can play a pivotal role in facilitating content as well as language teachers to collaborate with one another to teach subject matter, even in the absence of initial training. Such stakeholders have a prominent role in effectively adopting CLIL as a top-down process (Mehisto, 2008). If they do not do that, content teachers who lack language skills might prioritise content over language learning and language pedagogy (Vázquez, 2007). Under such circumstances, CLIL supervisors can act as a link between the students and the content and language teachers (Pavón & Rubio, 2010). They can help to ensure the proper implementation of CLIL wherein content and language are balanced and supported by methods and resources that contribute to this integration. This is particularly the case when teachers find it hard to teach collaboratively with their colleagues.

5.1.2 The effect of Teachers’ prior experience on their Teaching of CLIL

This section discusses the findings on the effect of the teachers’ prior teaching experience upon CLIL teaching. Also, some of the challenges that faced and is facing those teachers is discussed.

Interview data showed that in their grade one to grade twelve classes, teacher participants, who used to be language teachers before CLIL was implemented laid stress upon enhancing student proficiency in reading, writing, speaking and listening. Whilst those who were Arabic math/science teachers tended to focus on improving their students’ abilities to understand the content and teaching them techniques to
memorise the content. Moreover, the teacher’s role, whether language teacher or content teacher, was to encourage their students and cultivate their self-esteem, show concern for their emotional well-being, and encourage them to collaborate with their classmates. One of the teachers recalled that:

“Teaching was more organized and more specific. Teachers knew what and how to teach. Our target was one, which was either to teach the language or the content. We had a plenty of time to be focused and improve our students’ abilities. We used to give our students more than now” (See appendix 4).

‘Give more’ is indicative of encouragement, support and time. The main focus of their teaching objectives was to improve their students’ capability to cope with the examinations, preparing them to pass the final national exam. During the interviews and the group discussions, all the teachers shared their belief that they were and are teaching to prepare the students for the exam, which is seen as their main target. CLIL is developmental and formative, whereas an exam-led target has a point of culmination and is evaluative. Therefore, it is easy to see why the CLIL teachers found the shift to CLIL challenging. One of the teachers called her teaching as a ‘scary job’. She pointed out that:

“It all depends on the teacher. Sometimes we really do not bother if the students are enjoying the lesson or understanding it, all we care about is that the students learn the lesson by heart. The have to memorize the vocabulary as well as the content sometimes” (See appendix 4)

The above quote reveals a focus on memorization as a learning strategy. The aim of such a strategy is to reproduce rather than to create, criticise or synthesise, which are common aims of constructivist epistemologies wherein understandings are constructed rather than regurgitated via rote learning. This idea was reinforced by the other interviewees who also observed that prior to CLIL implementation, teachers based their tasks and teaching on the instructions and activities contained in the textbook. Although some of the interviewees claimed to organize meaningful communicative activities, based on the data, it was evident that their activities were embedded in controlled activities ranging from memorization of grammatical rules and drills. This reflects a transmission-oriented view of teaching, with the teachers holding fast to the idea knowledge could be transferred to the students via teacher-centered techniques, irrespective of suitability for the latter. Despite the shift to CLIL, it would appear that teachers have a preference for conventional, teacher-centered pedagogies with an ultimate focus on the national examination.

When questioned as to their reluctance in changing their methodology to one more appropriate to CLIL, the participants demonstrated a belief in the discrete nature of content and language. As one teacher noted:

“CLIL is an effective method, however, we cannot follow every element of it. We have to teach it as two different subjects that is language and content. We cannot teach them as integral parts.
If we do so, then I assure you that the rate of students’ exam failure will rise into 80% to 90%. In CLIL we have to teach grammar, vocabulary and content at the same time. This is too much. I cannot use a language to teach content when I know no students of mine or maybe few can understand. This is unfair for the weaker students” (See appendix 4).

The very strength of CLIL, namely the integrated nature of content-based language instruction seems to be perceived as a weakness by the participants. This suggests i) an inadequate understanding of CLIL and ii) an assessment-led view of teaching/learning. When examples of successful of CLIL implementation were brought up, the interviewee observed that CLIL could not succeed in UAE as teachers in foreign countries had better resources and better CLIL training. Most of the teachers shared her views, with one teacher observing that the earlier system in which content was not taught using EMI was more effective:

“We were taught in the old fashioned way were English was taught as a subject an hour a day and math and science was taught in Arabic. I am not seeing any difference. In fact, I feel that our Education is better than nowadays. We are better taught than the new generation” (See appendix 4)

This lack of faith in CLIL pedagogy can be linked to the interviewee’s own experience of learning, which influences her belief in the efficacy of conventional education. Almost all the teachers agreed with her view, noting that the way they were taught was much better than the new methods including CLIL. They evinced the belief that the new methods are a waste of time and not useful. This shows that the prior learning experiences of teachers have a deep impact upon their attitudes towards educational innovation, such as CLIL in this case.

In terms of practical teaching attitudes and beliefs, teachers’ personal prior learning experience have been termed a greatly influential factor (Shulman, 1987) in the context of impact on teacher practice. Data from interviews and observations as well as documents in this study show that the attitudes of teachers and their beliefs about teaching and learning are highly influenced by their personal history and learning experience in classrooms. The way teachers teach CLIL is the way they have been taught, irrespective of the vastly different pedagogical demands of this new approach. When asked to describe the main aims of their current teaching approach, eight of the participating teachers interpreted the aims of their teaching in CLIL classroom in the following way:

1. The aim of their teaching is to allow students to master English language in a methodical way, improve their proficiencies in English language use, enhance students’ skills in collaborating with their peers, to enable them to think in English and to assist students in developing their reading, writing, listening and speaking skills.
2. A secondary aim was stated as ensuring that the students were learning the techniques that could help them pass the national exams, including the improvement of their self-confidence and teaching them some techniques of how to be ready for the examination.

3. Another aim was to make sure that the students were learning the content by heart and are coping with it.

Interestingly, these aims were drawn not from the CLIL booklet given to them at the outset, stating all the aims of the programme and what they were supposed to teach. All of the participant teachers believe that the given aims and targets were not effective for their students and that they knew better what suited their students and their levels. Eight of the participant teachers believed that they should be given the freedom to choose the methods they wanted to use as well as the resources. They rationalized by noting that this was the way they had been taught and that this was the best methodology possible. During observations, it was found that only one of the studied teachers, teacher ‘S’, followed CLIL in her teaching as advised in the resources provided by the Ministry of Education (See appendix 3). She succeeded in effectively modifying the resources to better suit her students whilst using CLIL. The other nine followed their own ways of teaching while trying to implement the exact lesson plan structure provided by educational ministry, demonstrating that teachers in the UAE context are capable of using CLIL in their classrooms, if they are sufficiently motivated and can overcome their prior beliefs. When participants were questioned as to the possible ramifications of their covert ‘resistance’ of CLIL methodology, one of the teachers observed:

“How can you be in trouble if you are accomplishing all the objectives of the lessons by the end of the week? For me the target is to make sure that the students are passing the inn class as well as the final test. If the students pass those two and get good marks then there will be no trouble, but yes if they don’t then here you get into trouble. The ministry or the administration do not care much about what do you use in the class as they care about the students’ results in their exams” (See appendix 6)

The above quote highlights that not only are the teachers’ exam-focused but also the Ministry and the management, which use student results as an indicator of achievement and attainment, despite implementing CLIL, essentially a constructivist and developmental methodology. Tellingly, another teacher added that:

“I have never followed what is in the plan. All I do is look at the objectives part. What is the difference of teaching each element alone? Wither you teach the language and content together or teach them separately, the results are going to me the same. The only difference it going to make is that, students who are taught our way is going to be stronger as you are teaching them everything by heart where they cannot forget and are going to for sure pass their exams” (See appendix 6)
The persistence of belief in conventional methodologies is evident in this quote. By implication, this extract also suggests that adequate mechanisms do not seem to be in place to monitor effective CLIL implementation, with CLIL teachers being left to make pedagogical decisions arbitrarily. During visits to the schools, it was found that as a monitoring mechanism CLIL teachers were observed by teacher inspectors from the Ministry of Education once or twice a month to ensure that CLIL was being implemented properly. Teachers who were going to be observed were informed in advance about the visits by the Ministry, thereby gaining enough time to prepare the perfect CLIL lesson. Giving a teacher prior notice gave her enough time to prepare a model CLIL lesson to impress the stakeholders, gain a high mark among colleagues and/or obtain ‘the teacher of the year’ title. It was also noticed that teachers would enact a different methodology whenever they were being monitored by anyone in authority. On one occasion, a normal math class (See appendix 3) in which the students were learning about fractions was transformed when the teacher noticed the principal walking in to speak to a student. She immediately changed the lesson into a vocabulary game, with the students following her lead and responding accordingly. When the principal had left, the class returned to normal, and the teacher continued the math lesson as usual. After the class, I asked the teacher why she had change the direction of the lesson and she explained that:

“The stakeholders want us to do games and lots of student centered activities above all the other things they assign us to do. That is impossible. That is including the preparation and the learning we have to do. This is too much. So we have to always prepare that extra perfect lesson just in case they enter the class. I even have a file called ‘extra activities’ for that purpose” (See appendix 4).

This extract indicates that CLIL implementation is superficial and resistance to CLIL due to conflicting teacher belief in conventional methodologies is reflected in strategies of pedagogical subterfuge. Even more interestingly, the students appeared to be complicit in the exercise of such subterfuge. The teacher shared that she had coached them to deal with such situations by following her lead:

“I have taught my students and told them about what to do in these kind of situations. They were so co-operative. I told them that I would get in trouble if they do not do so. I am so proud of them. Between, this is not the first time they have done this. I am not the only one though, many teachers I know are doing it and I actually learned it from them” (See appendix 4).

This quote indicates that the practice is widespread, involving teachers and students alike. It may also be taken as a coping mechanism developed by CLIL teachers to make up for the lack of CLIL knowledge and lack of belief in CLIL methodologies. Rather significantly, this teacher was well-regarded as an effective CLIL practitioner, having won a ‘Teacher of the Year’ Award.
5.2 Theme Two: Students’ Understanding of and Attitudes towards CLIL

5.2.1 Introduction Theme Two

The realities of economic globalisation and the development of the United Arab Emirates market have created the need for new foreign language and intercultural competencies. Hence, the UAE Ministry of Education has focused on bilingualism as a way to promote English language proficiency and communicative competence amongst learners. In view of the belief that the learners needed more exposure to English than a single class of forty-five minutes every day, the Ministry implemented the CLIL approach in selected schools, wherein math and science were taught through EMI, bringing learners’ exposure to English to a total of three hours, including the English class.

After a year of implementing CLIL in the UAE schools, the Ministry of Education clearly believes in the success of this teaching method and is integrating it in the educational plan:

“The results are very clear. MAG students consistently scored between four and six per cent higher than students in non-MAG schools, a difference in performance that is very significant. After less than one and a half years’ learning under the new system, students' performance on a standardized exam clearly shows that major progress is being made. One interesting aspect is that most schools teach for the tests, particularly for the Common Educational Proficiency Assessment, more commonly known as CEPA. MAG schools teach general English. Instead of tailoring instruction ‘for the test’, they teach their students practical English in a natural and very effective way” (Chadwick, 2009).

The popularity of CLIL has increased in some schools across the UAE in 2009, a year after CLIL was first implemented and tested in the UAE schools. The outcomes showed a significant improvement showed in students’ summative exams results comparing to the last year’s results. They scored higher than the non-MAG school students according to (Chadwick, 2009). The number of schools adapting MAG has increased within the time from 2008-2014, which is held to be evidence that CLIL works and is entirely appropriate for the UAE context.

Such unqualified praise based on student test score data is understandable, but the findings of this study show that many students, who are important stakeholders in the MAG programme, have fears and concerns about CLIL. Twenty grade four students from ten different classes were interviewed to find out about their experience of CLIL and their opinion of the approach. The interview was conducted critically according to the students’ age and understanding, in order to get reliable outcomes.

The interview began with a general question about the importance of learning English for the students. The interviewees agreed that English language is a ‘must’ in today’s
personal or professional life, as they all believed that being proficient in English is a key to achieving a bright future. This confirms research drawn upon in section 2.1, which found that Emirati learners have a positive view of English language learning. They all seemed to love the concept of CLIL in general, with most students stating that they preferred learning science and math in English rather than in Arabic. Again, this could be due to the idea that English is the language of modernity and modernization, which tallies well with UAE’s well-publicised economic and national development goals. Extended exposure to English under the MAG programme was also seen as being beneficial, confirming the view that maximizing English exposure to the students is crucial to become proficient in the language, and that CLIL can be an effective method to use the language as a vehicle for instruction’ (Coyle et al., 2010). However, positive views of CLIL as a learning approach are not paralleled by positive experiences in learning through the methodology. This is an interesting finding for it pinpoints to an explanation for less effective learner performance within the CLIL approach. Interviewees were questioned about their reluctance learn through CLIL and their expectations of the approach.

The interview and observation data suggest that the reasons for student wariness of CLIL can be attributed to the following:

1. Lack of English skills and understanding of the concept
2. Deficiency in the English skills and concept knowledge of the teachers
3. The higher workload for CLIL lessons
4. Less subject related input
5. Having no opportunity to use or practice the language
6. The teacher centered style of teaching
7. Teacher’s lack of interest in teaching

The lack of English and subject matter comprehension can be linked to students’ restricted exposure to English in their prior education, as they were taught only an hour of general English a day. As one student noted, “When I first knew I will be in the new program class, I was scared. I was never good in English and now I will have to face it three hours a day” (See appendix 5). Such apprehension suggests that learners’ prior English language experiences and restricted proficiency shape their response to CLIL implementation under MAG. Eighteen of the interviewed students described their experience with CLIL as overwhelming. They claimed that during the class they could not sometimes understand what the teacher was saying. An example given by a student was that of the teacher reading aloud from the course book. While the MAG programme may have been implemented with the best of intentions, it seems fairly evident that learners’ prior experiences were not identified as a source of difficulty in implementing CLIL effectively. Another example was that of being asked to read a paragraph or an article they could not comprehend. The interviewees pointed out that everything the teachers gave them was difficult and not
understandable (See appendix 7). It would appear that this concern can be linked up to the difficulty of the materials, which have been provided by the educational ministry, to teach language and content through CLIL.

During classroom observations, it was noticed that teachers put less effort, if none, in scaffolding their students and in making sure that they comprehended the lesson. Their concern, as observed earlier, was mainly to finish the lesson on time. This focus could partially be attributable to the pressure of the final exam. According to Dakkak (p.13), it “reinforces a system of ‘rote learning and memorization over critical thought and analysis’ ”. Dakkak points out the overwhelming significance of the exam stems from the fact that performance in the final exam determines not only the learners’ admission to next levels, but also the major they will take. Hence, the focus of the teachers on comprehension of content over learner scaffolding and effective implementation of CLIL pedagogy can be understood in the context of the high stakes testing the final exam represents.

At the same time, greater understanding of CLIL methodology itself would enable teachers to check students’ comprehension of the content and the language used, as would more cooperative tasks and peer learning. It is evident that such understanding can only be constructed through exposing teachers to comprehensive CLIL pedagogical training.

The interviewees also complained about the lack of practice during the class time. This tallied with data from classroom observation, which showed that the majority of the teacher participants began their lessons by introducing the new vocabulary and explaining it in ‘Arabic’. Subsequently, the whole topic was explained using the students’ mother tongue, which was followed up by a task that the teacher or the course book provided. The only feedback available to the students took the shape of teacher responses to collective task completion. Such a lesson is not in correspondence with CLIL principles reflected, for instance, in the 4Cs curriculum (Coyle et al., 2010), which lays emphasis upon equal focus on reading, listening, speaking and writing. These skills are significant in bilingual education, with each being deemed a major source of input in the content and language learning process.

When asked to compare their experience of learning through CLIL with learning through the previous system, one of the students described her experience as being the most difficult three hours she had to face every day. She stated:

“Being in the class specially during the math and science exam is a ‘pain’. I cannot understand anything. However, I do understand a little bit from the English language class as I have been taught that way since kindergarten” (See appendix 5).

Majority of the interviewees (17) shared similar feelings about the science and math classes. They observed that the way their teachers act/teach when teaching these
two subjects are totally different than how they would in the general English class, pointing out that in the general English class, the teachers is more relaxed and comprehensible. The interviewees saw the purpose of the English class as ‘memoriz[ing]’, the new words and the grammar rules, without a parallel focus on the concept (See appendix 7). Whereas, in math and science classes, the focus of the learners’ concentration was upon both the language and the concept. The students noted that the teachers focused more on teaching the target vocabulary than the concept. This can be attributed to the lack of prior training and guidance for teachers in delivering the CLIL programme efficiently. The CLIL programme, as discussed in chapter one, was as new for the teachers as it was for the students.

In view of earlier discussion, the teacher focus on vocabulary and memorization is attributable to a number of factors, which include an i) incomplete understanding of CLIL principles and objectives, ii) focus on assessment rather than learning and iii) adoption of a controlled, teacher-led approach in science and math classes to compensate for linguistic proficiency and to preempt learner questions, which may lead outside the teachers’ linguistic comfort zone.

In view of the above, five CLIL teachers were interviewed and invited to explain use of Arabic and greater focus on new vocabulary. As the quote below shows, teachers lose their self-confidence when teaching math and science in English. One of the teachers observed that:

“Sometimes when I am teaching math, I feel so stressed during the lesson thinking about what if any students will ask me something I don’t know the answer of like solving an equation. I never liked math. Sometimes students even ask about words that I do not comprehend. That’s embarrassing” (See appendix 4).

This extract confirms the teachers’ use of rigidly structured lessons with emphasis on vocabulary and memorization as a way to exert control over the direction of the lesson and to conceal their own lack of content knowledge.

Half of the student interviewees felt that the CLIL teachers were not adequately qualified to teach via CLIL. Interestingly, they suggested that the ideal CLIL teacher should be a native speaker, as she would have better content knowledge and greater linguistic ability and proficiency for teaching via CLIL. They observed that when the teachers found it difficult to explain something in English, they tended to use Arabic. In one instance, when a student asked her teacher the meaning of ‘peach’ in English, the teacher replied ‘I don’t know. Don’t bother yourself, it’s not going to come in the exam anyways’ (See appendix 5). This suggests the teachers’ lack of confidence in using CLIL and their focus on assessment. These also constitute the reason for students’ dislike of CLIL and experience of insecurities when being taught science and math via CLIL. Tellingly, one student questioned the viability of expectations that student English proficiency would increase as a result of CLIL implementation.
She wondered “How would they want us to be good in English if our tutors are not?” (See appendix 5). This represents a major hurdle in effective CLIL implementation in the UAE context. The use of a teaching methodology implemented by underprepared and under confident teachers confronted with students who are daunted by the demands of learning through CLIL is hardly a recipe for curricular success.

Findings suggest that there are two key reasons for the dearth of opportunities to practice learning skills during lessons. These include lack of knowledge and the language deficiency of the teachers. The interviewees observed that the teachers’ lack of confidence was reflected in their teaching, and that the classes were more teacher-centered than before the innovation. Additionally, students are given less or no time to implement the knowledge they receive and are also disallowed from questioning the teacher during the class. These findings tally with teachers’ own observations in earlier discussion as to their lack of confidence teaching via CLIL. It would appear that disallowing learners’ questions and not providing them enough time to practise their skills in class are just some of the strategies, which CLIL teachers participating in this study employ in an attempt to survive CLIL instruction.

Findings show that Arabic is used extensively in the CLIL classroom. It would seem that the use of Arabic allows learners to understand enough of the lesson for them to get by, thus relieving the pressure on teachers. Although interview data showed that students blamed the excessive use of Arabic for their negative perception of CLIL, it is more likely that it is Arabic, which allows the learners to understand the content in CLIL lessons. Hence, the use of Arabic is a mutually beneficial strategy for teachers and learners alike. The contradictory findings probably arise from students’ lack of understanding of CLIL pedagogy. For instance, when asked how she would prefer the CLIL lesson to be implemented, one of the students says i) CLIL lessons should be centered on communicative activities, ii) English should not be used all the time and iii) Arabic should not be neglected in class. Several student interviewees (6) express similar preferences, suggesting that the misapplication of CLIL leads the students to misjudge CLIL as they remain unaware of authentic CLIL methodology.

The following conversation represents the opinions shared by most of the students and reflects the views of almost half of the students questioned about the use of Arabic in the class.

- Student B: I would love my teacher to use games and activities. Also, use new technology. Like the iPad the government provided each of us.
- The researcher: Don’t you use it at all?
- Student B: Never
- The researcher: Why?
- Student B: When we ask the teacher, she says we have no time for it and it’s a waste of time.
The researcher: Do you think it necessary to be used?

Student B: yes, because the principal and the course coordinator has told us that there are many programs and exercises uploaded that can really help us improve our skills and have fun.

The researcher: Did you speak to your principal about it?

Student B: No, if the teacher knows we might lose marks.

The researcher: What is the reason, in your opinion, of not using it in the class? Do you think it might really be a waste of time as your teacher claims?

Student B: Impossible. The use of Arabic is. The teacher spends more time in the translation than anything else.

The researcher: Can you give me an example?

Student B: She will read a text, translate it and then ask another student to read loudly. After that, she asks another student to translate it once again. She would repeat that four times or more. I wish if my teacher never uses Arabic.

The above extract seems to suggest that the objectives of CLIL pedagogy are being defeated at the classroom level, with untrained and under confident teachers resorting to conventional teaching methodologies under the guise of the new approach. Data suggests that while the students may not be completely conversant with CLIL methodology, they are aware of things, which are lacking in their present learning and instruction. Hence, they state their desire for ‘a teacher who can be proficient in at least in the language’ (See appendix 5). They want to go beyond memorisation of the vocabulary to application and practice of grammar rules in class. The students need to know how to listen, read, speak and are able to write down the knowledge learnt. Additionally, teacher beliefs seem to play a great role in determining whether pedagogical techniques and teaching aids are used or discarded. For instance, in the above extract, the teacher considers iPads a “waste of time”. Her view that learning takes place through other, more conventional, modes or unfamiliarity or dislike of technology may be at work here. Whichever of these it is, policymakers and educational managers need to examine how these beliefs are obstructing the use of aids provided to facilitate student learning and make learning more enjoyable. Otherwise investment in expensive learning hardware or curricular innovation is unlikely to achieve broader government objectives with reference to student learning and engagement.

One of the prevalent issues seems to be that teachers appear to lack sensitivity to learner needs. For instance, during classroom observations, it was found that teachers had a tendency to respond negatively to student comments as to the excessive use of Arabic, with reactions varying from taking it personally and punishing the student to ignoring the comment and carrying on with the lesson. On one occasion, when the student voiced her concern by exclaiming aloud “Is this an Arabic or an English class? Seriously!” (See appendix 3), the teacher responded by saying “Shut your mouth, and if you don’t like it then get out of the class” (See appendix 3). The student
became withdrawn due to loss of face in succeeding lessons. Such an extreme reaction, while not reflecting well on the teacher, is also indicative of the stress and pressure faced by her and her CLIL colleagues in implementing the programme. This suggests the need not only for monitoring of CLIL implementation but also for better ongoing support for teachers and students.

5.2.2 Coyle’s Framework

Although research, (e.g. Lasagabaster, 2008; Coyle et al, 2010; Baderstcher, 2009) has provided evidence of positive learner outcomes via the implementation of CLIL methodologies, participant views indicate that teaching the language and the content integrally is a significant obstacle, for there is insufficient time to teach both at once.

Despite those documented evidence of the CLIL perspective, limited practical resources and support are available to prepare the teachers for teaching with the dual focus on content and language, which is integral to CLIL. Coyle’s (1999) “4Cs framework” is the simplest checklist that teachers can follow to guarantee effective CLIL methodology. It provides theoretical and methodological basis for planning CLIL lessons and creating resources. It is formed on four principles, which are discussed later on in the thesis (See section 3.2).

Findings suggest that participant teachers have an inaccurate understanding of CLIL, with most considering it to be about the transmission of content and skills. Analysis of worksheets and tasks used in class indicate a focus on memorization of content, rather than on knowledge the learners will need in the real world. Additionally, teachers tend to use Arabic or other techniques to make sure that the students acquire the target knowledge, irrespective of whether they are able to provide explanations of the content in English or not. Teachers also largely overlook the idea that in CLIL, the content matter is not only about receiving knowledge and learning skills but also about the students developing personalized knowledge. In other words, it is about the approach to learning wherein learners create their own knowledge and understanding. It is also about developing the learning skills and using it and the knowledge learnt not only within but also outside the classroom. In the literature review, there has already been discussion of how the change from teacher-focused to student-focused learning approach has been problematic in the UAE context. The added pressure of learning a foreign language and then using this to learn content subjects, as observed, can be extreme.

5.2.3 Lack of Cognitive Learning

Cognition is clearly related to learning and thinking, which understanding should be kept in mind when planning a CLIL lesson, for CLIL is not just about teaching and learning through English. It is about learners creating their own understandings. It is the ability to analyze the students’ linguistic needs and cognitive developments that
helps teachers to build up their own understanding of the content. During interviews, it was highlighted that some of the teachers did use tasks and worksheets, which were slightly challenging for the students. They planned their lesson bearing in mind their students’ cognitive and learning levels, with the resulting tasks being fruitful and beneficial and interesting for the students. However, these tasks were seen as time consuming and set aside for sessions in which extra time was available or if the principal walked in to observe the class. A number of beliefs seem to persist about the use of Arabic in class. It is seen as better for the learners to study math and science through Arabic so that their understanding is complete. Therefore, cognitive tasks are limited due to the ‘dual teaching’ of three different subjects, namely English, math and science in two different languages.

5.2.4 Disavowal of a Communication-based pedagogy

In CLIL, the language is the key principle for communication, which needs to be learned in context. In addition, it needs to be taught so that students learn through that language, recreating the content and the intellectual processes related to it. Hence, the language has to be clear and comprehensible to the students. Collaboration in the academic context is important to student learning, as this enables learners to use the foreign language successfully.

As discussed earlier, classroom observation revealed a lack of communication. Students were not given time to practise their skills within the class, which led to poor language proficiency. The lack of interaction and language use in the class resulted in creating ‘computerized students’, who knew facts about the language but were not able to use them. Observation of the students’ revealed that the students’ language knowledge was limited to the target words in the lesson, with students unable to use the words they had memorized in appropriate contexts. An example is that of student ‘N’, who is the top-ranked learner in the class. Her marks are the highest in class and she participates actively in class. During student interviews, she was asked about her learning strategies, and she pointed out that “You only have to be good in memorizing, that’s it” (See appendix 5). She believes that the key success in these classes is to memorise the vocabulary, their meanings in Arabic and the grammar rules. She was asked about her writing, as this was something that could not be memorized, for it requires an individualized response expressing personal perspectives and opinions. Interview responses from the students suggest that across the board, the writing is being memorized as well. They contend that the teacher gives them a statement with an example answer to be memorized and reproduced in the exam. Although, students are capable to use their own imagination and cognitive skills to write their own statement, they do not do so, with Student ‘C’ observing that even when she wants to use her own opinion or skills, the thought of losing marks prevents her from doing so. Her anxiety as to this is founded upon personal experience during an earlier exam. According to Student ‘C’, when she wrote an
exam response in her own words, she was given an F without clarification or feedback. Data shows that her experience is shared by many of the other learners. This is rather alarming for it seems that while lip service is being paid to CLIL implementation, the teachers seem to be going through only the motions of implementing the approach, while assessing learner understanding through memorisation focused measures, even to the point of penalising responses that demonstrate learners’ own understanding rather than stock responses. This misalignment is probably one of the key reasons for the reported failure of CLIL in many of the MAG schools.

5.2.5 Culture and Language Gaps in CLIL materials

The relation between language and culture is complicated. It can be said that it is the foundation of CLIL. Therefore, teachers must be aware of the significance of intercultural knowledge in CLIL. To accomplish effective teaching and learning outcomes, the Ministry of Education and the CLIL teachers require adaptable tools and recommendations on developing useful and applicable materials, which draw upon the 4Cs framework. I agree with Coyle (2007) that the stakeholders must respond to the need for quality and accountability of the materials being used in order to avoid programme failure.

Findings of this study reveal that productive language skills, speaking and writing in particular, are not promoted in the observed classrooms. Indeed, this is one of the unresolved issues that other researchers have observed in CLIL classrooms. Dalton-Puffer (2007), for example, has observed this issue while doing her research on CLIL. She noticed that students’ speaking and writing productivity is not promoted in many CLIL classes. Therefore, students fail to convey content matter appropriately. Researchers such a Viebrocks (2006, in Meyer, 2010) identified CLIL teachers as resorting to recurring patterns of argumentation, which led to high risks of CLIL being ‘misused’ as justification for old-fashioned pedagogies. Viebrocks (2006) findings have been confirmed in the context of this study as well. An instance of this is teacher H who owned that she disliked CLIL before even being a part of it, teaching it or acknowledging it (See appendix 4). The negative attitudes by the other CLIL or non-CLIL teachers made her anxious and doubtful about the effectiveness of the CLIL method. Thus, she continued to use her own teaching techniques, which she had used for the previous twenty-five years. Against this backdrop, for CLIL to succeed, stakeholders must consider producing flexible and accountable materials that can assure successful and effective teaching and learning outcomes, while promoting intercultural understanding. In addition, they must provide training to teachers to use and to contextualize these materials effectively, imparting not just training in using techniques effectively but also the ability to reflect on what they are doing and the impact of their prior beliefs and practices on current practice. At the school level, the Principal must play an extended role in creating a space for teachers to share and
discuss ideas and reflect on what they are doing in terms of CLIL, why they are doing it and how these ideas are in agreement and conflict with how they conceptualise teaching. Without such reflexivity, unexamined teacher beliefs are likely to insidiously dismantle CLIL through a practitioner culture of non-observance rather than overt resistance.

5.3 Theme Three: Curricular Factors Influencing the Status of CLIL in the UAE

5.3.1 The Lack of Planning in the Launch of the CLIL programme

As noted in the Literature review, the CLIL pyramid is based on the “4Cs framework” and was developed to help material writers and lesson planners generate effective and successful CLIL programmes. However, according to the data collected, the majority of the teachers interviewed were largely unfamiliar with the 4Cs framework, coverage of which had not formed a part of any preservice or in-service training. Only one teacher, teacher ‘S’ had a bachelor’s degree in TESOL and had received instruction in modern teaching methods including CLIL. In addition, she had graduated from an English medium university. Her classes were examples of successful use of CLIL approach. The final student results too supported learner attainment in her class, for they had scored higher than any other class in the school. Observation also showed that in her classes, English was used extensively, without recourse to Arabic. Her lessons were planned and presented effectively using the 4Cs framework and CLIL principles. Teacher ‘S’ was comfortable with the CLIL approach as it was similar to the way she had taught since the beginning. She believed that her teaching degree and her English language proficiency were key reasons for her success in the CLIL programme. Teacher ‘S’ felt that the Ministry’s decision to roll out CLIL without providing adequately-trained teachers was a cause for concern as ‘the new content and the language used in CLIL classes are to only be comprehended by professional English teachers or those who have ‘very good’ to ‘excellent’ English language skills. I don’t know how did those Arabic teachers survived and are surviving” (See appendix 4). The views of Teacher S are important, for as a trained non-native CLIL teacher, she is a position to compare how her teaching qualifications and English language proficiency have made a difference to her implementation of CLIL. This leads us the conclusion that CLIL implementation is not as impossible as on ground realities would appear to suggest. Indeed, if the Ministry of Education could exercise its mandate to begin intensive training/retraining of existing CLIL teachers while relieving them of the burden of some of their existing work, it is possible that more CLIL teachers could be persuaded to put in a performance similar to that of teacher S. In turn, this would lead to an improvement in learner performance in CLIL settings.

Analysis of the math and the science teacher-books reflects a degree of complexity lacking correspondence with the comprehension level of most of the existing CLIL teachers interviewed in this study. The content and the language used to convey this
are highly academic. Teacher experiences show that terminologies used to describe
the tasks contents and the vocabulary can take them two to three hours to comprehend
the lexis. This is apart from trying/figuring out how to pronounce the words and
putting the bits together for content comprehension as well as for teaching the lesson,
generating effective activities and creating techniques to present the new words.

To deal with this situation, the Ministry of Education has decided to hire native
English language speakers to support MAG teachers. Their job, as mentioned in
theme one, is to make sure that CLIL is being used properly in the class and to
provide guidance. Another responsibility is to write detailed CLIL lesson plans on an
everyday basis for all CLIL teachers (See appendix 8). It can be noticed that the
lesson plans are detailed and do not match with the teacher-book’s themes and tasks.
In addition, the details, the tasks and the objectives of the lessons give the teachers no
choice but to follow it precisely as it is. At the end of one of the observations in
teacher ‘J’ classes, I asked her whether teachers have the choice to choose whether
they want to use the lesson plans or not. The answer was ‘no’. Nine out of ten of the
teachers are glad to have those lesson plans. They believe that as the administrators
and the programme coordinators contribute to the design of the final exams, they are
the most relevant individuals to prepare the lesson plans. However, the teacher’s
beliefs are a misconception for the Ministry of Education prepares the mid and the
final exams in collaboration with the exam writing specialists. After the exam writing
procedure is done, the exam papers are kept secure and handed over to the students at
the time of the exam. Nevertheless, misconceptions regarding this continue to persist
amongst the CLIL teachers. If the aim of the Ministry of Education is to eventually
make more use of local expertise, especially at the planning level, providing lesson
plans to teachers is unlikely to achieve that. For one, rather than using ready-made
lesson plans, it would be better for CLIL teachers to learn to write those lesson plans
themselves, leading to a better understanding of CLIL philosophy, principles and
practices. This also ties in with notions of teacher autonomy. As long as CLIL
teachers are dependent on lesson plans created by foreign experts, they are unlikely to
gain confidence in applying CLIL independently.

While the teachers interviewed seem to find the structured lesson plans to be helpful,
it was observed that input from teachers needs to be factored in as “only the teacher
can understand the way students think about the subject and assess the students’
thinking methods and misunderstandings” (Teacher ‘S’: See appendix 4). Not
participating in the lesson planning has also created barriers between the teachers’
practice and the CLIL programme. It is likely that greater ‘buy in’ would be
experienced if the teachers were more involved in this process. Commitment to
curricular change stems from involvement in the macro as well as micro-level
decision-making. The Ministry of Education cannot expect the teachers to commit to
the CLIL innovation, if it does not empower them through trainings and upgradation
of expertise to understand and apply CLIL on their own. The dependence on foreign
experts is a form of infantilisation that the CLIL teachers need to outgrow in order to mature as practitioners. While the current CLIL teachers due to a lack of training are likely to continue to rely on these coordinators, the Ministry of Education would do well to plan things so that in time to come, reliance on foreign expertise is phased out and local seasoned CLIL teachers can fill in positions at levels wherein CLIL is planned. This would also result in a greater congruence of materials and methodologies with Emirati culture.

5.3.2 The Lesson Planning Conundrum

To cope with the rigidly-structured lesson plans, some teachers have adopted conventional pedagogies and techniques, which they find to be the easiest way to achieve their teaching targets. The teachers find that 180 minutes is not enough to achieve three lessons’ objectives and tasks. For instance, Teacher ‘J’ justifies using the ‘teacher-centered’ approach by explaining that “there are times when I do not teach as I should. I know it’s wrong but I have no time. I have to finish teaching three different subjects in three hours. The lesson plan provided is neither helping me nor my students”. She claims that if she uses ‘student friendly’ lesson plans, she would not be able to finish the curriculum on time. In addition, her students would not be able to pass the mid/ final exam. Ninety percent of the participant teachers agree with her.

Structured lesson plans are perceived in seemingly contradictory ways. On the one hand, teachers seem to be happy to have these to hand, while on the other some of them resort to using conventional teaching methodologies based on the argument that the lesson plans are difficult to implement in entirety due to shortage of time. Teacher ‘N’ believes that CLIL teachers might sound unsatisfied with the controlled lesson plans at times but ‘deep inside their mind and heart’ they are delighted (See appendix 4). She adds that the Ministry of Education has put CLIL teachers in a situation where they have no other choice but to accept the decision. Teacher ‘S’ agrees with teacher ‘N’ with both noting that, these ready lesson plans have helped them and many other teachers to manage their teaching responsibilities better. They now use that time to mark students’ exams and organise their teacher achievement portfolio. It has assisted them in achieving high teaching scores, which result in gaining more respect at the school. Confused perceptions as to the value of lesson plans stem from the teachers’ lack of self-examination as practitioners. The convenience of the lesson plans comes at a cost, and that cost is the loss of autonomy and the lack of opportunities to contribute to decision-making.

The difficulty of preparing separate lesson plans for English, math and science on a daily basis is evident, with each lesson plan requiring at least an hour or two of planning. For example, Teacher ‘H’ says that it took her and teacher ‘F’ seven hours to prepare a lesson plan for the math and science class, which put them off from
repeating the effort. According to teacher ‘J’, the pre-prepared lesson plans has helped many teachers accomplish their other duties on time. However, this finding and the earlier discussion make it fairly evident that the lack of teachers’ contributions to lesson planning prevents them from understanding and implementing CLIL appropriately.

On the surface of it, the hiring programme-coordinators was a wise decision. It took a lot of weight off the teachers’ shoulders, and as I was piloting my research at the schools, I noticed that the programme coordinators played an important role in uniting the CLIL teachers. Moreover, I have observed that CLIL teachers do not share or cooperate with one another very often. They like to work on their own. The programme coordinators organise most of the meetings and gatherings between the CLIL teachers. At both of the schools, I have noticed that the coordinators have built a small community of practice. Teachers are divided into communities that are based on the teachers’ interests and teaching responsibilities. During the meetings, the coordinators bring some issues and notes to be discussed and solved. Most of the issues are related to CLIL teaching/learning development. Also, teachers are allowed to discuss teaching and present ideas to the group. This, I have perceived, helped CLIL teachers a lot, at the beginning of the programme in particular. Those meetings were the only hope teachers had to better understand the new innovation and how to teach it. Despite these apparent advantages, however, the rules and regulations of the programme coordinators role prevent them from being privy to the uneven and sketchy implementation of CLIL and persistence with conventional pedagogies behind close classroom doors. Perhaps, if CLIL teachers in the school could mature into taking up these roles themselves, there would be greater likelihood of self-regulation with a view to accountability amongst themselves.

5.3.3 The CLIL classroom and the truth behind the closed doors

Early discussions with programme coordinators showed that they had a different and rather positive view of CLIL implementation than the one revealed in interview and observation data collected in this study. Programme coordinator ‘A’, for example, showed me her teachers’ teaching scores to support her belief in the effectiveness of the CLIL programme. These evaluations showed all teachers scoring 80 and above out of 100, which was further corroborated by samples of quality work done by the teachers. Earlier discussion has established that the vast majority of these CLIL learners were indeed struggling with using the approach effectively. Present procedures are a source of problem in some of the cases. Mandatory advance notice of observation allows teachers to stage perfect CLIL lessons by preparing materials not in correspondence with their usual approach and coaching students as to how to behave during such model lessons. For instance, some teachers such as teachers ‘G’ and ‘J’ prepare for the observation by training their students on how to act weeks prior to receiving the program coordinator’s observation notice. One of the students
has informally revealed that sometimes they have to physically practise the lesson more than twice to ensure perfection before the visitor/s. During observations, her statement came to be confirmed during one class session when a teacher-centered lesson dominated by teacher talk was transformed at the impending arrival of the Principal. The teacher stopped her lesson and exhorted her students “the principal is coming, come on get ready”. The students started unpacking their bags and taking out some worksheets, board games and white-boards, and the teacher put on a PowerPoint that had no relation to what she was previously teaching, while the students started behaving as if they were in a middle of an interactive/communicative tasks. The teacher’s behavior was transformed in the presence of the principal, with the former using interactive activities, polished English and ample scaffolding techniques. Such behavior contradicts the programme coordinator’s understanding that the teachers are implementing CLIL effectively. It does establish, however, that the teachers for a variety of reasons are resorting to subterfuge, thereby leading to a negative impact on their own practice and on student learning, above all.

Such subterfuge also leads to misperceptions of student performance. An informal conversation with school ‘B’ principal revealed that she blames the students for their low performances in the class and the final exams. She finds it ‘inappropriate’ to blame the teachers because she has observed each teacher in the school since the beginning of the innovation and has not found a serious weakness with regard to their teaching, methods or language. Further, the quality of their observed teaching has led her to place a high degree of trust in their abilities. It was the view of some of the participants, for instance teachers ‘S’ and ‘N’, that the Principal and the programme coordinators should carry out observations without prior notice to ascertain the true quality of teaching. This would help them to observe the ‘real’ teaching and not the ‘act’, also motivating teachers to work harder and concentrate on the lesson and her students than focusing on the other responsibilities. In other words, teachers would not be able to use the class time or the time allotted to learners to complete other tasks. In the present system, most of the teachers seemed to be focused on securing positive evaluations for themselves than upon improving learner outcomes. This is damaging for the teacher, the students and ultimately the programme itself.

When students realise that their teacher is not capable of producing a genuine lesson on her own or teaching responsibly, they stop taking the subjects or the teacher seriously. Student ‘M’, for example, dislikes CLIL lessons, and hopes that the ministry takes the decision of reinstating the earlier system. She believes that the UAE schools are in need of native English speakers, who can communicate and teach the students with confidence. She notes that ‘we need native speakers who we can trust and have confidence in herself and her teaching. I sometimes doubt on the information given by my CLIL teacher’ (See appendix 5). Another student, student ‘L’, says that the subterfuge used in present teacher practice disappoints her. She adds, “I like when my teacher gets observed. She becomes a different person. It is
disappointing that she just uses it only to show off in front of her colleagues”. This tallies with observations of a session in which a student requested the teacher to start the lesson with a song that the teacher had taught them to be sung before the coordinator, but the teacher refused claiming that there was no time for ‘stupid songs’. Such instances highlight the complex and contradictory reality of ‘on the ground’ CLIL implementation. In many ways, such behavior is not unexpected, as the teachers were neither given a choice as to opt for CLIL implementation nor prepared or trained to use the approach in their teaching. Nevertheless, now that CLIL has been implemented, the Ministry of Education must address the gaps in teacher training that are weakening the programme.

The consequences have been compounded not only by the lack of teachers’ knowledge about the CLIL but also by their poor English and content proficiency. An instance of this is the lack of scaffolding when peers attempt to help each other with a task. An example of lack of content knowledge presented itself during an observation session during which a student asked the teacher for the meaning of ‘pistachio’ in English. The teacher replied by saying “I do not know what it is called in English… Oh God… it might be called ‘fustuk’ as we say in Arabic? I do not know. Will find out and let you know. If not, you do not need it for your exam anyways” (See appendix 3). This continual referencing of the exams shows that most of the teachers seemed to be teaching students to do well in tests rather than to develop new understandings in their subjects. In another example, within a class of 45 minutes, the teacher made more than fifty grammatical and lexical mistakes, which hardly bodes well for the students whose primary exposure to language and content instruction is engagement with the teacher and the lesson.

Another mistake the decision makers made was not conducting a proper needs analysis study before implementing the CLIL programme. As mentioned in theme one, teachers were informed two weeks prior to the implementation of CLIL. They had neither resources nor an expert to properly explain the new programme. The participant teachers described the situation they were put into as ‘scary’. Teacher ‘H’ describes the day she learnt about the new programme as a ‘disaster’ due to the arbitrary nature of its inception (See appendix 6). Additionally, the teachers were told that math and science were going to be taught in English instead of Arabic, with one teacher teaching the three subjects for continuous three hours instead of having three different teachers for each. They then were asked to leave and start preparing for their new classes. Furthermore, they claim that the programme materials including textbooks, resources and teacher’s books were delivered two to three weeks after the program’s starting date. Teacher ‘F’ asserts that the first two weeks were a waste of time (See appendix 6) as the teachers had to face parents who felt that their children are not learning what they are supposed to learn and were wasting their time. Further, the lack of knowledge made it difficult for teachers to rationalize CLIL to the parents.
Hence, the teachers’ reaction to CLIL was less than positive. Teacher ‘H’ shared that she cried when she received the news for she “never was good in English” and felt daunted at the thought of using CLIL. Teacher ‘A’ and the other participants who used to be Arabic subject teachers did try to connect with the stakeholders to explain their situation. However, their requests to do so were overlooked. According to Teacher ‘D’, the Ministry of Education is aware of their struggle with the above. Teacher ‘G’ supports teacher ‘D’s’ assumption noting that, “the stakeholders had knowledge of their qualifications, capabilities and desires prior to hiring them” (See appendix 6). They ‘were’ and ‘are’ aware of that fact that what they are asking for is above the existing capabilities of the teachers. The lack of training aside, monthly seminars on CLIL organized by the Ministry of Education too are insufficient, with some teachers observing that these do not address their needs and are a waste of time. For example, teacher ‘F’ asserts that in one of the sessions she got very upset that she had to leave. The session was more about teaching them how to pronounce and present the new words rather than about CLIL teaching. The teachers’ feedback as to the poor utility of the sessions was corroborated when a few sessions were attended by this researcher. Despite being termed as CLIL specific session, none of the sessions addressed CLIL teaching or CLIL teachers’ needs for they were only based on student management and techniques that teachers already knew. These inconsistencies in the implementation, which span decision-making, planning, materials and teacher practice, represent key reasons for the ineffectiveness of the CLIL approach in many of the MAG schools.

5.3.4 Lack of Content Knowledge

In eighty of the classes observed, it was noticed that it was not only the language that teachers were struggling with but also with content knowledge. For example, during a math lesson, the teacher stopped in the middle of an equation-solving process that she was demonstrating for her students on the board and said “Oh, sorry guys. I have messed up. So confusing. Let’s first answer the other equations until I figure out this one” (See appendix 3). The students were disappointed, as they had been concentrating on every step the teacher had explained and had already memorized the explained formula. Another example is teacher ‘D’. She was explaining a science lesson and made a mistake when showing the students an experiment. She then stopped the experiment saying “Oh, no. Wait… wait let me check. I guess I have done it wrong. Let me reread again”. The students kept looking at each other doing faces that show their discomfort about the situation. After ten minutes of waiting, the teacher realized her error and demonstrated the experiment from the start, thereby taking up half of the class time. The students did not have time to enjoy or experience the experiment by themselves. This lack of content knowledge causes great difficulties for CLIL students.

These challenges have led many students to take up private tutoring as they have lost
their confidence in what the teacher is saying. Student ‘N’ asserts that she had to ask her parents for private instructor to make sure that she is getting the right education (See appendix 5). She adds that her mother who is a teacher herself has the same feelings towards the CLIL teachers’ abilities. There are many teachers who have got their children a private instructor for the same reasons. Teacher ‘H’ is one of the examples. She has got her sister a private tutor. She observes:

“Students are in need for private tutors as I am a CLIL teacher and I know that I am not very good in what I teach. I have observed many teachers and I know that there are many as me. I do not want my child to learn inaccurate knowledge or language” (See appendix 4).

Stakeholder preoccupation with achieving their own objectives seems likely to have an adverse impact on the very students the curricular innovation is supposed to be helping. The teachers also own to experiencing discomfort at the poor implementation of CLIL. Teacher ‘E’ states that she feels guilty towards her students, as she acknowledges the damage she is causing her students both personally and academically (appendix 4). Teacher ‘E’ and other teachers, as can be noticed in the interviews’ outcomes, are aware of the damages caused by their own actions. However, they declare that they have no other choice but to balance between the two. For example, according to teacher ‘G’, to survive in her job she has to choose the easy way out, which is to use a teacher-centered approach and the students’ mother tongue to finish her lessons on time and tackle other responsibilities (See appendix 4). This is a perspective shared by many of the teacher participants. The transition from using Arabic to teach their subjects and dealing with simpler and uncomplicated content and materials to using CLIL pedagogy, content and materials has not been easy one for most of these teachers who have never taught using EMI.

5.3.5 Teachers’ Efforts Towards Making CLIL Successful

One reason given by many of the teacher participants for poor CLIL implementation is that they are overburdened with responsibilities, and more so now, since the practice of giving teachers a day off during the working week was discontinued two years ago. However, teachers ‘S’ and ‘N’ have revealed that (See appendix 6) the day off had no impact on the teachers’ performances and attitudes towards CLIL. They are now same as they were back then, teacher ‘S’ states. Findings show that the teachers used to have fewer responsibilities and more time to plan their lessons prior to the CLIL programme. In line with this, their students’ yearly outcomes should have been better when the teachers had more time to plan and teach effectively. However, the yearly students’ performance seen from the teachers’ records has shown no difference in the students’ performances. This implies that the problem is not entirely time but teachers’ resistance to change. Eight of the participants confessed that they have never accepted CLIL neither prior nor after the implementation for CLIL was not the right method to be used for ten-year-old students. According to
teacher ‘N’, teachers are used to the easy way of teaching, where they only have to present their lessons without an interruption, give the students a task to do, and then finish the lesson with answering the given task as in a whole class (See appendix 4). Teachers ‘S’ and ‘E’ note that teachers did not have to pre-plan her lessons as they can do it within five to ten minutes prior to class (See appendix 4). However, classroom observations have showed that a lack of English and content proficiency prevents that. Furthermore, nine of the participant teachers are teaching the exact same way they were teaching prior to the CLIL programme implementation.

The findings prove that the teachers’ motivation is the key reason behind the CLIL rejection phenomena, which I will talk more about in theme four.

5.4 Theme Four: The Relationship between Teachers’ Motivation and the Teaching of CLIL

5.4.1 Introduction to Theme Four

This section discusses teacher motivation and its impact on the quality of CLIL teaching/learning in UAE. Every educational system in the world accommodates two types of resources: human and material. Both are important for creating an effective and a successful educational system. The human resources consist of students, teachers and the non-teaching workforce. It is believed that teachers are the most significant of these resources, as they are the key to achieve an effective instructional delivery and to guaranteeing quality assurance in the school system. Therefore, they need to be motivated ‘wisely’.

The data collected demonstrates that teachers’ contribution in the school/educational decision-making process, their status, impression, ranks and self-confidence are the main motivators that influence/influenced their performances and attitudes towards CLIL. These motivators are important for attaining quality and efficiency in educational programmes. Once teachers stop being motivated, their dissatisfaction can influence quality assurance in the school/educational system. Findings suggest that CLIL teachers in the UAE context two have key demotivating issues: i) top down control and pressure by the Ministry and administrators over CLIL teachers and ii) oversight of the role of teacher beliefs and attitudes towards CLIL innovation. As Carlass (1998, p.354) notes, the experiences of teachers as learners, as trainees, as educators as well as their collegial interactions and societal values influence their behaviour in educational settings. Even more significantly, the congruence of their attitudes to educational innovations contributes to effective implementation.

In the context of this study, the sources of disillusionment for the teachers have been
many, including a lack of training and a lack of support. Stoller (2009, p. 81) notes that ‘when teachers have favorable attitude toward an innovation, they are likely to be supportive of implementation efforts’ whereas ‘if teachers are reticent about the innovation, they are likely to exhibit resistance to implementation’. She continues that if the innovation is not understood properly, then it is likely that the implementation of the innovation will fail, ‘with mismatched conceptions being translated into mismatched applications’. Data shows that this has what has transpired within the context under study. To rectify this situation, not only should there be a focus on the role of teacher attitudes, training and comprehension of the innovation (Carless, 1998), ongoing support (Stoller, 2009) but also the involvement of teachers at the planning, implementation and continuation stage of the innovation (Watson Todd, 2005, p.3).

5.4.2 Teachers’ contributions in decision-making

The MAG programme was conceptualized and implemented in a top down process involving policymakers, the Ministry, CLIL consultants and school administrators. Teacher feedback and input was not solicited, yet the teachers had the key role in effectively implementing the programme. The exclusion of teachers from the decision making process, which does not foster teachers’ sense of value, self-confidence, ideas and opinions, has led to many of the challenges identified in this study. As the data has shown, teachers have been expected only to obey rules and follow orders.

Principals hold the top role in the school, with their key responsibility being to construct an environment that empowers both teachers and students. However, data reveals in both the schools that the principal’s role has been largely authoritarian and the school environment has been carefully controlled to show that CLIL is being implemented.

Data from school ‘A’, for example, suggests that the methods principal used/uses is causing an adverse impact on both teachers’ motivation and their teaching, with many teachers deciding to exit the teaching profession due to the limited freedom given to them over their own teaching, work, students and classrooms. Teacher ‘J’, for example, is planning to leave her teaching career due to what she calls ‘an unbearable environment’ (See appendix 4). She asserts that the principal and the stakeholders’ rules and regulations are becoming stricter, and ‘has crossed her energy limits’. She adds:

“I do not feel like a teacher anymore. I feel restricted. There is always fear. I fear that the principal would mind any of my own ideas. Or actions I really feel that I am a student preparing for my exam rather than preparing to teach” (See appendix 4).

Other teacher participants expressed agreement with her statement. They
believe that their creativity, qualifications and skills were being neglected and underestimated. This, as teacher ‘S’ states, caused and is causing huge damage to the educational system. It has demotivated and is demotivating teachers towards teaching, consequently resulting in damage to both teachers’ interest and confidence in teaching (See appendix 4). Literature suggests that the school principal’s first priorities should be to construct an environment that supports and encourages empowerment, promotes empowering ideas, and encourages the efforts towards achieving empowerment (Erlandson & Bifano, 1987). As teacher ‘D’ claims, an effective principal must be able to inspire her teachers and empower them to apply their creative energy towards an on-going progress (See appendix 4). In other words, principals need to have both an emotional intellect and interpersonal skills. During the study, it was observed that, school leaders including principals, vice principals, advisors, and the subject coordinators have limited their power to control, rather than to extended it to influencing, motivating and guiding teachers under their leadership. Whereas, in order to achieve an effective schooling system, leaders have to construct a collaborative relationship with the teachers rather than implementing top down decisions. This can inspire teachers towards improving their teaching/ learning skills and taking part in constructing a successful schooling system.

Empowered teachers are the key to the school growth. As Padgett et al. (1999) note that once teachers’ self-esteem rises and they feel proficient in their abilities, their teaching improves. In line with this, it can be assumed that teachers contribute more to the overall success of the school when they are given the freedom to take risks. The confidence to take risks allows teachers to be empowered and creative. In other words, their teaching is a reflection of their confidence. The more confidence they gain, the more effective they become in their teaching and other areas of their job. They work more closely with students than those at the top of the hierarchy. While it is the principal’s responsibility to lead the implementation and support teachers’ empowerment and leadership, it is necessary that teachers are given the opportunity to feel that they are experts in their own field.

As mentioned above, school principals in the UAE are more authoritarian than supportive towards their teachers. All of the participant teachers, including those who could be described as effective CLIL teachers, expressed their dissatisfaction with the principal’s use of power. As interview data shows, teachers have lost their motivation towards both teaching and learning. Four of them have expressed their desire to leave their jobs as teachers. They claim that teaching has made their life ‘miserable’. Two of them assert that they will ‘never ever’ work in any educational sector after leaving the job. Those two teachers have the courage and the support from their families to leave their jobs. However, seven of the participant teachers are not in a position to leave. In addition, five of those teachers have spent half of their lives working as teachers. According to teacher ‘F’, it would be a great challenge to take up another job. She believes that the years spent teaching in schools isolate the teachers from the
outside world. Teaching is the only profession they know (See appendix 4). Observations showed that teachers were limited to their classrooms, where they have no control or freedom over their students, lesson or their own teaching. Teacher ‘D’ feels herself to be lucky as she has had experience of working in a private company before becoming a teacher (See appendix 4). She is leaving her teaching profession next year to join a new different field that has no relation to teaching or education. She claims that, the teaching, the new rules and regulations that came along with the innovation, the overload of responsibilities, and the lack of freedom given to the teachers over their own teaching and lessons have made her take this big decision. She is not the only case. The Ministry of Education stated that 400 teachers resigned in the year of 2014. The statistics show that the main reasons behind this phenomenon are the lack of motivation on the part of the teacher, the overload of responsibilities, the absence of proper leadership in schools, and the stressful school system (AlAmeer, 2015). According to Al Bayan newspaper, the Ministry had an effective plan to overcome the above (ibid).

Three months later, when the teacher participants were contacted again for an informal interview, it was found that there had been no change and that rules and regulations had become stricter as well as their freedom to teach had been restricted further. They now have to teach more than one class and for more hours than they have been used to doing.

For example, they have to teach sixty to ninety students a day instead of thirty. In a nutshell, it is becoming worse. According to Al Itiahat news, this has not only had its impact on the current teachers but also the next batch of teachers. Dr. Ali Al Noaimi, the vice chancellor of the Emirates University, stresses on the importance of finding a solution to overcome what he called ‘a repulsive environment’ (Dajani & Pennington, 2014). During a conference held by the Ministry of Education, he declared that the issues stated above have had a great impact on students’ interest in the teaching profession. He stated that the teaching sector has shown a dramatic decrease in students’ willingness to join the educational sector in the UAE universities since the implementation of the new schooling system, CLIL. He assumes that there will be zero students wanting to join the field (ibid). According to him, the last male teacher qualified seven years ago. None of the Emirati men has shown an interest in joining the profession since then. It is interesting to note that these issues emerged five to seven years ago, at a point when CLIL was introduced in the UAE schools.

CLIL has brought a great change into the schooling/educational system in the UAE. It has no similarity with the previous system, which has made the principals more demanding and controlling towards the school staff, CLIL teachers in particular. However, they have become so due to the pressure they receive from the Ministry, in addition to the sudden implementation of an innovation without the cooperation of the
teachers or the administrators. During a meeting with the principal, a fax from the ministry of education about a new task to be done by the end of the month arrived. Her annoyance was evident but she asked the secretary to post it to all the teachers anyway observing, “I do not know where we are going with this MAG programme and their demands, just post it to all of the teachers anyways, and tell them that they all need to participate”. Other instances reflect a similar helplessness on the part of the principals when faced with Ministry directives regarding MAG. According to teacher ‘N’, if the orders were not followed, the principal risks losing her job in addition to status amongst the other school principals (See appendix 4). That did not come as a surprise. It is logical. The dominance of the school system hierarchy means that the Principal’s role is diluted by that of the ministerial executive supervising her. Involving teachers in school-level decision-making may help principals counter some of the negative effects of this situation.

As the data shows, nine of the teacher participants agree that the lack of teachers’ participation in the educational/school decision-making process disposes them negatively towards CLIL. Teacher ‘E’, for example, declares that not being involved in the process is the reason behind her negative attitude towards CLIL. She continues that it makes her feel ‘isolated and controlled’ (appendix). She clarifies that “We are the ones who know better about our students’ needs and skills. No one can decide what is better for the students than the subject teacher herself” (See appendix 4).

Students’ needs and aptitudes cannot be understood and effectively met without teachers’ help and involvement, especially as the maximum interaction of the student occurs with the teacher.

Teacher ‘E’ agrees with her. She believes that teachers are the foundation of the educational system. Therefore, they have to be given the right to contribute in the decision making process (See appendix 4). As mentioned above, neither teaching nor learning can exist without teachers. Hence, teachers need to be involved in the decision making process, as they understand students’ needs and interests better. Teachers’ involvement could help the stakeholders establish an effective school/educational system. That is as teachers are the only person in the entire educational system, that have the opportunity to physically handle and face the students and their needs in face-to-face manner. According to teacher ‘J’, this isolation can result in difficulties in managing students during the classroom, which will be discussed in the following section (See appendix 4).

5.5 Theme Five: The Impact of Students’ Motivation on CLIL
5.5.1 Learner Perspectives on CLIL

Students’ motivation is also one of the key success factors for CLIL learning. Therefore, it was important to study students’ motivation towards the current CLIL programme so that learner issues with CLIL could be identified. This section discusses the analysis of the data collected on students’ motivation towards the current CLIL programme.

Student interview data revealed that learners found the current CLIL programme to be unauthentic and functionally restricted in addition to lacking in communicative function. This misconception has negatively influenced their motivation towards CLIL, with only two of the twenty students interviewed showing motivation towards CLIL. The majority of the students blamed the teacher for their lack of motivation. Therefore, it can be concluded that student motivation, teacher implementation and motivation as well as attitudes towards CLIL are related. Having to learn the language and the content in such context as described in chapter five can be demotivating.

The following interview extract from Student ‘B” provides examples of the level of student demotivation and dissatisfaction with CLIL as it is being taught presently:

[Student B finds learning through CLIL as it is currently taught] “Boring. In the previous program we used to have some fun activities and good teaching. Now we don’t. Our teachers really don’t know English. This is a shame. There are some times were we correct our teachers’ mistakes. We never used to do that in the old program. Our teachers used to know English. Even those math and science teachers, they used to be good when it was taught in Arabic. I used to be a student of my current English teacher. She used to be my math teacher. She used to be a good teacher. Her classes used to be fun. I don’t know what happened now. I guess it is the English. I don’t understand how she was allowed to teach in English anyways. That funny. I find her teaching funny. You should listen to her English”

A number of issues are highlighted here including learner demotivation and the limited ability of the teachers in using English as a medium of instruction. It would also appear that teachers who were effective in their use of the previous methodologies have lost their expertise in trying the meet the demands of CLIL, for which they have had little preparation in training.

Data suggests that the present teaching approach is not CLIL as intended, but rather, the CLIL grafted onto conventional teaching methodologies used in the previous system. For instance, Student K observes that she sees not difference between the new and the old programme:

“I don’t see any difference. They both are the same. Maybe the math and science are the only difference, but the teaching is the same. It is just that the teaching hours have increased…”

Student K does note that the teachers seem to understand learner needs better under
the new programme, so perhaps that can be considered one positive outcome of CLIL implementation. Learning through CLIL is also challenging for students because in the current so-called ‘CLIL’ programme, students not only have to deal with the content but also a change in the medium of instruction. As Student M notes:

“To be honest, I feel I am learning nothing. I can’t understand anything during the class. The teachers’ mixed use of languages makes me confused. I can’t manage two languages at a time. I wish if we just use one language. That is really confusing. The teachers’ poor English makes it more difficult”

The difficulties arise from the change in medium of instruction, which creates a cognitive load upon learners due to the teachers’ less than expert command of using English to teach as well as the recourse to codemixing to instruct the learners. According to (Chambers 1999; Williams, Burden, and Lanvers 2002), learning in traditional classrooms can be demotivating. Coyle (2008) and Marsh (2008) maintain that, learning through an authentic CLIL methodology, where language and content are taught in a parallel manner using CLIL principles, however, can sustain motivation. Based on data from the classroom of one of the effective CLIL teachers participating in the study, it was observed that most of the students were motivated and satisfied with CLIL learning and teaching methodology. Their difficulties in using the language did not detract from their motivation towards CLIL. Rather, it increased their motivation to exert more effort towards improving their language skills for the attainment of their learning objectives. Their difficulties in the language use were understandable, as they have only been involved in CLIL learning for three years. However, this suggests that if CLIL is implemented properly, then student motivation is likely to be strong.

Moreover, the findings indicated that there was a connection between the students’ attitudes towards CLIL and their efforts as well as their learning outcomes. One of the main reasons behind their negative attitudes, as mentioned in the previous section, was their lack of CLIL content and language use during and outside the classroom. As mentioned earlier, students in the UAE do not have the opportunity to practise their language learning, and they are largely unsupported by their teachers. Therefore, at some point where they find their efforts are unappreciated, they stop making efforts to learn, which as a result leads to negative attitudes towards CLIL and inefficient learning outcomes. However, based on observation of effective CLIL classes, it was found that the teacher’s positive attitudes and feedback towards her students indirectly influenced her students to generate positive attitudes and effective performances towards CLIL and their learning. The following observation extract from the class of Teacher S illustrates this well:

Teacher starts the class with a short task to revise the previous lesson that was about description. She revises some previous vocabulary by asking the students to fill in the gap. . Then teacher asks the students to open their books. The teacher explains the task
that is in the book by using PowerPoint and pictures. Then she asks them to work in
group to answer it. Teacher assigns a student to read a story to his friends that he
prepared previously. The other students are sitting on the carpet and are listening
carefully. They are helping him and trying to correct him in between. Teacher asks the
students to retell the story to check if they did pay attention. After that, the teacher
gives the students some pictures where they have to work in groups to describe it and
write the description on a paper. It was a CLIL lesson. The teacher concentrated on
making sure that the students understand the content using the language rather than
stressing in one aspect. Teacher did not speak in Arabic with students at all even outside
the class. Students never spoke in Arabic in the class even when they discuss with each
other at all. That was as the teacher’s classroom management was so good. It involved
praising and some encouraging ideas such as; if the students just spoke in English and
tried their best to use as much English as they can, they would get a sticker. What they
have to do with the sticker is to collect 20 of them and if they do they would get a gift.
Very good classroom management. CLIL was used effectively in the class. Her class
was more students centered than teacher centered. Students were engaged perfectly in the
class and the activities. Students were encouraged to think and be critical [Observation
8, Teacher S].

According to students’ interview responses, it is not only the teachers’ attitude and
effective teaching methods that motivates them but also their effort to connect with
the target language and content community. They assert that their success
and motivation can be credited to their effort to use and implement their CLIL knowledge
outside the classroom environment e.g. by watching English programmes, reading
English books and magazines, and interacting and communicating with English
speakers through the social media. There is a huge difference between the CLIL
experiences of these students and those of the others.

Another reason for student demotivation towards CLIL is the amount of exposure. In
addition to studying English as a separate subject, CLIL students are also exposed to
English in content classes, wherein it is used as a medium of instruction. Unlike the
previous programme, CLIL students receive additional contact with the taught
language. However, as observation data show, the quality of teachers’ CLIL teaching
and command over English limit needed exposure to English:

T starts the lesson by greeting the students. Teacher starts speaking to the students in
Arabic. She tells them that they have an exam next week and explains what would
come in the exam. She asks the students to open their books on page 511. Teacher
asks the students to translate the whole question for her. She re-translates it for the
students and asks them to repeat after her. T answers a question with the students on
the board. T asks the students to answers the rest of the questions by themselves.
The teacher got interrupted by the administration and was asked to stop her class and
get the students to the activity hall as they have some kind of activity, which is not
related to their curriculum. Teacher tells the students that she is not allowing them
to go out until they finish their task. Instead of working alone, she turns on the OHP
and answers the new lesson questions’ with the students quickly as she has to let
them go to the activity hall. She was too focused to finish the lesson than making the students understand. She as doing all the talking. She had to let the students go and assigned the task as homework. T uses too much Arabic, some which are unnecessary. There are some pronunciation mistakes used by the teaching. “simplest form” for “simplest form”. The students were repeating after her as she is pronounced it. T uses some wrong grammar such e.g. “who try read for me” and “listen your friend” and “what became will?”. All the explanations and the clarifications were given in Arabic. English was just used when saying a new word once only. Teacher has no confidence using English. She never uses it and when she does she seems so confused and not sure that the students laugh. Plus, she is not sure of her English. For example, she said, “what becomes it” then said no “what will become it?” and then said I mean, “Will become it?” She did that more than once during the class. Students were not given the chance to understand the lesson properly. The teacher was so focused on finishing the class rather than making them understand the lesson.

Understandably, despite students’ preference for the previous programme, their achievements are similar in both the programmes, which can be attributed to the persistence of the old teaching methodologies and the difficulties with the use of English as medium of instruction.

The above analysis proposes three specific elements that are believed to form the basis of the students’ motivation towards CLIL learning (Gardner, 2000). One of these elements is effortful behaviour towards CLIL learning. Motivated students make efforts to study and understand the content and the language. They attempt to learn by asking questions for clarifications during the lesson, by doing their schoolwork, practising in their own time, by paying attention in the classroom, and by doing extra work to improve and develop their learning skills. The second element is the desire to learn language as well as content. Based on findings, motivated students can overcome all of the difficulties they face towards CLIL in order to achieve the learning objective, if they have the desire to learn and succeed and strive to accomplish their target goals. The third element is the attitude towards learning the language and the content. Motivated students have positive attitudes towards their learning. They enjoy every aspect of CLIL teaching and learning including tasks, challenges and lessons. According to Gardner (1985), motivated students would say that such learning is fun-filled, challenging and a source of enjoyment, even while at other times, the enthusiasm may wane. Therefore, CLIL teachers have to be aware of all of these three elements so that they can distinguish motivated students from less motivated/demotivated students (ibid).

5.5.2 Student Motivation and CLIL success

In conclusion, students’ motivation is a very important factor to consider in CLIL classrooms. Both teachers and other stakeholders should be aware of how motivation
impacts student learning outcomes. It could be said that without motivation, it would be difficult to achieve a successful CLIL learning or teaching. That is as CLIL is a very demanding method, it necessitates focus and attention to both the content and the language. If teachers fail to motivate students as to both, there is a great chance that they could fail to achieve success in their academic year. Also, as students’ motivation mainly depends on the teachers’ teaching methodology and understanding of their student, it is important to bear in mind that student motivation is an outcome of good teaching.

5.6 Theme Six: The impact of CLIL Materials on Students’ Behavior and Teachers’ Motivation

5.6.1 Student Behaviour in the CLIL classroom

This section examines research findings with reference to the effects of CLIL on student behavior and teacher motivation.

Student behavior in CLIL classrooms is a major concern in UAE schools. It is believed that, CLIL students with disruptive behaviors experience low academic engagement and poor outcomes (Shinn et al., 1987). Therefore, it is important to maintain good student management in CLIL classrooms to avoid students’ disruptive behaviors. Destructive behaviors in CLIL classrooms can also lead to teacher demotivation and several difficulties that can prevent the accomplishment of the CLIL program objectives (Smith & Smith, 2006). One of these difficulties is to meet the teaching demands (Emmer & Stough, 2001), of the CLIL programme.

The majority of the participant teachers complained about the lack of students’ attention in their CLIL classrooms. According to them, this was not an issue when they used to use the previous method of teaching. According to teacher ‘H’:

“I have never experienced such problems before. The students do not listen anymore and they do not pay attention. Sometimes I feel I am talking to the wall” (See appendix 4).

More than half of the interviewed teachers had the same opinion. They claim that one of the greatest advantages of the previous programme was its effectiveness in controlling and managing their students’ behavior in the classroom. According to them, students’ positive behaviors and learning outcomes were more acceptable than in the current programme. Most of the teacher participants attributed this to i) irrelevant CLIL materials, ii) the unnecessary teacher workload, and iii) the insufficient time given to use these materials.

5.6.2 Unnecessary and Irrelevant CLIL Materials
Disruptive student behavior was attributed to unnecessary, unauthentic and irrelevant CLIL materials provided by the Ministry of Education. The majority of the teachers claimed that most of the CLIL materials provided by the Ministry were for native English speakers or for those with excellent English language proficiency. The language and content therein did not match the students’ abilities. In addition, they did not fulfill the students’ real needs. According to the data, even those teachers with good/excellent proficiency in English experienced difficulty in understanding the terminologies, the contents and the English used in the provided materials e.g. Course-books, worksheets and lesson plans. According to teacher ‘D’, if students cannot understand the language and the content used in the instructions, it is ‘impossible’ to expect effective outcomes (See appendix 4). The problem is critical. Based on the observation, even teachers’ use of Arabic to explain the tasks and the content cannot help the students to overcome their difficulties in understanding. According to teacher ‘F’:

“Sometimes using Arabic cannot help as well. Ok, learners will understand what to do and everything, but how can they do the exercise if they do not even understand the questions asked and the languages asked? I cannot explain everything to them. If I do, then I will end up failing all of the students” (See appendix 4).

All of the participant teachers agreed with her. Teachers cannot explain everything in Arabic. There are also some tasks that require students’ understanding of the language in order to be able accomplish them. For instance, there are tasks where students have to find words from the paragraph that matches the meaning of the underlined words. If teachers explain the words or the sentences, they would end up answering the whole task for the students.

Another difficulty with regard to CLIL materials is the inappropriate and unnecessary contents. The majority of teachers complained about the unsuitability of the content to the students’ cognitive levels. According to them, the Ministry of Education should be aware of the consequences the above can cause the students in the future. The inability of students to understand the content could lead to failures in coping with their next academic levels. In an informal interview with teacher ‘N’ via social media, she stated that most of the math material contents are unnecessary and difficult for the UAE grade four students’ cognitive levels (See appendix 9). One example she cited was that of a different list of five to six options, which students have to learn/memorise in order to answer one simple equation. According to her and the majority of teachers, students at this age should be introduced to this type of learning in a more simplified and fixable manner. They add claiming that, an option or two is enough to ensure students’ abilities and understanding of the content. Also, giving students more than two options at such age can distract them. As teacher ‘D’ states:

“It is not possible to expect students’ understanding of the content and the language at the same
time, when the teacher herself has difficulties in understanding them” (See appendix 4)

An evaluation of the materials provided by the Ministry of Education indicates a lack of correspondence between the teachers’ abilities and qualification as well as student levels.

Furthermore, some teachers also noted that the CLIL materials were inappropriate in terms of UAE culture. All of the teachers agreed that some of the materials provided by the Ministry have some contents that could be labeled as ‘culturally offensive’ both to them and the students. They declared that with this kind of content, managing students can be hard if not ‘impossible’. For instance, in one of the reading sessions conducted by teacher ‘F’, the students had to select a storybook to read silently. All of the students showed great interest in reading what they had selected. However, a minute later, half of the students started to laugh and giggle, while others began behaving badly in the classroom e.g. fighting over a topic, making weird noises, not listening to the teacher, ripping pages, and drawing on some pictures that were offensive. The teacher’s attempt to manage the students was unsuccessful, and her motivation decreased thereafter. When asked after the class, she stated:

“I do not know what to do anymore. This is too much. You tell me, what would you do if you have used everything in the world to explain the lesson and your students still do not understand? Or when you are already in so much stress because of this so called ‘MAG school’ demands and something like appears in your classroom”.

She added that the Ministry had to be careful as to their content selection. All of the participant teachers expressed their disagreement with and dissatisfaction towards the Ministry’s choice of contents. They maintained that the difficulty of these materials leads to unmanageable behaviors in the classroom e.g. cheating, chatting during the class, fights, distraction and not listening to the teacher. Some teachers expressed their unwillingness to try to manage their students. They claim that, it is ‘impossible’ to manage students in the presence of such inappropriate materials. Others expressed their sympathy towards their students. According to teacher ‘S’:

“I feel bad for those students. Sometimes I feel that they are wasting their time. We all know that the knowledge they are learning, Oh, I mean memorizing would only last until their final exam. I bet they understand a thing. Therefore, some teachers use Arabic. I know many language teachers who use Arabic not because they are not good at English, but out of sympathy for their students” (See appendix 4).

5.6.3 Teacher Workload

The second reason that is causing students’ disruptive behavior in CLIL classrooms is the excessive workload assigned to the CLIL teachers. As mentioned previously in this chapter, CLIL teachers have many other responsibilities in addition to
teaching CLIL. Some of those responsibilities are not related to CLIL or their profession e.g. participating in local and national competitions, teacher portfolio, participating in social media, e.g. Instagram and YouTube, and planning social activities for the students’ parents. However, they have to do them or face disagreeable consequences. During observation, it was noticed that the majority of teachers used their classroom time to finish these tasks. According to them, it is hard to accomplish them during their free time or at home, especially because they have other CLIL related preparation to carry out.

Teachers also have to make sure that students participate in local and/or national competitions. Most of these competitions are focused on a student or two from the entire school. The difficulty arises when teachers are assigned by the Principal to coach these students during their class time. It was observed that managing students was difficult in such classrooms. The students became destructive and demotivated due to their teachers’ lack of attention to their needs or requests for clarifications. During these classrooms, the teachers tried to cope with both their students and the trainees. They showed great effort to manage to convey the lesson to their students while assisting the trainee at the same time. However, their lack of skills and the pressure of the restricted time limit to accomplish the lesson plan led to failure. According to teacher ‘H’,

“These kind of situations are normal in our classes. We cannot be blamed. It is already hard for us to teach the lesson in such limited time and language and they keep assigning us with extra unnecessary responsibilities everyday” (See appendix 4).

The majority of teachers agree with her. They believe that the Ministry has to understand their situation and the difficulties they face due to the overload of these responsibilities. Teacher ‘E’ declares that, it is the overwork and the extra responsibilities that demotivate her and other teachers towards the CLIL programme (See appendix 4). In addition, teacher ‘E’ asserts that these types of responsibilities were easy to accomplish in the previous programme due to the teachers’ proficiency in methodology (See appendix 4). However, the CLIL programme requirements are beyond their existing ability. Hence, accomplishing these responsibilities necessitates extra time and effort.

5.6.4 CLIL Classroom Time Limit

The third reason given is the insufficient time assigned for teachers to accomplish CLIL lessons and use materials during the classroom. According to the classroom observations data, teachers are becoming more like robots than teachers in their classrooms. Their concerns have shifted from ensuring quality teaching, to finishing the lessons and tasks on time. In other words, finishing the lesson on time has become more important for them than ensuring students’ comprehension of the taught knowledge. According to teacher ‘H’, it is the only way to achieve the
programme objectives (See appendix 4). Teacher ‘G’ agrees with her stating that:

“They, the ministry of education, cannot expect us to finish the whole lesson plan and perform our best at the same time. If they want that then they have to either allow us to create our own lessons or cut some of the unnecessary contents of the lesson plans and materials” (See appendix 4).

The majority of teachers agree with her. However, based on the students’ interview responses, it was found that they too are struggling to understand the knowledge being imparted in their CLIL classrooms, as they are forced to only listen to the teacher lecturing them without feedback or student interaction. In addition, based on the observation data, students are not allowed to participate or ask questions for clarification during the lesson. When asked as to the reason, teacher ‘E’ asserts,

“If students just try to be quiet, concentrate and listen carefully to their teachers, they will definitely understand everything. Asking questions for clarification is a sign that students where not paying attention” (See appendix 4).

Teacher ‘J’ adds stating:

“We should teach the students to concentrate. If everyone will ask questions, then teachers will not be able to finish the lesson. We have to finish the lesson so the students are on track with the other classes in the school” (See appendix 6).

The above quotes explain the teachers’ reluctance to allow students to interact with them during their lessons. However, that does not always stop some students from asking questions and interacting during the classroom. It was interesting to see that despite students’ continuous requests for clarifications, teachers managed to ignore the students and continued with her teaching. Many students found such teacher behavior as ‘rude’ and ‘offensive’. According to student ‘D’, teachers need to understand that the knowledge and the language being taught are new for the students. She adds that “it is not acceptable to expect our attention while our requests are being negatively denied” (See appendix 5). The majority of students had the same opinion. Such teacher behavior has caused many other difficulties with regard to classroom management.

The majority of teachers do not recognize the difficulties their techniques are causing for their students. They have a misconception about the effectiveness of their techniques. This can be attributed to poor understanding of the CLIL programme objectives. The following answer given by teacher ‘D’ sums up the majority of teachers’ understanding of CLIL programme objectives:

“I have no idea what else can I do for these students. I am trying my level best to finish the lesson, and keep them on track with other classes in the schools, and this is the way they pay me. …, I wish if I have enough time to teach them manners, but I don’t. I have to ignore
otherwise they will be behind the other classes and I will be in trouble” (See appendix 6).

They have a misconception that in order to achieve the CLIL program’s objectives, they need to focus on finishing the tasks rather than their students’ comprehension. This creates challenges with respect to the completion of their work and effective management of student behavior.

5.6.5 Challenges of CLIL praxis vis-à-vis Teachers and Students

This section discussed three reasons that influence teachers’ motivation and students’ behaviors in the CLIL classroom. It is important to realize the connection between teacher motivation and students’ behavior. The above findings illustrate the relation to and emphasis on the importance of teacher motivation on students’ behavior and learning outcomes. Concomitant issues such as the nature of the materials used, intensification of the teachers’ workload and time-constrained lessons shape learners’ perceptions of as well as attitudes towards CLIL. Therefore, the stakeholder has to be careful when producing CLIL materials to teachers with such situations and qualifications as the UAE teachers. They need to ensure that the materials are comprehensible and can be accomplished within the classroom time. Also, they must understand the huge responsibilities those teachers have towards teaching a programme as CLIL with such little knowledge and language. Assigning those teachers with extra unnecessary work are neither assisting students nor teachers.
Chapter Six Discussion

6.0 Introduction to Chapter Six

The findings reported in the previous chapter showed that there are four key factors affecting CLIL programme implementation and success in the UAE: management, teacher, students, and materials. Before an attempt is made to address each one of these and suggest possible solutions to these challenges, it is important to take note of the fact that the findings indicate the overwhelming failure of CLIL in UAE. While the roll out of CLIL has been enthusiastic on the part of the policy makers and the educational authorities, onground realities suggest that CLIL has burdened and demotivated teachers and students alike, imperiling in many ways the very academic futures of the learners due to the many dissonances amongst the curriculum, its philosophy, its implementation and the existing system and stakeholders. As such, it invites a deeper scrutiny of the very rationale behind CLIL implementation. While the discussion that follows will explore possible solutions to the many lacunae identified in this study with regard to CLIL implementation, it would be naïve not to think about the possibility of rolling back the CLIL reforms.

Extreme as it may sound, attempting to prop up a failing system is only possible course of action in the face of the failure of CLIL that has been identified in this study. A more logical step is for the policy makers and educational authorities to revisit the rationale for implementing CLIL. It is recommended that the stakeholders should carry out a cost and benefit analysis of persisting with CLIL or of rolling back the reforms. This analysis should take into account not only the economic impact of continuing with or withdrawing CLIL but also its social impact on the teachers, students and other stakeholders. Such an analysis can provide a data-driven basis for choosing to carry on with CLIL or discarding it altogether.

Having established the need for a more critical look at continuing with CLIL, the discussion will now move forward with a summary of the key challenges and possible solutions, which can facilitate decision makers, educational authorities and stakeholders in improving CLIL implementation, rather than discarding it, if that is the preferred route for the future.

6.1 CLIL Management

The MAG programme has suffered due to the shortsightedness of policymakers who authorised the transition from a time-tested and contextualised thirty-five years old curriculum to a new unfamiliar curriculum and pedagogy abruptly. The misconception that ‘all teachers can teach anything’ was at the heart of this sudden change and hasty implementation of a programme, which was little understood by
those tasked to implement it.

It is essential to remember that both teachers and students in the UAE context are bilingual and that they learn other subjects through English as a medium of instruction. However, they live and they learn in an Arabic speaking community, whereas English is only used in classrooms. According to Cummins (2000), it can take more than seven years for learners living in a minority language community to reach the academic language level through a majority language. Therefore, the government’s ‘one size fits all’ notion has to be changed. Based on Cummins theory, I believe that educational methods and approaches that proven successful in English majority speaking countries may not necessarily work for the UAE environment. In addition, comparing the UAE students with native English speakers’ performances lacks logic. Native speakers have the opportunity to practice their learning in their own environment, and they are aware of the taught language and vocabulary prior to their enrollment, whilst the UAE students join schools with ‘zero’ English language knowledge. Another important aspect to consider in Cummins theory is the time scale that students negotiate to reach the programme’s academics goals. Therefore, the stakeholders should be careful when implementing innovations. They have to make careful decisions and policies that support students’ progress throughout the whole learning process, from year one until graduation.

Many teachers and administrators in the UAE predicted the results prior to the implementation of CLIL, at the new programme required teaching and learning to take place through a medium of a foreign language. Those teachers, as mentioned in the methodology chapter, are Arabic literature graduates, who have neither certification nor knowledge about English literature or English teaching. In addition, the programme was implemented without a prior needs analysis. In other words, the programme was built on the stakeholders’ assumptions about their teachers’ and students’ educational needs.

CLIL in the UAE is in a complex situation. There are many gaps that need to be overcome so that educational objectives can be fulfilled. Analyzing the data helped to identify two of those gaps: a) Needs analysis and b) CLIL teacher training programme.

6.2 One: Needs Analysis

Carrying out needs analysis is a significant first step when planning educational innovations (Brown, 1995). Therefore, the UAE stakeholders should conduct needs analysis and reconstruct the CLIL programme. The existing programme plans and strategies are excellent. However, the UAE schools were not ready for these as the policymakers failed to involve their teachers and students in the decision and planning processes. Thus, the plan lacked necessary subjective and objective data. The plan
was based on an assumption that ‘CLIL would definitely work in the UAE as it worked in other countries’. Although CLIL is one of the most useful methods in the educational field, its success is not assured if it is misused/misunderstood. One should remember that there is not one strategy that would be suitable for all. To avoid misapplication and complex, there must be needs analysis carried out prior to the planning of an innovation.

The Ministry of Education is showing great efforts to overcome the current educational obstacles. There have been new changes in the examination systems, student/teacher responsibilities, curriculums and regulations. Yet, they have neglected to conduct the needs analysis, which as the data shows should have been their first priority to ensure a smooth transition to MAG by teachers and students alike. Piloting a needs analysis is a significant first step to developing a successful new programme (Brown, 1995). The data collected from the needs analysis helps to define the programme objectives. These objectives would then be listed as educational goals, which as a result would function as a basis for the stakeholders to develop further educational resources, lesson plans, learning materials, tasks, tests, and programme assessment strategies (ibid) based on real student/teacher educational needs.

A successful CLIL programme design could not be achieved without a critical needs analysis. Although a needs analysis is not difficult to carry out, the real challenge lies in categorizing and analyzing the outcomes, and there should be debate based on this analysis as to how the programme needs to be shaped. Therefore, the programme designer has to have a decent knowledge and experience in CLIL. In addition, s/he has to be unbiased. Falling into the stereotype of ‘one method fits all’ could bring the entire plan to the same point it started from. When planning/conducting a needs analysis, it is important to remember that every educational system is unique. Thus, the programme designer should carefully build his/her data without prior assumption, prediction or conclusions. The outcomes then should be the foundation new CLIL programme.

Relevant data could be sourced from the decision makers and external participants. It is important to add teachers and students in the decision makers’ list in order to strengthen the outcomes of the analysis. The best methods to collect data from teachers and students are discussed below.

6.2.1 Needs Analysis for CLIL Teachers in the UAE

The success of CLIL programme can be ensured only if teachers are well trained and supported. The needs analysis should focus on the teachers’ needs, strengths and deficiencies. Needs analysis by means of observations, interviews, surveys and document analysis can be a useful source of data about teacher needs and gaps.
The selection of the teachers’ profiles should be linked to the learning goals of the programme. In the case in hand, the objective of the programme should be learning content and language with equal importance accorded to both. Therefore, I believe it should be a combination of language teachers, subject teachers, and CLIL teachers.

Another significant element to consider when conducting a needs analysis are the resources and materials that would be required to implement the CLIL method, which is called ‘means analysis’ (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998). According to my field research, I believe a combination of group/individual interviews, classroom observations, and tests would work best with the teachers. However, having effective professional tools is not enough. At the outset, there was an assumption that using latest technologies and techniques was the best way to achieve effective and reliable outcomes in this study. However, my experience suggests that a better understanding can be reached by engaging with the stakeholders and the research setting. Analysts too need to understand human nature and collaborate with the participants. To avoid misunderstandings and issues mentioned above, analysts must not have any expectations or predictions that could lead to any biased judgments, prior to the analysis. When planning for an innovation, as CLIL, every detail and aspect should be considered within the needs analysis process. A misstep could derail the programme objectives.

It is not going to be easy if expectations interfere in the process. For example, if the analysts think that they will be analyzing CLIL teachers/classes, then the results of the analysis would be identical to the one generated prior to the application of the existing CLIL. When conducting the investigation, the analyst should remember the key objective of the analysis, which is to locate the barriers that are causing those learning and teaching difficulties. Once those problems are identified, the programme designers could use the data to create a CLIL programme that would better suit teacher, students and schools in the UAE.

Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) note that when planning a needs analysis for teachers, it is important to consider the resources that would be necessary to implement the CLIL programme. This will help the stakeholders to develop authentic trainings and support for teachers based on their actual needs. Also, these outcomes could be used to design pre-service trainings for CLIL teachers, which I will discuss in detail in the discussion below

**6.2.2 Needs analysis for students in the UAE**

It is the responsibility of the stakeholders to take into consideration the cultural and political characteristics of the learners into consideration when planning a programme in order to design an authentic and purposeful programme and objectives (Linse, 1993). As mentioned in the Literature review, CLIL is a combination of approaches
associated with linguistic and content learning (Dalton-Puffer, 2007). They are usually related to student-centred methodologies, interactionism and constructivism (ibid). This is rational as each of the methodological approaches mentioned above carries an important key in CLIL success. For example, Interactionism is based on the notion that learning and teaching is a result of student-teacher oral interaction (Hall and Verplaatse, 2000). In other words, the communication outcomes form the knowledge and the skills taught/learned. Furthermore, constructivist learning emphasizes on the significance of authentic and meaningful contexts, in which students are enabled to construct content and context dependent knowledge. Therefore, it is significant to maintain quality in the delivery of the content, the methodologies and the language.

Generating data from students is not an easy job. The restricted school environment would interfere in the analysis process. Therefore, students should be carefully and sensitively approached. When interviewing my participants, I sensed fear. I was not surprised. The student-teacher relation explained it. Analysts should attempt to establish the students’ trust prior to conducting the analysis. One of the effective techniques I found useful was to familiarize myself with the students and build up a friendly professional relationship with them. The analyst should not hesitate to remind the participating students of the aims of the analysis and its confidentiality.

Moreover, I believe that the most powerful data collection method for students would be individual interviews. I have tried group interviews and questionnaires, but they have dramatically failed. Students filled the questionnaire uninterestedly with unrelated answers due to their busy schedule, as some of them later confessed. Group interviews did not work as some students found sharing their thoughts with their classmates threatening. For example, in order to save time, teachers asked if I could pilot a group interview instead of interviewing each student individually. However, only four out of ten students participated in the discussion. When asked individually, they revealed discomfort at the idea of sharing their thoughts and opinions in their colleagues’ presence. The lack of teacher-students and peer work during the class was the main reason. Therefore, analysts should be careful and wise when dealing with those students.

With regard to the content, students as well as subject teachers must be involved in the decision/planning process, those who used to teach science and math in Arabic in particular. This should help the analyst to reach an agreement/solution on which contents are most applicable to be taught in English. A good example to follow would be Munby’s ‘target situation analysis’ (1978). Furthermore, both students’ and teachers’ prior knowledge and practices could be useful in the analysis (ibid). However, the analyst/programme designer should be aware of the fact that CLIL cannot be administered with specific methodologies. As mentioned in the literature review section, CLIL is a combination of approaches, which are relevant to language
and discipline teaching. In other words, the employment of the above accomplishes successful delivery of the content and ensures that it is methodologically integrated in the programme. Also, it helps to guarantee that the content matter supports the social interaction required for language learning. I would recommend observations and teachers’ newsletters to increase teachers’ awareness about those approaches.

Other important aspects to consider in the needs analysis process would be to identify better motivation and attitudes of both students and teachers towards the current CLIL programme. This as explained in theme four, could play an important role in accomplishing a CLIL programme that meets everyone’s educational and professional needs.

With reference to the above, I would recommend Long’s triangulated approach for needs analysis (2005). It would be appropriate for CLIL programme. The outcomes of the analysis should then be compared in order to produce content that matches with students’ linguistic needs and levels. Comparing the outcomes could also assist with identifying techniques/approaches that are most appropriate and effective within implementation.

6.2.3 Final Thoughts

During my data collection phase, I have noticed the efforts that the Ministry of Education makes towards CLIL teaching and learning development. However, those efforts become impractical when misused. For example, the Ministry sends teaching inspectors every semester to assure that quality CLIL teaching and learning is taking place. The mistake lies in the application, not the technique. Informing the teachers a month ahead, giving them a whole month to practice is one of those misapplications. To prevent such a performance and to obtain authentic and valid outcomes, teachers should not be informed about their teaching observations.

The real issue, as it can be noticed in several sections of this study, is the conflict between the stakeholders and teachers. There are huge efforts from both sides, but the misunderstanding is causing damage to the programme. That is both are making their own decisions and are not communicating effectively to fulfil each other’s needs to achieve better CLIL implementation, which is appropriate for all.

6.2.4 Conclusion

Policy makers need to reconfigure the existing CLIL programme so that it better suits the needs of the teachers and the students in the MAG schools. The current CLIL programme lacks many features of a successful CLIL classroom/environment, for it is not relevant to students’ and teachers’ needs and levels. The ministry being the ultimate authority in educational matters needs to conduct a retrospective needs
analysis, which can be used as the basis for recalibrating CLIL so that associated educational objectives can be met. The outcomes of the needs analysis will help to map the background of the teachers, their abilities, qualifications, experience and credentials as well as potential challenges to implementing CLIL in the UAE context. This information can be synthesized to design a CLIL programme relevant to teacher and learner needs and the local culture. As a result, training/retraining and skill upgradation of the teachers can be undertaken, along with the better management of teacher workload in the form of classes and documentation/paperwork requirements. Although needs analysis usually precedes innovation implementation, given the dire state of CLIL implementation, the Ministry can still salvage the MAG programme by analyzing the needs of stakeholders so that pressing concerns are addressed as soon as possible and new challenges, if any, identified at the earliest. The data from the analysis can be used to inform remedial measures as well as new educational policies with a bearing upon CLIL implementation.

The decision makers still have much more to do in the matter of needs analysis for CLIL. The purpose of this section was to present a practical measure for creating a new and a better CLIL programme. This idea can be used at all levels of education ranging from primary, preparatory, secondary to tertiary levels.

6.3 Two: CLIL Teacher Training Course

6.3.1 Training UAE Teachers for CLIL

CLIL has become an innovative approach that ministries of education use as a tool to teaching foreign languages, a method to motivate teaching subject matters, and as a mean to contribute to internationalism and bilingualism (Graddol, 2006). As mentioned above, the UAE Ministry of Education drew upon the same assumptions when implementing the current programme. However, a number of unidentified barriers such as teachers’ lack of CLIL knowledge, experience and training, prevented the CLIL programme from being implemented successfully, thereby jeopardizing the stated aims of the MAG programme. From the data analysis, it is evident that the UAE teachers need to be trained. The undertaking of needs assessment can also provide details as to teacher preferences for training and development, thereby helping to construct an effective teacher-training course. As most of the current UAE content teachers are monolingual, it is likely that they will be trained to improve their fluency for using English as medium of instruction effectively. On the other hand, the language teachers might not have the skills or the knowledge required to teach the content. They would need training in this aspect of their teaching practice. As this study has demonstrated, despite these constraints, the Ministry of Education launched the current CLIL programme. In doing so, they overlooked the three key elements of a successful CLIL teacher: target language proficiency, content awareness, and CLIL method. The next section discusses the necessity of designing and implementing quality teacher training courses in the UAE.
6.3.2 Skills to Consider When Designing a CLIL Teacher Training Programme

The research outcomes have helped to identify some of the main skills that the UAE teachers need to be able to accomplish authentic CLIL implementation. The areas of CLIL teacher competence identified by Hansen-Pauly et al. (cited in Rodopi, 2014, p326) can serve as guidelines summarising UAE teachers’ skills required for effective CLIL teaching in the UAE classrooms (2009). They propose eight areas of CLIL teacher competence, which must encompass a range of factors. These include the needs of learners, planning, the use of multiple modes, interaction in the classroom, literacy in the subjects, assessment, collaboration and thinking about practice as well as context in addition to culture. Training based on these areas would address many of the issues requiring attention identified by the study participants. Another could be ‘The CLIL teachers’ competencies grid’ (Mehisto et al., 2008) that defines the teacher competencies required for CLIL teaching success in a clear and simple manner. Both of the above mentioned could be used as guidelines developing CLIL teachers professionally. The CLIL teachers’ competencies grid, for example, summarizes the competencies that UAE teachers’ lack and need in order to develop/achieve a better CLIL. According to analysis, the teacher-training course for UAE teachers should stress on these seven competencies:

Without the above competencies, the UAE teachers cannot conduct effective CLIL teaching. That is as mentioned in chapter one, CLIL is a new methodology that UAE teachers have not experienced as students, or as teachers. Developing such skills will
help to obtain maximum benefits. It will assist teachers to comprehend the advantages of using CLIL as well as to gain and understanding of how it works, which as a result, will enable teachers to plan, develop, deliver and evaluate their teaching and lessons more effectively. However, these competences cannot be achieved without teachers’ motivation towards CLIL. Motivation is an important first variable to consider when planning a teacher-training course. Teachers have to be motivated to change, to learn new techniques and methodologies, to collaborate with others, and generate new materials, in order to achieve an effective CLIL teaching.

The current CLIL programme requires these extensive CLIL teacher competences. Changing teachers’ attitudes/motivating them towards CLIL could not be easy. It could take time. However, the results could be fruitful. The development of these competencies will not only assist in enhancing teachers’ professional skills but will also help in changing teachers’ attitudes towards CLIL. A successful CLIL teacher-training programme must prepare skilled CLIL teachers who are capable of adopting approaches to CLIL, modifying CLIL to their own settings, combining CLIL into the programme, and ensuring quality teaching and learning. In other words, it should help teachers develop new/accurate understanding of CLIL.

Moreover, another element to consider when planning a teacher-training programme is teaching cognitive skills. According to Cummins, CLIL teachers must be aware of the necessity to teach cognitive skills along with language and subject matter (Cummins & Swain, 1996, p. 153). His theory addresses skills required by teachers for planning appropriate resources to their own settings. Other theories teachers need to master include Bloom’s New Taxonomy (1956) and Vygotsky’s scaffolding (1987) to assist students’ content and language learning. It is these techniques that assist teachers in delivering a rich and an ongoing learning experience (ibid).

Regarding teachers’ linguistic skills, they need to be fluent in English. They must have an English literature or English course as part of their educational background. As mentioned in the methodology chapter, only two out of ten of the participant teachers had a degree in English. Therefore, there should be an English learning module within the teacher-training course. However, language could not be taught in a short restricted period of time e.g. two or three months. Teachers would be able to learn the basics in a month or two, but mastering a language could take more than a year. That is, as we all know, language acquisition is a complicated process. It consists of grammar, structure, comprehension, reading, speaking and listening and other aspects of linguistics. Thus, the course designers must realise this fact in order to avoid further complications/misapplications. They have to design a language course that supports the curriculum within the teacher-training course. According to Archibald et al (2007, p.3), learning a second language for ninety-five hours over six years will not lead to functional bilingualism and fluency in the second language. Therefore, stakeholder expectations of teachers’ English language development...
during the course should be realistic. The focus should be on developing the teachers’ instructional/pedagogical English. Teachers’ taught language proficiency must be a priority in CLIL. As discussed in the literature review, CLIL is an approach, which is integral to modern foreign language teaching. Therefore, CLIL teacher’s language deficiency could hamper such integration. The lack of vocabulary, for example, would lead teachers to use their mother tongue or to teaching language in isolation to integrating language and content instruction. CLIL teachers must be proficient in the language they teach. They must feel confident when using it during the class e.g. when teaching, managing students or their classrooms, explaining the content or tasks. In addition, they should not need to code-switch except when needed. Furthermore, the course designers must ensure to incorporate other teaching elements within the course alongside CLIL e.g. how to plan an assessment and how to generate effective teaching tools.

Last but not least, training programmes for teachers need to teach educators to reflect on their practice, examine their prior beliefs and conceptions about knowledge, teaching and learning. Developing the ability to be reflective is vital to changing teacher attitudes towards CLIL. For instance, a number of teachers in the study evidenced negative views of CLIL, which seemed to link up to their personal notions and experiences of learning and acquiring knowledge. Reflexivity can help such teachers to identify and challenge these assumptions, thereby aiding new understandings of the CLIL approach.

6.3.3 Evaluation of CLIL teachers
As pointed out in the analysis, one of the key challenges in implementing CLIL effectively arises from teacher performance evaluations that are not consistent with actual performance. Presently teachers are evaluated on the basis of scheduled observations carried out by ministry officials and Principal evaluation of teachers through the teacher achievement folder and programme coordinator evaluation of teachers. Despite this triangulated approach, the true picture of CLIL implementation is not presented. As noted by some of the participants themselves, this approach is flawed because, due to advance notice, teachers are able to plan and execute perfect CLIL lessons and provide exemplary achievement folder contents. Unannounced observations would ensure that teachers must employ CLIL methodology in every lesson, of which most of them are capable to varying degrees. As a result of this greater accountability, not only would learning in the classrooms improve but also the principal and coordinators would be able to identify problems in teacher practice as they arise. The aim of such observations should be developmental, and teachers should not be penalised for inadvertent missteps in their teaching practice. Rather, they should be supported to improve themselves in areas of weakness and to build upon their strengths.

6.3.4 Conclusion
If the above-mentioned elements are implemented to conduct needs analysis and to design a teacher-training course in the UAE, both teachers and students would be able to participate in a successful CLIL teaching and learning experience. It is a matter of authenticity. A positive teacher-training course is a result of an effective analysis of teachers’ genuine educational needs. Therefore, the UAE Ministry of Education must be careful when conducting/planning innovations. They need to understand the ‘one size fits all’ notion is impractical when conducting an educational innovation. However, they can consider CLIL implementations across different contexts and modify these to their schools’ needs.

Conducting teacher training in the UAE might not be easy. As mentioned in the methodology chapter, more than half of the current CLIL UAE teachers have spent most of their lives teaching the way they do. They believe that their old fashioned method of teaching is faultless. Moreover, the UAE CLIL teaching department consists of two types of teachers: those who have an English degree and are proficient, and those who do not. Therefore, the course designers must be careful when carrying out planning and must consider every aspect mentioned above. It must be designed in a measured and a constructive manner in order to be implemented effectively. However, the stakeholders must not only rely on the training course. They should find other means and methodologies to support their teachers’ learning and teaching process, and their educational needs, some of these are discussed in the recommendations section.

6.4 Teacher related Factors

This section reviews teacher related factors that impacted/is impacting the effectiveness of the CLIL programme in the UAE. Also, it discusses notions and methods that can be used to overcome the difficulties teachers face in relation to CLIL teaching and learning.

Constructing a teaching experience that fosters better learning has been the main objective of academia worldwide (Comenius, 1592-1604). There are many educational methods and approaches that have proven effective to serve the above. However, conducting such teaching in the classroom requires specific skills and communications. Therefore, teachers’ proficiency for innovative teaching is a key variable influencing innovative teaching performance.

6.4.1 Teachers’ Education

Teachers’ academic backgrounds were not adequate to the demands of CLIL in both schools. Many Emirati teachers do not have English speaking or learning experiences. Hence, they are forced to teach CLIL in a language they have not used for more than
twenty years of their personal and professional life. As emphasized in across this research, the misconception that ‘teachers can teach everything’ should be changed. A teacher’s ability to teach competently is linked to his or her qualifications and relevant certifications, when teaching a subject through a second language in particular. It can be agreed with Darling-Hammond (1999) that when teaching a second language, knowing the materials is not sufficient. Being qualified in using CLIL resources, methods and techniques becomes impractical without the language proficiency. According to Richards (2001), teachers have to obtain the language required for the innovation in order to achieve an effective teaching practice. However, while eight out of ten of the participant teachers have degrees in Arabic education, only two had English teaching certificates.

In MAG schools, most of the CLIL teachers are native Arabic speakers, since the UAE Ministry of Education believes that native teachers are more capable of modifying instruction to accommodate Emirati students’ needs than non-natives (Al Halmodi et al., 2012). It can be agreed with Shuhail, the deputy director of Sharjah’s educational zone, that Emirati teachers can effectively teach a second language. However, I believe that not all Emirati teachers can teach through CLIL. Shuhail neglects an important aspect of CLIL teaching, in which the objective consists of learning and teaching in English. It can be noticed from the research outcomes, that teachers’ English language skills were not taken into consideration when selecting them to teach CLIL. Their focus was on the content knowledge. Having said that, eight out of ten teachers had problems in delivering the content matter via English. Teachers’ lack of content knowledge could be detected in math lessons than other CLIL subjects. A shared concern reported by CLIL teachers was that they could not find suitable materials, approaches and activities to teach math through an English medium (Coyle, 1999). It is because of two identified reasons: either they cannot find techniques to complement the work they have generated previously in their previous programme, or they find modifying second language materials to be time consuming. It was revealing to find that qualified Arabic math teachers’ experienced substantial challenges in deliver the same lesson as effectively in English as they did in their Arabic math classrooms. This brought home the extent of the challenge created by compelling unqualified teachers to implement CLIL. In view of the above, teachers’ performance remains the best indicator of their efficiency and capability with effective CLIL teaching.

### 6.4.2 Teacher Performance

According to the research outcomes, the absence of the teacher empowerment in the UAE schools established unruly attitudes towards the CLIL programme. It made them feel disempowered in their own classrooms. They managed teaching under the pressure of the Ministry, but at a price. It led teachers to neglect their responsibilities as CLIL teachers, and readopt the methods of their previous teaching programme.
They were observed not to have adequate competencies to provide effective CLIL teaching and learning in their classrooms. Content teachers, for example, cannot express themselves due to the language issue; therefore, they tend to focus on the content. Accordingly, students’ required skills for CLIL learning are disregarded. Nine out of ten teachers used Arabic in their classrooms. English was used only to read a paragraph from the textbook or to answer content related question. In relation to content teaching, students did not have opportunities to express their opinions or to participate in any content related discussions. According to the teachers’ and students’ interview responses, it could be because of two main reasons. They either are not fully qualified to be CLIL teachers, or they do not realize its importance as the school administrators support their actions. During my research, I asked the participant teachers to explain their excessive use of Arabic in their classroom; one of them responded that if she used English throughout the whole class time, her students might not understand. This also reflects those teachers’ fear of losing their status as qualified teachers among their colleagues (Mourani, 2004). Another teacher responded that the school administrators prefer the old fashioned way of teaching. This was a belief shared by other participants as well. The response that surprised me was the one given by one of the stakeholders while visiting the Ministry of Education headquarters. In response to my question of seeking permission to conduct my research on grade four students, the reply was as follows:

“Why did you choose grade four teachers? They are not good in English. I would recommend a higher level. You know that grade four teachers were Arabic teachers and are not that capable in English”.

The CLIL teachers’ performances in the UAE schools demonstrate the Ministry’s shortsightedness in employing qualified CLIL teachers and administering them. Not only did this lead to an old-fashioned class setting, but they also misguided teachers into teaching the language in isolation rather than integrating content and language.

Moreover, most of the observed teachers could not attract their students’ attention during three continuous hours of teachings. According to my observations and document analysis outcomes, they failed to deliver an authentic and motivating CLIL lesson. They did not understand how to follow the lesson plan that required an integration of the language and the content. In addition, they struggled to accomplish some of the tasks that required using a combination of different communicative approaches (See appendix 3). Also, they are not trained to use CLIL.

Many teachers are unqualified to teach CLIL in the UAE. Shehada, the head of the English department at Dubai National School, stated in ‘the National’ that in the UAE:

“Some people are applying for teaching but they have only been enrolled in academic programmes, not teaching programmes, so they are qualified from an academic point of view
but they don’t have the teaching qualifications. It’s very important, alongside curriculum or academic requirements, that they know teaching methodology: how to appeal to students, how to differentiate classes. It’s a prerequisite that should be there for teachers, similar to a professional standing required in other countries.” (Pennington, 2014)

This and the above is evidence of the stakeholders’ awareness of the difficulties surrounding CLIL teachers.

**6.4.3 Teacher Attitudes Towards CLIL**

Innovation in second language teaching is seen as being actualized by way of changes in pedagogical practices aimed at promotion of more effective language learning (Delano, Riley & Crookes, 1994, p.489). The above description reflects the significance of teacher roles in the process of innovations, as it is their pedagogical practices that must undergo transformation in the wake of educational innovation. In CLIL education, the adoption of the innovation differs from other educational innovations. That is in CLIL, teachers can implement the change in their existing contexts ‘if’ they have the opportunity to be aware of their attitudes, how to clarify them, and how to refine them to make changes (Rea-Dickins & Germaine, 1998). Teachers’ attitudes towards CLIL are essential for the learning process (Montecel & Cortez, 2002). The lack of teachers’ CLIL teaching knowledge, skills and training could cause teachers to have negative attitudes towards the CLIL programme and the students. The negative attitudes I have identified are consistent with the literature reviewed in chapter one.

During observations, teachers complained to their students about the programme describing CLIL and the students in a negative manner e.g. telling students that they were not as capable as the Ministry of education was expecting, and blaming them for the failure of the programme. That, as a result, created a great gap between CLIL teacher and their students. Other teachers expressed their low expectancies to their students throughout the whole lesson e.g. repeating the sentence “Listen carefully I really don’t want to repeat again”. Many theorists warn teachers from the consequences of misusing their power in the classroom. Statements, as the above, can cause students to mistrust their teachers and demotivate them towards the CLIL programme, leading to poor achievements. It can be agreed with Kent (1968) that

“It is based on the simple principle that a child will work more readily at something that interests him, and that in order to do this he will often acquire the necessary skills because he now sees a reason for possessing them” (p.4).

Teachers’ negative attitudes towards the current CLIL programme can been seen throughout their teaching. Students’ responses revealed their awareness of their teachers’ negative attitudes towards CLIL. According to some students, teachers’ lack of interests and lack of motivation towards their teaching is the main reason for their own negative attitudes towards CLIL classes. The students’ disillusionment
can be comprehended, for they are forced to sit on the same seat for three hours listening to their teachers with a fear of participating, as (see analysis chapter), they are not allowed to participate in their own learning. The participant teachers’ interview responses to, ‘the reasons of their negative attitudes towards CLIL’ question confirms the above. They consider it as a way of expressing their dissatisfaction. However, they may not realize that it could reflect their inefficiency, since they did not try to manage to solve problems efficiently. For example, many CLIL teachers have negative perceptions of their students’ capabilities to cope with CLIL, which impedes them from reacting positively towards difficulties in relation to CLIL teaching and learning.

Another teacher attitude that influences the CLIL programme’s success in the UAE schools is teacher attitudes towards CLIL students. They need to find better way to communicate with their students. They should not see students’ requests for extra clarifications, expression his/her opinions or suggestion of ideas as a threat or a gesture of ‘bad teaching’. They need to realize that the above is important in CLIL classrooms. Students’ participation in classroom activities and questions about the taught language and content are important strategies for effective learning. It is a demonstration of students’ motivation to learn. Such teacher attitudes can lead to communication related issues and mistrust between the teacher and students, thereby impeding communication in the classroom. According to the student interview data, it is the cultural factors that impede students from participating in their own learning in the classroom. The fear of teachers’ negative attitude causes them ‘shame and disappointment’, as described by half of the participant students (See appendix 5).

Based on the teachers’ interview responses, eight out of ten teachers believe their students are not aware of their educational needs; therefore, they should not interfere in what they are not capable of achieving. Also, they blame their students for their poor achievement in CLIL classrooms. Such teachers’ attitudes accumulate and influence the students’ achievements.

Another teacher attitude discussed in this research is their perceptions of their CLIL students’ learning proficiencies. Based on the interview responses and the observation outcomes, teachers’ have low expectation and great disappointment with their students’ learning achievements. They believe that CLIL is not for the UAE students. Teachers’ dissatisfaction can be noticed throughout the class. Teachers complain to students about their poor performance and inability to succeed in the CLIL programme during CLIL classroom, which leads many students to develop negative attitudes towards CLIL learning. Also, it creates a barrier that impedes students’ participation and limits their outputs.

On the other hand, there are a minority of teachers who have positive attitudes towards CLIL in the UAE. Two out of ten of the participant teachers used English throughout the CLIL classrooms. They managed to adopt CLIL and establish
supporting techniques and activities. However, one of them was not familiar with CLIL teaching or learning. She used to provide her students with challenging tasks that were incoherent with their abilities. Also, she had formal attitude towards her students, which limited students’ participation and collaboration. This type of relationships and practices may have also affected students’ attitudes towards CLIL. Accordingly, teachers’ positive attitude towards CLIL is not sufficient to achieve an effective CLIL teaching/learning in the UAE schools. In order to accomplish a successful CLIL implementation, teachers need to understand CLIL methodology and requirements. Also, it can be agreed with Horowitz & Arditi (2000) that ‘teachers must demonstrate their attitudes working in an adequate manner with all students’ in order to achieve quality CLIL teaching and learning (p.481). Based on the above teacher observation analysis, she did not focus on her students’ proficiency level. The tasks were linguistically challenging for her students as the focus was to cover the lesson’s objectives than students’ comprehension of the content. Thus, the students’ outcomes demonstrated competency in one area, whether language or the content, as expressed by her students.

As mentioned earlier, the CLIL programme faces many challenges in the UAE. Each individual involved in the programme seem to blame someone or something to defend their failure to accomplish the programme’s objectives. Teachers blame their students and the stakeholders, while stakeholders blame teachers and the students, in turn, blame the educators. The CLIL programme aims to transform UAE classrooms. However, the Ministry’s hopes were based on their overestimation of their teachers’ teaching capabilities. They did not give the teachers the opportunity to prepare themselves for the new innovation. Hence, it should be acknowledged that in line with the literature reviewed in the research, the entire above teacher related variables did not favour students’ CLIL learning and development. Therefore, UAE teachers need to adopt new roles in order to accomplish successful CLIL teaching.

6.4.4 New Teaching Roles

CLIL might not be easy to achieve in the UAE. According to the research findings in relation to teachers’ attitudes, CLIL demands teachers to adjust their teaching and developing their competences. It can be agreed with Marsh in Coyle et al (2010, p.5) that CLIL teachers require multi-faceted expertise in subject-matter, language, pedagogical practices and integration of these aspects as well as in integrating the approach within the educational setting itself.

The question that the Ministry of education needs to ask about CLIL is ‘who should teach CLIL and how?’ CLIL might take many forms (Pavón, 2010). According to Pavón (2010, p.34), in CLIL the emphasis can vary from teaching based on content brought in by language educators or teaching based on language brought in by content
In other words, CLIL does not have a single form. The success of a CLIL programme depends on the target students’ needs, human resources and materials available. It can be agreed with Coyle that when implementing change, all stakeholders’ collaboration, involvement and comprehension of the programme is vital, not only teachers (2009). Yet, in most of cases, CLIL programme implementation requires content teachers who can teach subject-matter through a foreign language. However, it is evident that content teachers cannot cope with CLIL teaching if they are unaware of CLIL methodology. Eight out of ten of the participant teachers were content teachers. However, they were not able to accomplish successful CLIL context/teaching, as they were unaware of the way they should teach in CLIL. According to Pavón & Rubio many content teachers are not aware of how they must teach in CLIL classrooms, as they are unaware of the shifts in methodology needed to accomplish this (2010). Another reason found is the difference between the way those teachers were taught and the way they were trained for teaching (Kaplan & Baldauf, 1997). As explained in the literature review chapter, CLIL teachers should be fully qualified to be able to conduct a successful CLIL teaching. They should have proficiency in both the language and the content. Deficiencies in one of the above could lead to negative results. Therefore, CLIL teachers should have enough linguistic skills to enable them to teach the content through the foreign language. As mentioned in the previous discussion, a lack of language proficiency may cause many difficulties. Based on the above, I suggest that it might be more practical if the Ministry train their language teachers to teach the content instead of the opposite. However, it might be difficult for the Ministry to achieve the above. Another suggestion could be to train the language teachers to teach content matters, whilst training the content teachers on becoming CLIL teacher assistants. This could be the best solution to the difficulties facing the CLIL programme and CLIL teachers in the UAE. Language proficiency, in my opinion, is significant to CLIL teaching and learning. According to Frigols, Marsh, Mehisto and Wolff, the qualifications of teachers working within CLIL programmes, which require a dual competence in content and in language matter a great deal in terms of the effectiveness of implementation. Unfortunately, many do not believe in that. Like the Ministry of Education, Marsh and Nikula, for example, believe native-like language proficiency is not a compulsory a feature for content teachers (2012). The Ministry’s selection of their CLIL teachers was not based on teachers’ teaching qualifications, but their proficiency in one aspect, language or content, rather than both.

The effectiveness of a CLIL programme does not ‘only’ depend on teachers’ proficiencies in the content and the language knowledge but also on language teachers and content teachers cooperating and working together. The lack of such cooperation, as mentioned in the analysis chapter, is one of the reasons causing difficulties to the CLIL programmes in the UAE. For instance, proficient language teachers may deliver
effective linguistic lessons to their CLIL students. However, their language proficiency is not sufficient in CLIL classrooms. That is as in CLIL, the focus should not only be on the language but also on the coalescing of content and language. As previously discussed, these language teachers may be competent in providing successful linguistic lessons, but they fail to deliver a good content knowledge. Thus, they must develop a language awareness that triggers their consciousness of their own language inputs and their students’ anticipated outputs (Pavón and Ellison, 2013). This is the best procedure teachers can adapt to solve the above obstacle for not only does it suggest a greater awareness of the language but also better adoption of CLIL teaching methods and more deliberate use of teaching supports, resources and materials. It can be agreed with Lorenzo et al (2005, p.18) that content and language teachers must develop not only fluency but also linguistic awareness that allows them to mould the content to medium of instruction and create pedagogical procedures, whereby learners learn with greater effectiveness.

On the other hand, there are two difficulties UAE content teachers face whilst using the foreign language, namely the lack of language competence as well as inadequacy in CLIL content teaching knowledge. Teachers’ language deficiencies could affect students’ learning in a negative manner. For instance, during observations, it was found that many teachers used their mother tongue to explain the whole lesson. English was used only in explaining/mentioning the new vocabulary. Many UAE teachers use this technique in their CLIL classrooms in order to guarantee their students’ understanding of the content, and to overcome their lack of the language competency and their students’ poor English skills. Moreover, content teachers can face various challenges when teaching CLIL. One of the major challenges is the change in relation to CLIL teaching is the emphasis on activities that foster language proficiency with for communicative purposes and wherein the aim is to enable learners to comprehend, retain, and use rather than to memorize (Pavón and Ellison, 2013).

The second difficulty those content teachers face is the lack of CLIL content teaching knowledge. Based on the research outcomes, some teachers feel bad about the disadvantages their students have because of their lack of language knowledge. Therefore, at times, in order to develop their students’ language skills, they provide excessive linguistic explanations, in which the CLIL lesson becomes a language lesson. For example, one teacher took more than forty-five minutes to explain five new lexical items; another took a whole class time to explain a grammatical rule, consuming the time required for the teaching of the content. According to Pavón & Rubio, this type of actions does only help in increasing the pressure in teachers (2010). They add stating that, when content teachers try to have control of the language development, they face difficulties manipulating the language; therefore, they must not be asked to adopt such a challenging role (ibid).
Based on the interview outcomes, many teachers assume that language teachers are better in teaching CLIL than content teachers. They believe that these teachers’ language proficiency means that they can teach content just as effectively. However, integrating language and content learning has to be defined clearly, otherwise this may lead to less than effective implementation (Pavón and Ellison, 2013, p.71). I have observed two language teachers. Both of them were well-qualified CLIL teachers, as mentioned in the previous discussion. However, in some of their classes they used most of their class time teaching grammatical structures. That should not happen in CLIL classes. Teaching grammatical structures, in such manner, should not be part of the content teaching (ibid). According to Coyle’s 4Cs. ‘communication’ should be taken in consideration as the way of teachers’ contribution to the explanation of the new language (2007). It is as defined by Coyle as the appropriate use of language in CLIL classes with a view to encouraging learners to participate actively in negotiating the meaning of what they are learning (2007, p.551). By doing so, the language becomes a tool to achieve CLIL objectives, and not an objective in itself (ibid). Accordingly, language teaching in CLIL classes is linked up to helping learners use the language and to encouraging them to use it when learning the content, in addition to not teaching according to conventional pedagogies. Moreover, many UAE CLIL teachers believe that they should emphasize on specific grammatical structures and have linguistic goals to be taught in a traditional way where students are not part of their own learning. Also, content teachers alone must not be tasked with giving instruction in the language, as their primary job is to teach content effectively so that learners accomplish their academic goals.

6.4.5 New Change in the Methods of CLIL Teachers

Teachers’ new role requires a complete change in their teaching strategies that they use in their current CLIL classrooms. It might not be not easy to achieve as, based on the outcomes, those teachers believe that their teaching is the best way to achieve the current CLIL programme objectives. During the interviews, many teachers expressed their disappointments towards CLIL. Their misjudgements were based on their inaccurate knowledge of the CLIL methodology. Those teachers need to understand that what they are/were teaching was/is not CLIL. They need to change in order to see the benefits of CLIL.

The main problem noticed in the UAE CLIL classrooms is the lack of students’ collaboration and participation. Students’ participation in CLIL learning process is vital. Teaching the lesson in the same old manner, using same old methods and approaches e.g. teacher-centred, with a foreign language cannot be called CLIL teaching. Teachers need to understand that the main objective of CLIL, which is to assist students’ understanding of both the content and the language through their use. Therefore, CLIL teachers should consider participative activities when teaching
CLIL. According to the research outcomes, many teachers have a common misconception when it comes to implementing a participative lesson. They believe that participative lesson is limited to teacher-student interaction. However, in CLIL, participation should include teacher-student interaction as well as peer-to-peer interaction throughout tasks requiring collaboration (Pavón & Ellison, 2013). Also, when implementing those participative lessons, it is important to remember the significance of communicative skills and the cognitive language skills in CLIL. There must be an equal emphasis on the capability to use the language communicatively and to use it for studying, discussing, analysing, interrogating and reporting on the content (ibid). Therefore, CLIL teachers must develop the right techniques and approaches to support their students’ proper implementation of the above.

CLIL lessons do not have specific patterns as, each aspect of CLIL e.g. subject and context is unique. One of the best ways to increase teachers’ awareness of CLIL teaching is Coyle’s 4Cs (2010). It assists teachers to understand and learn about the aspects they must take in consideration when implementing CLIL in their classrooms. As mentioned in the literature, it is the nexus between what is being taught, communication, thinking and culture that lead to successful CLIL and support teachers’ practice across a range of different contexts (Cross and Gearon, 2013). Moreover, when used for developing CLIL lessons, teachers can see the benefits of using it in with regard to constructing objectives, planning activities and materials. For instance, CLIL teachers have to take into account whether they are using the language ‘of and ‘for’ and ‘through’ learning for the session so as to achieve the communication principle. According to Pavón and Ellison (2013), in order to achieve ‘communication’ teachers have to consider the language ‘of’, ‘for’ and ‘through’ learning for lessons. For instance, Pavon and Ellison (2013, p.72-73) note that “language of learning” is connected to the key terms and ideas of the subject matter, whereas “language for learning” is linked to the discourse for discussing, analysing and hypothesizing the content and its terminologies as well as to learner discourse that allows them to express their understanding of what they are learning.

Effective planning is important in CLIL teaching. I believe that if all UAE teachers implement the above, they will definitely realize the effectiveness of CLIL. Also, they will be able to distinguish the difference between real CLIL and what they thought is CLIL, which as a result will facilitate CLIL teaching and learning. Moreover, it will assist teachers to reconsider their teaching approaches. Many teachers in the UAE prefer using the ‘teacher-centred’ way of teaching for reasons mentioned in previous chapters. As mentioned in the discussion chapter, the Ministry is aware of the disadvantages of only using such approaches in teaching as, one of their motives to implement CLIL is to introduce new teaching approaches that support and promote students’ interaction in the classrooms (Prescott, 2011). However, it would be difficult for teachers to see these disadvantages unless they use Coyle’s framework
and implement proper CLIL. Furthermore, it must be recognised that CLIL is not against ‘teacher centred’ teaching. It can contain both ‘teacher-centred’ and ‘student-centred’ approaches. However, teacher centred should be used in combination with other approaches and only should be used when needed. Another approach to consider when teaching CLIL is the ‘thinking-centred’ approach, which involves teachers and students in thinking of how to reach, understand and express the content (Pavón and Ellison, 2013). This type of teaching requires self-consciousness and conscious thinking about the learning procedure (ibid). When using CLIL, it is important not to forget that CLIL should not only be about the conduction of knowledge but also the demonstration and the comprehension of that knowledge, its implementation, analysis and evaluation (Bloom, 1956). Hence, teachers must consider how learners express understanding and use language in and outside the classroom. Moreover, in order to plan effective CLIL resources and activities, teachers have to balance thinking and linguistic requirements to make sure that the content is taught to the highest standards and opportunities are provided to learners for showcasing and developing their cognitive abilities (Pavón & Ellison, 2013, p.73). By doing so, teachers can examine the effectiveness of their teaching and their students’ learning. All the above are what teachers have to think about before choosing to teach CLIL.

As mentioned elsewhere, CLIL teaching requires proficiency in both language and content. Many language teachers manage to teach CLIL contents with no prior knowledge of CLIL. Their language proficiency allows them to overcome their difficulties in relation to content knowledge, while many content teachers failed. That is as they did not have the language skills required to effectively deliver the content or the language to the students. The way in which CLIL teachers modify and use the language is very important in CLIL classrooms. Their language is significant to assist and support students’ learning outputs and their language understanding (Richards & Lockhart, 1996), and comprehension of content. The language can be modified in various ways e.g. simplifying the language, speaking slowly and using short sentences. However, as mentioned above, teachers should remember not to focus on only one aspect of CLIL. When using the above techniques teachers must make sure to allow time to teach both language and content in an equal manner.

Moreover, being a second language method, it is important that teachers check students’ comprehension in CLIL classrooms. Only two participant teachers were observed asking their students questions and testing for their comprehension as important. The other seven found it a waste of time. They defended their argument claiming that using code switching is ‘more than enough’ to ensure students’ understanding. Those teachers need to understand that code switching could only help students to understand and express the content in their mother tongue, where the objective should be to master both the language and the content. The students’ interview results clearly show the effects of the above on their learning. Only one of the students interviewed was able to communicate in and understand English. The other students’ lack of language competence prevented them from doing so.
Unexpectedly, some of those students could not differentiate between alphabetical letters. Therefore, it is important that teachers to check their students’ content and language comprehension during the classroom. One of the easiest techniques teachers could use is asking questions. It facilitates students’ comprehension of the content and language and encourages cognitive skill development. Furthermore, there are various types of questions teachers can use. However, in CLIL the focus should be on specific typology that includes questions for fact checking, inviting explanations or soliciting reasons and opinions. Other questions could prompt learners to think about their own thinking processes (Dalton-Puffer, 2007, p.98). Also, these questions should all be reliant on the content (ibid).

CLIL is a dual focused educational method that demands emphasis on both the language and the content in parallel manner. The dual focus has many benefits if effectively implemented in the classroom. In addition to the benefits mentioned above, CLIL can assist both teachers’ and students’ cognitive developments. That is as in CLIL, they both are forced to use their cognitive skills in order to succeed in understanding and learning/teaching the subject matter and the language. In other words, in CLIL, students are pushed to use their language and content abilities, stretch them to fullest, reflect on their outputs and consider ways to modify them to develop proper understanding (Swain, 1993). Based on observation outcomes, only two teachers succeeded in achieving the above-mentioned benefit while the other failed. Their success is a result of their effectiveness to deliver their massages to their students without excluding the content matter or using oversimplified concepts and languages, or using Arabic. It is irrational to expect development in students’ cognitive skills when the language or/and the content is omitted. Therefore, teachers need to teach CLIL through a careful selection of language, strategies and methods in order to make their input as understandable as possible. Also, teachers need to realise that everything they do in their CLIL classrooms can negatively or positively affect their communication with their students e.g. their deployment of language, the way they present lessons, the type of questions they use, their body language, expressions, examples and attitudes. Hence, it is necessary that teachers should analyse and reflect upon their teaching.

As mentioned above, language teachers did not have as many difficulties as content teachers. The lack of content teachers’ confidence in using the English and trusting their students’ skills, can clearly be noticed in their teaching performances and interview responses. They believe that CLIL exceeds the UAE students’ learning abilities and should not be used to teach content matters. According to them, teacher-centred is the best way to teach UAE students (See appendix 4 and 3). However, based on students’ interview responses to the question of “What is your description of a perfect classroom experience? Fifteen out of twenty students described CLIL. Their ‘perfect classroom’ is where English used to teach content and content is taught interactively and communicatively. It is inappropriate to blame students for teachers’
failure, as students’ reaction and attitudes depends on teachers’ teaching methods, strategies, attitudes and techniques. As mentioned above, there are many communicative strategies and tasks available to content teachers in the CLIL classrooms so as to overcome pedagogical shortcomings. In order to avoid students’ miscomprehension, which might happen as a result of teachers’ language deficiency, content teachers must use a range of strategies to check their students’ understanding of the content and the language, and give feedback. It will also help both teachers and students to be informed of the level of their understanding and development. These will assist teachers to increase their students’ motivation towards learning. As reviewed above, in CLIL lessons, the content should be taught in a way that is adaptable and understandable to the students. One of the techniques that those teachers can use when presenting complex knowledge, is to break it up into small parts and to teach them using effective supporting materials e.g. videos, acting or technology.

However, according to the research findings, the two language teachers had fewer difficulties than content teachers. As discussed above, it is not their methods that require change, but their role in CLIL classrooms. As mentioned above, language teachers might find teaching the content as challenging, as their responsibilities has changed from only teaching a language to teaching both language and ‘content’ in parallel. When teaching CLIL, those language teachers should understand that their language teaching is as important as the content teaching. They should not focus on one aspect than the other. They need to make sure that their teaching is not only focused on teaching linguistics. They must shift from using their old methods to more interactive and participative methods.

6.4.6 Conclusion

In conclusion, the UAE CLIL programme contains two types of teachers: content teacher and language teachers. I believe that it is necessary for content teachers and language teachers to work in collaboration with one another. This includes a high level of assistance and support and learning from and with each other. Language teachers can assist content teachers obtain the necessary linguistic proficiency to integrate the content, whilst, content teachers can assist language teachers acquire essential content knowledge required to assimilate the language. They necessitate certain qualities, qualifications and skills, as well as a change in their teaching pedagogy to better suit CLIL objectives. To achieve effective CLIL learning outcomes, it is important that teachers use methods and strategies that are suitable to understand the content and the language required to manipulate it, and to perform and engage in activities. Additionally, CLIL teachers have to provide contexts that assist and support the use of that language and the content learning in a parallel manner. Also, there is a necessity for CLIL training programme where teachers can be trained in skills both content teachers and language teachers need when teaching via CLIL.
6.5 Student Factors

Students contribute greatly to the effectiveness of educational innovations. This is to be expected as innovations are meant to improve students’ learning experiences and developments. This section discusses student related variables that affected/is affecting the effectiveness of the CLIL programme in the UAE schools, their attitude and motivation in particular.

6.5.1 Students’ Attitudes towards CLIL in the UAE Schools

Students’ attitudes towards CLIL are crucial effective variables to consider in CLIL classrooms. Heckhausen (1991) and Dörneyi, (2001) it is students’ positive attitudes that facilitate students' learning. I strongly agree with them as, if students are not enthusiastic to learn or do not have positive attitudes towards CLIL, they may not be able to achieve the learning objectives of the CLIL programme or produce effective outcomes. Based on the research outcomes, students’ learning is affected by their attitudes and motivation towards CLIL. Generally speaking, learners in the observed CLIL classrooms could be categorised according to two types: students who were motivated towards CLIL and those who were not. According to Papaja (2014), different attitudes towards CLIL in a classroom can cause learning difficulties, as those motivated and demotivated students have different perceptions of the CLIL programme, their teachers and classrooms. Therefore, those perceptions are responsible for their attitudes towards CLIL (ibid). In other words, students’ perceptions of their classrooms, teachers, classmates and CLIL programme can impact their attitudes towards CLIL learning. Hence, students’ attitudes and motivation towards CLIL are significant factors to consider in CLIL classrooms.

According to Gardner and Lambert (1959) students’ academic achievements depend on their abilities and motivation towards their learning. I agree with this as students’ interview responses indicate that their lack of proficiency in both the language and the content knowledge underlies their negative attitudes towards the CLIL programme. The classroom observation results support their statement. The language deficiency, for example, prevented many of those students from interacting and responding to their teachers’ inputs. They claim that the old fashioned way was strict and demanding, but it did not require them to use the second language to demonstrate their understanding and capabilities. They only had to blindly memorize the content as well as the vocabulary using their mother tongue, which was the main reason behind their positive attitudes towards the previous programme. In other words, understanding the content and the use of the language was not obligatory to pass. However, CLIL requires learners to focus on subject matter as well as language in order to achieve the expected academic outcomes.
According to Grosjean (1999), students who are fluent in the foreign language appreciate interacting with others and have different perspectives than those who are not. The majority of the interviewed students agree with this. Despite the fact that there are some students what had sufficient English language knowledge to participate in the classroom, they only used Arabic during their CLIL classrooms. According to those students, their demotivation towards CLIL classrooms is not only because of their inability to use the language but also their inaccuracy. The lack of language practice in the classroom is the main reason given for their lack of confidence in using the language. For example, three of the students indicated that they would not use English until they become fluent. Therefore, identifying students’ needs, attitudes and levels of proficiency is important to motivate students’ towards CLIL.

Moreover, students’ learning context is another aspect that can affect students’ attitudes towards CLIL classrooms. Gardner (1985) maintains that, students’ learning context can impact students’ learning in either a negative or a positive manner. CLIL learning contexts may involve teachers, teaching/learning materials, and classroom tasks, peers and classroom rules and regulations. The students’ attitudes towards these variables can impact their motivation and learning outcomes. Students’ must have positive attitudes towards their learning contexts in order to be motivated towards CLIL learning. Positive attitude towards the learning context assists students to produce greater satisfaction, interest and efforts towards their learning. Also, it helps teachers to produce less effort while teaching as students’ positive attitudes increase their desire to learn and to pay more attention in the classrooms in order to accomplish more. It can be agreed with Gardner (1985) that, students with positive attitudes about their teachers and learning learn more efficiently than those who have negative attitudes.

There are many reasons why positive attitude towards CLIL is crucial. One of those reasons is that, other than other methods, CLIL is a demanding method that requires a dual focus. It necessitates students to have positive attitudes and motivation towards two aspects, language and contents, rather than one. Several difficulties may occur if students have positive attitudes towards the content and a negative attitude towards the language, or vice versa. Based on students’ interview responses, the majority of students had positive attitudes towards only one aspect of CLIL, the language ‘or’ the content, which as a result led to difficulties in achieving the programme’s objectives. However, students are not to blame. Based on the research outcomes, content teachers focus more on content delivery than language teaching/learning. Therefore, students’ motivation was towards developing their content learning abilities rather than their language abilities for interacting in the classroom and pleasing their teacher in order to get high scores in classroom participation. Therefore, it can be noted that the most learners in the UAE feel positively about content learning than about language
As emphasised several times in this research, CLIL success depends on the teachers’ understanding and implementations of CLIL. Therefore, teachers must recognise that learners are not CLIL experts, and that their learning performances are results of their teachers’ methods and strategies.

Another reason is that CLIL requires involvement and patience from both teachers and students (Papaja, 2014). Teachers and students need more time than they used to spend when learning through the previous method. Unlike the previous method, students need to practice, understand and learn two aspects rather than one. On the other hand, teachers require more time to prepare and be prepared for the lesson and the materials. Therefore, they both must have positive attitudes towards CLIL in order to achieve effective outcomes.

Furthermore, as mentioned in the literature, studying in an integrative context provides students with greater competence in the foreign language as well as the content being taught through this medium of instruction, which can help students to be prepared for future responsibilities, jobs and studies. Hence, students must view their learning at school positively in order to be able to identify the importance of CLIL learning/teaching for their future. Negative attitudes can lead to difficulties in recognising the above, which as a result may cause students to fail in their future academic or professional responsibilities. Many students do not understand the importance of CLIL for their future. Their negative attitudes towards the CLIL innovation or their CLIL teachers’ methods/strategies can create a barrier that prevents them from acknowledging the effectiveness of CLIL. It is their teachers’ responsibilities to increase students’ awareness about the above. Students must have better understanding and an authentic CLIL teaching in order to be able to have positive attitudes towards CLIL.

The above discussion demonstrates the impact of teachers’ attitudes and teaching on students’ attitudes towards CLIL. All students need is a teacher who can motivate them towards their learning and encourage them to use their skills inside and outside the classroom. They do not require only proficiency in an aspect, content or language, but in both, in order to understand the effectiveness of CLIL for their future. Also, they require CLIL teachers who are fully qualified in their field. They want teachers who can provide them with appropriate CLIL experience. In other words, they need teachers who can provide a positive environment in the classroom, where they can learn with fun. Therefore, CLIL teachers must not forget that their role in CLIL is that of facilitators rather than controllers. They should appreciate students’ efforts and mistakes and accept them as an important process of their learning. In other words, they should support students in a positive manner without hurting their ego. It can be agreed with Brok et al. (2005) that, teachers’ interpersonal behavior impacts students’ motivation, attitudes and learning outcomes. That is if teachers interact positively with their students, understand their learning needs and difficulties, and react
positively their outcomes, they can assure positive students’ attitudes towards CLIL in their classrooms.

6.5.2 Conclusion

In conclusion, if all of the mentioned above is accomplished in the CLIL classroom, students’ will undoubtedly have positive attitude towards CLIL. Students’ positive attitudes towards CLIL are important to achieve the CLIL programme’s objectives. Teachers’ failure to achieve students’ positive attitude can lead to various difficulties. Teachers have to be aware of the influence of their attitudes towards their teaching on their students’ learning. They must understand that without their positive attitudes, achieving positive students’ attitudes towards CLIL learning might be ‘impossible’. Therefore, it is essential that stakeholders should be attentive to the significance of teachers’ motivation and its influence on their teaching.

6.6 Material Related Factors

6.6.1 Introduction

This section discusses the importance of CLIL materials as a key factor underlying effective CLIL programmes, and a main source of success of current CLIL programme in the UAE classrooms. It disuses some of the issues emerged, during the research, in relation to the current materials used in the classrooms, and compare them with the literature reviewed in chapter one. Also, it highlights some of the approaches teachers can use to overcome the difficulties facing them in the current programme in terms of CLIL materials development. Moreover, it provides a guide for teachers on how to apply the 4Cs principles in order to assure quality in CLIL materials developments.

6.6.2 Impact of Materials

Materials are the fourth key factor that stakeholders need to consider in order to achieve successful CLIL implementation. It must be noted that without good materials CLIL programmes can become ineffective and impractical. In addition, the results could be critical. It could be said that it is the effectiveness of CLIL materials that ensures quality CLIL teaching and learning outcomes. According to Mehisto (2008) and Navés (2009), materials are significant factor of an effective CLIL programme. Therefore, Marsh (2002) asserts that the readiness and the capability to design effective CLIL materials should be one of the essential qualities CLIL teachers. The majority of teachers have defined CLIL materials as a major source of difficulty and unnecessary workload. It is believed that to overcome difficulties associated with materials designing; teachers have several alternatives in dealing with
such issues. However, it could only be possible in contexts where CLIL course-books/workbooks and lesson plans exist. It is complicated. According to Morton’s (2013) research on CLIL materials, there is a lack of sufficient authentic and relevant materials generated around the world to support CLIL programmes. He adds stating that most of the materials available around the world are designed for native speakers (ibid). Therefore, CLIL is facing difficulties around the world, despite its potential in teaching and learning. Based on the analysis, the above is responsible for the current situation of CLIL in the UAE schools. The course-books and the lesson plans provided, as examined by myself and other teachers, are not designed for the Emirati students’ needs and abilities. It could be said that they are designed for native speakers. Looking at the research outcomes and the discussion in the earlier chapters, it can be confirmed that materials designed for first language speakers are not conducive for enabling Emirati students to learn effectively through CLIL learning. The majority of teachers use the materials provided by the Ministry of Education. However, there are some who reported low use of these materials. It can be agreed with Novotná & Moraová (2005) that materials designed for native speakers are not appropriate to CLIL students. According to Lasagabaster & Sierra (2010), CLIL requires ‘pedagogical adaptation’, therefore, it is difficult to assume that materials designed for native speakers’ would assist students’ CLIL learning. The research outcomes support the argument above.

The lack of appropriate course-books and lesson plans has led some teachers to develop their own CLIL materials. Some have succeeded where others failed. According to Tomlinson (2012), designing successful CLIL materials is a procedure that requires “evaluation, adaptation, design, and production” (p.143-144). There are four essential alternatives teachers can use when planning CLIL their materials, and which can help in delivering effective teaching outcomes: a) the use of the exact relevant materials as is, b) adapt relevant materials, c) produce materials from scratch (Moore& Lorenzo 2007) adapt materials designed by other CLIL teachers. It is of the utmost significance that teachers are cognizant of their abilities and that they are fully qualified to teach CLIL in order to be able to succeed in achieving effective and successful CLIL materials development. However, based on the research outcomes, teachers’ negative attitudes towards CLIL and their fears to fail to achieve the programme’s objectives has prevented them from investigating new techniques and notions that can better assist their students’ learning abilities. Using irrelevant materials that are above the students’ learning abilities can lead to several difficulties. Students might manage to pass their current levels, however, it would be difficult for them to survive in their future educational levels. Therefore, teachers have to be aware of the importance of delivering effective teaching that is supported by effective CLIL materials.

The alternatives add extra work to CLIL teachers’ busy schedule. However, it is believed that it could be one of the effective ways to overcome the current difficulties.
facing the CLIL programme in the UAE. The majority of CLIL teachers complained about the difficulty and the inefficiency of the current CLIL materials. They claim that, CLIL the materials are not only difficult for students, but also for the teachers themselves, due to some reasons mentioned in the above sections. Hence, it is believed that the above alternatives could be effective to adapt as a solution to overcome these difficulties. However, each of these alternatives has its benefits and limitations. One of the most debated advantages of CLIL materials is authenticity. According to Mehisto (2010), authentic CLIL materials are one of the essential elements in CLIL teaching for, as previously mentioned in this chapter, it can enhance students’ motivation and develop their CLIL learning outcomes. However, according to Gierlinger (2007), it could be challenging and time consuming for some teachers to find relevant materials appropriate to their CLIL students both in terms of content and language. Moreover, adaptation could also be time consuming. Thus, adaptation is significant to assure students’ understanding than using unmodified CLIL materials (Yano, Long & Ross 1994). As mentioned above, minority of teachers uses adaptation in their CLIL classrooms for the same reason given above.

Furthermore, generating materials from ‘scratch’ is an effective alternative to use to ensure authenticity. However, it is the least noticed alternative in the UAE CLIL classrooms. Teachers’ low self-confidence, lack of CLIL knowledge and language deficiency were identified as the main reasons for neglecting such an effective alternative. Many teachers expressed their willingness to produce their own materials from the ‘scratch’; however, they lacked the ability to do this for a number of reasons. Therefore, as stressed throughout the entire research, teachers’ abilities and CLIL knowledge are prerequisites for the success on a CLIL programme. Also, minority of teachers used this alternative in their classrooms. The results were effective. It allowed them to modify the content and the language of the materials to better suit their students’ abilities and cognition levels, their culture and the programmes’ objectives. Despite these advantages, those teachers preferred using the Ministry provided CLIL materials to their own. Their decision is comprehensible. The process of developing these types of materials is extremely difficult and necessitates time and competence (Moore & Lorenzo 2007).

It can be agreed with Marsh (2002) and Mehisto (2008) that, materials support - in terms of providing appropriate CLIL materials and promoting teacher skills is essential for an effective CLIL teaching, and a successful CLIL programme accomplishment. Aside from generating course-books and lesson plans for CLIL teaching, providing appropriate CLIL materials could lead to creating materials banks and fostering collaboration and sharing between CLIL teachers (Morton, 2013). Compared to all of the above approaches, sharing and creating CLIL material banks could be the easiest approach that the UAE CLIL teachers can adopt to overcome their difficulties in relation to CLIL materials in the current UAE CLIL classrooms. It is a trouble-free approach that could easily be conducted in the UAE schools.
However, it is believed that some of the UAE teachers are not ready for this type of approaches ‘yet’. The wide choices of CLIL models, themes, language and linguistic levels to cater for would create difficulties for the current UAE teachers to find what they need. It can be agreed with Mewald (2007) that, giving teachers the freedom to select the topics by themselves and the lack of CLIL contexts can obstruct the “organized exchange of self-made materials”. In addition, it can be assumed that material produced by other CLIL teachers have, sometimes, be modified to fit the specific aptitudes and contexts of their students. In other words, despite the low level of complexity of this approach, it requires great teacher effort, competence and time, as teachers need to search for, assess, modify and plan some of the materials by themselves. However, it is a promising approach to overcome the CLIL materials issues in the UAE CLIL classrooms, if difficulties relating to teachers are dissolved.

Another promising approach to deal with the issues of CLIL materials is by promoting teacher proficiencies in CLIL material development (Morton, 2013) e.g. by conducting teacher training courses/workshops in CLIL material development. As mentioned previously in this chapter and the literature, there is a need for effective CLIL teacher training in the UAE. It is essential that training course/workshops should be both practical and inquiry-led for achieving effective outcomes (Tomlinson, 2012). As mentioned in the analysis chapter, there are many workshops that the UAE CLIL teachers have to participate in during their teaching period. However, those workshops do not provide teachers with effective and specific CLIL knowledge. They are based on modeling general CLIL teaching, which the majority of teachers find irrelevant to their contexts. The lack of teacher involvements and participation in these workshops caused teachers to avoid them and care less about their target objectives. Therefore, the training courses/workshops have to be practical and research based in order to ensue teachers’ understating of the introduced knowledge and their abilities to implement them in their CLIL classrooms. Also, it can enable the trainer to identify teachers’ weaknesses and needs and plan their future workshops.

There is considerable literature available in terms of materials development for CLIL contexts (e.g.; Mehisto 2010, and Sudhoff 2010). It provides procedures and criteria in which CLIL teachers can adopt to authenticate their CLIL materials to better suit their students’ needs and developments. For example, Mehisto’s criteria for producing quality CLIL learning materials could be effective to use in the UAE CLIL classrooms. His criteria incorporate using formative assessment, promoting collaborative learning, and fostering authentic content and language use (Mehisto, 2012). There are many other procedures and suggestions, however it is the teachers’ responsibility to select what they think is appropriate for them, and for their students’ needs, skills and levels.

The above-suggested procedures could be an effective addition to the CLIL teacher training workshops/courses in CLIL material development. Yet, CLIL training
courses/workshops are not sufficient to develop the UAE CLIL teachers’ material development competence. The Ministry of Education needs to be aware of the current procedures of materials development conducted by their CLIL teachers in their own classrooms, in order to succeed in overcoming those obstacles regarding CLIL materials. Knowledge of their procedures, both effective and ineffective, could have the potential to assist them to produce and plan better CLIL teacher training courses.

6.6.3 Using the 4Cs Principles to Assure Quality in the UAE CLIL Classrooms

Successful CLIL materials are valuable tools. They decide the failure or the success of a CLIL programme. Without relevant materials, CLIL programmes’ success could be difficult to achieve. Therefore, the more aware teachers become as to what effective CLIL materials should be like, the more feasible effective implementation of the CLIL programme will become. It is also believed that only teachers who have been trained are able to ensure the quality of CLIL knowledge, and it is held that their intellectual development will contribute to the designing of relevant and successful CLIL teaching materials. In other words, CLIL programme effectiveness depends on teachers and their success in planning and using their CLIL materials.

When planning CLIL materials, there are several characteristics that teachers should take into consideration in order to achieve effective outcomes. One of them is that teachers should be aware of their materials’ objectives. They should remember that the focus in CLIL is not the language neither the subject. Moreover, they should remember that successful CLIL focuses on subject matter, communication, cognition as well as culture. In other words, CLIL material including e.g. task, lesson plans and course-books should be based on each of these four components, with extensive integration between language and content. Failure to consider any of the above could lead to numerous obstacles, as discussed in the previous chapters.

The following is one of the simple guides that can assist those unqualified UAE CLIL teachers in applying the 4Cs principles to ensure quality in their CLIL materials development:

**Choosing the content:**

- What will I teach?
- What do I want my students to learn?
- What are my aims?
- What learning outcomes will I pursue?

**Link content to communication:**
• What language will my student need to work with the content?
• Will my students need any specialized vocabulary?
• Is it appropriate to revise any key language to ensure that all my students will be able to cope equally well?
• What tasks and classrooms experiences will be most fruitful, enhancing?

Explore how to encourage higher order thinking:

• Which thinking skills will be most favored by the context we are to create?
• How will I proceed so as to facilitate and encourage thinking skills?

Culture:

• What cultural opportunities will I provide my students with which not have emerged in a L1 setting?
• What are the most enriching cultural implications associated with the content dealt with?

Many teachers fail to realize the importance of CLIL materials’ objectives. For example, the majority of the participant teachers could not understand the significance of the CLIL materials. Some describe it as unessential, while others describe it as distracting. They still believe that there should be a focus on linguistics. According to them, it is not possible to achieve both content and language while learning through CLIL, and that both of these aspects should be taught in isolation. These teachers are not to blame. They need to be aware of the accurate implementation and knowledge of CLIL to understand the importance of the integration. Also, they need to be well informed about the importance of the appropriate CLIL implementation so as to map how it can benefit their learners.

The following table provides a simplified description that summarises the important reasons of why CLIL methodology is appropriate to the UAE students:

| Content | CLIL can provide effective learning contexts, which are appropriate to students’ needs and levels. It makes learning the language more relevant due to the integration. Students learn the language through the content, which makes sense of the learnt language. |

177
Cognition | This emphasises the interconnections between thinking skills and communication. It puts students in a situation where they have to use their cognitive, language and content skills in the classrooms, and as a result they develop all of the aspects mentioned earlier.

Communication | It makes sense of the language. Learning the content through a foreign language encourages the students to understand the language and display greater focus to understand knowledge being imparted.

Culture | CLIL aims to enrich students’ comprehension of their own culture and those of others.

### 6.7 Conclusion

In conclusion, the Ministry of Education has to be aware of the risk of providing CLIL materials tailored for native teachers in UAE classrooms. They must show greater sensitivity to student and teacher needs, in addition to providing rational solutions to the problem. One of them could be to introduce and train their teachers on how to use and generate effective CLIL materials by conducting effective CLIL teacher training courses and workshops, that are not only research based, but also is practical based. This will allow the Ministry to ensure that all their teachers’ needs and weaknesses identified to be developed further in the course/workshops. These courses are a must for the current situation in the UAE, as the procedures suggested above could be impractical for teachers with their current attitudes towards CLIL teaching. It is important that these courses offer authentic and relevant knowledge that can support teachers’ understanding of the significance and effectiveness of CLIL and CLIL materials for their students.

### 6.8 Recommendations to Support the Current Situation of CLIL Programme in the UAE

The current situation of the CLIL programme in the UAE should not be ignored. According to this research, the current situation is becoming worse every academic year. Therefore, there is a need for provisional solutions until the Ministry takes further decisions on how to solve these obstacles. During interviews with both students and teachers, comments with regard to responsibilities and expectations for CLIL learning and teaching led me to consider methods of improving the current practice. The section below focuses on three recommendations for the development of a successful CLIL programme and services: teacher education programme enrolment, apprenticeship model and teacher learning communities.
6.8.1 Teacher Education Programme Enrollment

The Ministry of Education should no longer neglect the way they train and prepare their teachers. They need to find better ways to improve their teachers’ competences and to assess their status of the profession. As mentioned in the analysis chapter, students blame the lack of teacher proficiency in both language and content for their attitudes towards the innovation. There should be a solution. Some of the CLIL UAE teachers are not yet prepared to be teachers (Jamal, 2007). The teacher education programme candidate enrollment system is to blame (ibid).

The stakeholders should be more selective. Therefore, the first step I would recommend is to reconsider their teacher education programme enrollment system. During my research on successful CLIL stories, I discovered an enrollment system that would suit the UAE. It is a system conducted in two high-performing countries: China and Finland. In Finland, for example, they only recruit their teacher candidates from the top third of students ("Teacher and Principal Quality", 2012). They are assessed based on their secondary school reports, activities, and final examinations’ results (ibid). The selected candidates, then, are observed in mini lesson tasks and interviewed. Only applicants with strong academic performances and skills are accepted.

In the UAE, on the other hand, only few high colleges and universities have stringent requirements to teacher education programme candidates (AlBlooshi, 2010). Conducting restricted admission criteria is an important first step for the UAE educational system. However, it does not stop at that point. The UAE higher education has to take more responsibility for the education and experiences their students are offered their student teachers (ibid). They must ensure that their graduates are fully prepared to teach and meet high educational standards. Implementing the above enrollment system can bring a brighter future to the UAE’s educational system, and better CLIL program teaching/ learning experiences. However, it is to serve future teachers. The current CLIL teachers will not be able to benefit from the above.

6.8.2 An Apprenticeship Model for UAE CLIL Teachers

Effective teaching is at the heart of a successful educational system. Therefore, the quality of teacher training is essential to assisting students reach high academic standards. However, many teachers in the UAE enter the profession unqualified or with an experience of poor education. Others are permitted to teach only because they have a degree in teaching. Therefore, conducting a CLIL teacher-training course is a must, in order to overcome the current situation. However, during my research, I have noticed that some teachers pay less attention to their training courses. Rather, they rely on their own experiences and or their peers’ experiences to improve their CLIL
teaching abilities. Therefore, I would recommend ‘the apprenticeship model’. (White and Jarvis, 2013). The key aim of this model is to assist unqualified teachers in adopting the experienced teachers’ methodologies and reflecting on them (ibid). I cannot deny the existence of this approach in the UAE schools. Yet, the lack of CLIL knowledge and CLIL teaching qualifications raises the risk of CLIL misapplications. Moreover, Learning by doing is common in teaching skills. It is related with professional training where a more qualified teacher models teaching, the trainee teacher attempts to follow the model, and get feedback from the qualified teacher (ibid). There are several different forms of applications for an apprenticeship approach to learning (ibid). My advocated approach in relation to the apprenticeship model would be the ‘traditional’ apprenticeship of Pratt and Johnson (1998, in Millward, 2005). Therefore, I believe that it should be implemented as below.

6.8.3 The Stages of a Successful Implementation of an Apprenticeship Model

First, I suggest that the Ministry should provide the top qualified teachers in their schools with three months of CLIL training and assistance they require to learn how to teach and manage a CLIL classroom. Once they are well trained, they should be paired with apprentice teachers. It is important that the selected teachers are also trained on how to share and train the knowledge they gained with their peer teachers.

There are four stages of the traditional apprenticeship that, I believe, might work best in the UAE context. In other words, it is showing the trainee how to teach CLIL and assisting him/her to implement it. There are four aspects of traditional apprenticeship: modeling, scaffolding, fading and coaching (Cruess et al, 2008). In modeling, the trainee teacher observes the qualified teacher demonstrating a successful CLIL lesson, and effective CLIL tasks and methodologies. During the process, the qualified teacher must make ‘the target process visible, often by explicitly showing the apprentice what to do’ (Collins et al., 1991, p.8). While the qualified teacher demonstrates the lesson, the trainee observes and learns. Modeling is a powerful learning strategy. Furthermore, scaffolding is the assistance the qualified teacher provides the trainee teacher while conducting a teaching task. In the fading stage, the master teacher should gradually remove the scaffolding and provide the trainee teacher with more responsibilities. Coaching is the only aspect that should run through the whole apprenticeship experience. The qualified CLIL teacher must coach the trainee teacher through different means and activities e.g. choosing approaches, scaffolding, evaluating the CLIL teaching of the trainee and analysing the misapplications, challenging and motivating the trainee towards CLIL, providing feedback, and encountering teaching weaknesses and working on them. In nutshell, it is the process of supervising the trainees’ learning. It is the collaboration of those four aspects that makes productive apprenticeship outcomes. According to Lave (1998) observation is a key aspect the assisting the trainees to construct a theoretical model of the target task former to their attempts to perform it. Therefore, the qualified teachers should be
Implementing this model, the traditional model, in the UAE schools can ensure quality CLIL teaching. It can guarantee effective implementation of CLIL teaching in the classrooms. That is as the observations are based on real classroom settings and genuine teachers’ needs. Also, it assists the trainees to identify their deficiencies and recognize the benefits of using CLIL to the old teaching style. Moreover, as I noticed during my research, teachers feel more comfortable in sharing their experiences of teaching with their colleagues rather than administrators/stakeholders. They ‘do not feel threatened’ as described by teacher ‘S’ (see appendix).

6.8.4 CLIL Teacher Learning Communities

As stressed throughout the research, the quality of an educational system rests on the quality of its teachers. Therefore, ministries of education should pay more attention to improve their teachers’ professional practice in order to achieve a successful implementation of an educational innovation. Based on my research outcomes, I believe that creating a CLIL teacher learning community within, between or across schools could be an effective approach to assists the current CLIL teachers refine and reflect on their CLIL teaching.

Teachers’ lack of interaction with each other is one of the reasons of teachers’ negative attitudes towards CLIL. Most of the teachers in the UAE lack knowledge and understanding of CLIL teaching methodologies. Those teachers needed assistance and guidance to be able to implement the new innovation. However, the ministry trusted the teachers’ abilities on an assumption that ‘teachers can teach anything’. Despite their effective teaching techniques in their first language teaching, teachers failed to accomplish the main objectives of CLIL. As mentioned above, most of these teachers lack language or/and content skills or both. Therefore, the absence of a CLIL shared learning community can be counted as one of the reasons to CLIL failure in the UAE schools. Yet, stakeholders should understand that these communities could not guarantee improvements unless teachers are involved in the innovation process, and are given ownership of the outcomes (Haslam et al, 2013). As mentioned in the previous chapters, implementing new advanced changes and methods is not enough. They need to be supported with a basis for shifting teachers’ attitudes and practice, and for ensuring that both teachers and schools accept that change.

Teachers’ collaboration is not sufficient, as well. There are many educational systems that failed to achieve their expected results using the teacher learning community method. That is as their communities lacked of real emphasis on improving student outcomes. It can be agreed with Harris and Jones (2010) that knowledge/skills development through teacher-learning communities is a result of teacher collaboration and emphasis on ‘real work’ of pedagogical and learner improvement. In short, the
focus must be on attaining better educational outcomes. Fullan (2009) lays stress on the significance of constructing ‘cultures for learning’, that emphasize the importance of sharing and learning from others and being committed to improvement. Indeed, commitment to improvement is a must to be able to share experiences, reflect on them and be willing to change.

Moreover, to assure successful implementation of CLIL learning communities in the UAE schools, the communities should be characterized by CLIL teachers’ participation in the making decision, having a genuine drive, working in collaboration with other teachers, and accepting shared responsibilities for the results of their efforts (Haslam et al, 2013). Teacher empowerment is of great value within this whole process (Harris and Jones, 2010). Empowering teachers allows teachers to change, improve and learn together. It has the potential to improve teachers’ CLIL teaching and understanding. It has been proven as an effective method to change teachers’ attitudes towards innovations (ibid). It can be noticed from the research outcomes that, in the UAE, many teachers have negative attitudes towards CLIL. Creating CLIL learning communities in their school might assist in changing that attitude to improving students’ learning outcomes. Successful learning communities feature sharing of values, concentration of the learning of students, dialogue informed by reflection and thinking as well as action research (Haslam et al, 2013). Therefore, teachers within a community of practice are more successful in their classroom (Lewis and Andrews, 2004). I observed that success during my data collection procedure. There were two teachers who created their own CLIL teacher learning community. The results were impressive. Their students’ scores were the highest in CLIL subjects in the whole school. They believe that the support and guidance share and feedback they give each other is the reason behind their success in CLIL teaching. I believe it is a combination of both commitments to improvement and shared learning that is behind their success.

A similar model of change, which could also be useful, is Wenger’s (2000) theorization of the communities of practice framework. As discussed earlier in the literature review chapter, learning within a community requires working in collaboration to achieve a mutual understanding of concepts and practices (ibid). Also, the emphasis should be on joint professional learning within the context of an organized community that focuses on shared knowledge and a mutual belief and learning (ibid). Lave and Wenger suggest that people engaged in activities with and within a world configured by society and culture relate to one another via the acts of acquiring knowledge, cognition and learning (1991, p. 67). In other words, they believe that learning is a process that occurs when two learners with different potentials work in collaboration within a community of practice to achieve common goals. Teachers can improve and obtain different kind of knowledge and experiences in the CLIL learning communities. It “serves interrelated functions that contribute uniquely to teachers’ knowledge base, professionalism, and ability to act on what they
learn”. (Talbert et al, 2006, p.5). Four of these functions are that they a) they construct and manage knowledge to improve practice b) they assist teachers’ learning to improve their students’ achievements c) they help to create shared discourse, vision, as well as values and criteria for practice, and d) They energise the school culture (ibid). More information can be found in chapter one.

6.9 Summary

In conclusion, above are other means and methodologies that stakeholders can use to support their teachers’ learning and teaching process, and their educational needs in order to push the current program to success. One of the ideas recommended is the apprenticeship model. It is a powerful means that stakeholders can use to overcome their teachers’ language, content, and CLIL deficiencies. It is an easy process that is proven to effectively deliver a realistic learning experience based on teachers’ genuine needs. Another approach I recommended is the CLIL teacher learning communities. It is a process that involves teachers sharing their own understandings and experiences of CLIL, evaluate them, reflect on them to generate new effective and valid CLIL knowledge.

6.10 Research Questions and Major Themes

The study addressed the following questions. The following section discusses key themes in the findings and their implication with specific reference to the following foci.

Q1: How do Emirati teachers conceptualise the Content and Language Integrated Learning approach?

6.10.1 Dissonant Teacher Beliefs & Epistemologies

Data reveals that teacher beliefs and epistemologies significantly shape teacher attitudes in connection with CLIL pedagogy and practice. Beliefs and epistemologies related to this cluster around entrenched perceptions that within the UAE context, teacher-centred classrooms in which teachers make use of conventional methodologies focused on memorization of content and learner test mastery represent the most efficient form of teaching. Learner-centred activities, such as those indicated in the CLIL approach, are seen to represent a waste of valuable time. Findings show that the constructivist epistemology of the CLIL approach with its focus on learners, meaning making and co-construction of knowledge seems to be at odds with the traditions of transmissive teaching led by the notion of learner as a passive vessel prevalent in the study context, especially in the instance of content teachers. These views of learning and knowledge shape teacher-student interaction, peer interaction,
choice of class tasks and activities, pedagogical objectives and assessment.

The role of EMI too is a contested one, with CLIL content teachers seeing it as nothing less than a burdensome imposition, which is likely to lead to academic failure for the students, whose language proficiency does not allow adequate self-expression and comprehension in English. This belief is translated into resistance to CLIL teaching and the dominance of Arabic as medium of instruction, irrespective of Ministry directives. Teacher self-conceptions as being the best authority on learner needs also allows them to resort to subterfuge when dealing with administration under pressure by the Ministry of Education to ensure effective CLIL implementation. For instance, CLIL activities such as songs or collaborative work, which should be customarily used are only utilised when there is an impending observation by an administrative figure. The findings also show that the Principal and the programme coordinators are unaware of what goes on behind closed classroom doors while CLIL classes are taking place. These findings suggest that failure to take into account and to unpack teacher beliefs has created a swell of unarticulated resistance to CLIL implementation.

6.10.2 Misperception of CLIL pedagogy

Most of the teachers also erroneously believe that language and content are to be taught separately in CLIL classes. This can be attributed to a lack of CLIL training and even more significantly to teachers’ own learning experiences wherein Arabic was used as EMI in teaching content and English was taught separately. Two situations are seen to arise as a result of this. Either language elements such as lexis are taught as a way to satisfy CLIL requirements and the rest of the class is taken up by explanation of the content in Arabic or teachers struggling with use of English to teach their subjects resort to teaching completely in Arabic. This shows that CLIL teachers do not understand the core principles of a pedagogy they have been tasked to utilise in their classrooms. The teachers’ efforts to use Arabic as a medium of instruction also suggests either a belief in the importance of content over language or a conviction that the old way of teaching was more effective. Hence, the data related to teacher beliefs in this study shows that teachers’ background, education, training, work experience, culture and personal theories of teaching extensively influence their conceptualisations of CLIL. These findings suggest that unless teacher beliefs and epistemologies are unpacked through teacher training and reflection, resistance, implicit or explicit, to CLIL will continue to persist.

Q2: What variables influence the motivation of teachers in implementing CLIL?

6.10.3 Teacher Disorientation due to Mismanagement of MAG inception and
implementation

The findings presented in the previous chapter show that CLIL teacher conceptualisations of CLIL teaching are affected by the context of the programme implementation. Of the ten CLIL teachers taking part in the inquiry, eight were content educators with majors in Mathematics and Science in Arabic, and they had not received any language teaching training. This situation was compounded by the implementation of the CLIL programme at short notice and a complete lack of pre-implementation training for the new CLIL teachers. Monthly CLIL trainings offered to the MAG teachers are considered to be of little utility. Of the remaining two teachers, who taught English, they had received training during their Bachelor’s programmes of study but not CLIL training. Further, the increase in the workload of the CLIL teachers due to the need to maintain records of their own practice, difficulty in comprehending pre-prepared lesson plans and teacher guides characterized by a level of English beyond the teachers’ understanding and extra responsibilities assigned by the administration has also proven overwhelming for the teachers. This shows that arbitrary implementation of a major curricular innovation without teacher involvement, teacher training or meaningful teacher support has paralysed the CLIL programme at classroom level. In the present context, CLIL is perceived as an imposition upon the teachers and as a distraction from efficient and effective instruction represented by the old system of teaching.

6.10.4 Loss of Teacher Autonomy

Due to lack of teacher involvement in the planning, implementation and continuation stages of the MAG programme implementation, teachers own to feeling helpless in the face of changes they see as foisted upon them. Having been consigned to the periphery of this curricular innovation and subjected to demands to implement it, the CLIL teachers feel disillusioned with the changes at school. Evidence of this disillusionment is contained in the high attrition rate of the CLIL teachers across UAE and not just in the school contexts studied.

6.10.5 Loss of Self-Efficacy

Due to their struggle with using English and the content proficiently, CLIL teachers risk losing face in their classes. There are two aspects to this. Firstly, making mistakes in language use before the class invites student ridicule. Secondly, teachers are unable to comprehend the support materials and lesson plans efficiently enough to implement these in the classroom. Two instances of these in the data are the teacher’s struggle with a math equation and her colleague’s difficulties with the experiment conducted wrongly. In the Arab cultural context where teachers are seen as subject authorities, such loss of credibility before their students is a matter of great shame and subsequently, it impacts their motivation and attitudes towards CLIL implementation.
Despite being beset by self-doubt and the disprivileging of their existing expertise, such teachers compensate by trying to exert control over the materials, content and the learners so that the extent of their restricted expertise is not unmasked before the students. This is a situation that benefits no one, especially the learners who must bear the brunt of poor teaching and teacher performativity in the name of educational reforms.

RQ3: What are the perceptions and experiences of the students as to being taught CLIL?

6.11 Student Demotivation

The findings suggest that due to poor implementation of CLIL in the study context, the students are generally demotivated and disillusioned with CLIL as a pedagogy. The reasons for their demotivation can be attributed to their teachers’ lack of training, poor application of CLIL as well as their lack of English language proficiency. Learner demotivation, which is most evident in student attitudes to learning and the teachers, can also result in student misbehaviour or disengagement from the lesson. As data suggests, many of the CLIL teachers interviewed identified instances of student misbehaviour or disengagement from the lesson being taught as another challenge in their implementation of this nuanced approach to teaching English.

6.12 Conclusion of Chapter Six

Linking these findings back to the theoretical framework (Fig.1), the data confirms that teacher beliefs as well as epistemologies strongly impact instructional practices. In the context under study, most of the impact is negative, stemming from teacher beliefs about knowing and learning, their background, education, training, culture and work experience. Especially, the teacher disorientation and teacher loss of self-efficacy and of autonomy are major factors not only in demotivating the teachers from implementing CLIL effectively but also in influencing improvement of CLIL practice (see Hileman & Knobloch, n.d) The impact is registered in the choice of EMI used in the content classes, regulation of teacher-student and peer interaction, choice of classroom tasks, setting of classroom performance standards, assessment criteria used and the use of CLIL materials.

Interestingly, the impact is not uni-directional, that is to say, while teacher beliefs and epistemologies shape instructional practices, teachers’ experience of CLIL, monitoring and control by the administration and the Ministry and learner behavior and outcomes feeds back into their conceptualisations of CLIL. Data suggests that most of the teachers see CLIL as being irrelevant, a source of distraction and a negative influence on learner classroom behavior as well as their academic achievement in the years ahead.
In terms of Nolen et al’s (2007) concept of motivational filters, CLIL teachers have learnt to cope with the upskilling and change in teaching pedagogy required by the MAG programme by discarding and adopting ideas and practices in response to “their relationships with those promoting the practices and the perceived fit of the promoted practice with…. conceptions of real world teaching”. A very good example of this is that of the teacher who uses songs and collaborative work in her class only when the Principal is coming into observe her but who refuses student requests to do so when her class is unobserved. Beliefs and epistemologies are very much as work here, for she behaves in this way due to her conviction that such tasks represent a wastage of time and are distracting. However, considerations of performance appraisal and fear of authority lead her to make the effort in order to please the Principal. Another example of is that of the teacher who uses EMI when she too is being observed, otherwise resorting to the use of Arabic for teaching her class. This again shows different kinds of motivation at work. A further example is that of teachers enacting model CLIL lessons, when they are being formally observed because this is linked to their teacher grades and job security, but not using these in their regular practice.

The contribution of this study is that it has confirmed motivation as a construct, which is very much affected by preexisting beliefs and epistemologies of the teachers. This also confirms that motivation is socially situated. Hence, an attempt has been made to explicate these links and relationships by adding motivation to the centre of the conceptual framework advanced by Lee et al (2013). This allows a greater understanding of variables affecting programme implementation, in addition to enabling the highlighting of teacher beliefs and epistemologies and motivation as shaping and being shaped by instructional practices.
Chapter Seven Conclusion

7.0 Introduction to Chapter Seven

Chapter 7 summarises the contributions to literature made by this study and highlights their implications for the UAE policymakers and educators as well as for educational contexts elsewhere.

7.1 Summary of Challenges facing CLIL in the MAG schools

Although educational innovations on a large scale such as the MAG programme in the UAE may be considered advantageous to reinvigorating educational systems, they also invite a great deal of criticism due to perceptions of their disruptive impact on key stakeholders like teachers and students. In the UAE context, resistance to the MAG programme has not only caused upheaval with the introduction of instituting EMI for important subjects like science and mathematics but also transformed the landscape of schools and teacher practice in a revolutionary, if not always efficacious, way. Seven years ago, fifty UAE public schools were dramatically transformed with the implementation of new standards under the Madaresss Al Ghad (MAG) programme. This aspired to develop English-language skills in Emiratis learners from early schooling. MAG was also aimed at countering the Emirati learners’ inclination to rely on memorization and test mastery as a way to negotiate academic trajectories, by way of acclimatising them to a constructivist, learner-centered pedagogy embedded in the CLIL principles. However, since its implementation, the programme has experienced great resistance from the Emirati teachers and students in MAG contexts, with adverse impact of student achievement and outcomes.

The United Arab Emirates Ministry of Education remains in favour of CLIL, believing that it has the potential to enhance both the English proficiency and the subject matter knowledge of Emirati students. Hence, this study was conceptualised as a way to ascertain the source of resistance to MAG and the reasons for its poor implementation. Key to the implementation of any education innovation as already discussed are the teachers. Hence, teacher beliefs and epistemologies seemed to be a sound trajectory for exploring tensions related to CLIL.

The study found that CLIL was not well understood amongst the majority of Emirati teachers, especially teachers of content area subjects in Arabic. Only two out of ten of the participant teachers observed were using CLIL in their classrooms. The other eight rejected the use CLIL in their classrooms, due to their lack of English language knowledge and largely due to the qualifications to teach English. The majority of those teachers had not used English at all, prior to the current CLIL programme. It would be unrealistic to expect positive attitudes and outcomes in view of the fact that most of the teachers were underprepared and underqualified to teach CLIL.
There are two teachers who had good command of English. Both of them were using English exclusively in their CLIL classrooms. However, one of them failed to implement effective CLIL in some of her lessons, due to poor familiarity with CLIL. Most of the participant educators lacked information about CLIL. It is one of the other reasons of their refusals to use CLIL in their classrooms. It was interesting to observe how being qualified in English did not allow the teacher to convey an effective and authentic CLIL lessons. This proved that teaching CLIL is more than being qualified in the language; it is the qualification of both of the aspects that ensures effective CLIL teaching and delivery in classrooms.

Moreover, only one out of ten participant teachers was able to implement successful CLIL lessons. She had an excellent command of language and content knowledge and a positive attitude towards CLIL. According to her, CLIL should be implemented in every school in the United Arab Emirates. She claims that CLIL is beneficial for students as it helps in developing both subject knowledge skills and language skills. Her students are the best in the school and are always selected to represent the school in English related activities. The levels of her students can be compared to grade six students if not better. This is a clear indicator that if teachers have the qualifications they would be able to implement successful CLIL in their classrooms, obtain effective learning outcomes, and accordingly teachers would have positive attitudes towards CLIL. They would not need to spend a huge amount of time working on their language abilities, content comprehension and preparing for CLIL lessons.

Furthermore, many teachers expressed that current CLIL programme requires new teaching materials. The course-books provided by the Ministry of Education do not suit Emirati students’ ability or culture, as they prove challenging for students and teachers alike. This is another reason for the negative attitudes of teachers towards using CLIL. These inappropriate course-books are causing difficulties for both teachers and learners. The majority of teachers and students reported difficulty in comprehending content and language included in the course-books.

All of the materials used for CLIL classes are furnished by the educational authorities, including lesson plans. The ministry should understand the importance of teachers’ personal input in their instruction. Teachers in the United Arab Emirates CLIL classrooms are not allowed to adapt or adjust their lessons. They have to follow the lesson plans and accomplish all of the tasks as is, and on time. Failure to complete the task can risk the teachers’ status and reputation among the other teachers. Therefore, teachers tend to concentrate on finishing the lesson rather than focusing on the students’ learning development. Some teachers expressed their willingness to adapt the lesson plans. However, the fear of the above mentioned prevents them from using it for all of their classes. Those teachers are restricted and are forced to teach lessons that they know are not assisting their skills or their students’ learning developments.
Almost all of the teachers agreed that CLIL demands plenty of time for planning and teaching. CLIL is for qualified teachers, as it requires well-prepared, flexible and competent teachers who are conversant with CLIL language and knowledge. As already discussed, most Emirati educators are unqualified CLIL/language teachers. Therefore, expecting a huge amount of workload to be done in an insufficient amount of time could be difficult and/or ‘impossible’ for the majority of teachers. Moreover, it was noticed that the lesson plans provided by the Ministry of Education consist of a huge amount of content and small amount of time to ensure that the lesson is delivered. The teachers’ focus has shifted from ensuring students’ understanding to accomplishing the lesson on time, whether the lesson is effectively delivered or not.

All of the above have contributed in encouraging students’ negative attitudes towards the CLIL programme. Teachers’ lack of CLIL knowledge and language competence has resulted in students’ refusal to cope with the CLIL programme. The majority of the students have misunderstanding of what CLIL methodology really is. They believe that it is a programme similar to the previous programme with additional two subjects. Their refusal is a result of their misconception of CLIL. Students are aware of their teachers’ lack of proficiency in their teaching. The students’ attitudes towards CLIL are being affected by the teachers’ under confidence in their own teaching and comprehension of their teaching content and language. It is contrary to expect learners to improve in areas wherein the teachers themselves are deficient. Therefore, the Ministry of Education has to be aware of the difficulties that both students and teachers are facing in their daily bases due to their misapplications of the current CLIL programme. They need to find solutions to overcome these difficulties in order to ensure students’ effective learning.

One of the biggest issues is that teachers are not involved in the decision making processes with respect to the implementation of the new innovation in their schools, CLIL. Teachers were unaware of CLIL methodology when it was first implemented in their schools. They were told weeks before the initiative was rolled out. This caused both the school principals and the teachers to panic, which resulted in have negative attitudes towards the new programme and led to the adoption of ineffective roles towards achieving the programme objectives. All of the above would have been avoided if the policymakers had overseen the carrying out of a needs analysis before the implementation of CLIL in UAE schools. In addition, implementation would have been better if teacher input had been sought before the rolling out of the CLIL programme. Therefore, the United Arab Emirates schools are in need for a new authentic CLIL programme, which is based on real students’ and teachers’ needs. It necessitates the establishment of a programme where the decision making process involves teachers. Essentially, teachers are the only ones who can better understand students’ needs and interests and are the only ones who can ensure success of an educational programme. However, in order to involve teachers in the decision making process, they need to have knowledge about CLIL methodology and how to use it in
their classrooms. Recommendations presented in the previous chapter can help to address these issues.

7.2 Contributions of the Study

Using qualitative inquiry to study the teacher conceptualisations of CLIL and factors underlying teachers’ attitudes and low motivation towards CLIL in the MAG programme, this study has provided insights into the beliefs, practices, personal theories and experiences of the CLIL teachers and the motivational filters, which shape their praxis. In doing so, it has highlighted essential tensions between teacher beliefs and epistemologies and fundamental pedagogical principles of CLIL and its objectives. Additionally, it has highlighted key factors including loss of self-efficacy, dearth of autonomy and flawed inception and implementation of the MAG programme as contributory factors to teachers’ demotivation towards CLIL.

It has also identified instances of motivational filters used by the teachers to choose, discard or apply practices relevant to CLIL within the learning context of their praxis. The study suggests two things in particular. Firstly, teachers’ orientation to CLIL and understanding of the approach are inadequate and counterproductive to effective implementation, largely due to the arbitrary nature of implementation, lack of training and meaningful support for teachers. Secondly, prior teacher beliefs, practices and epistemologies serve to hinder adoption of this curricular innovation. Finally, even though this data was used only to enrich understandings of teachers’ CLIL practice, student perspectives highlight the counterproductive impact of teacher misconceptions of CLIL and poor motivation on student learning in the classroom. Indications are that key stakeholders such as the Ministry and the school management could play a more significant role in helping teachers to unpack their beliefs and epistemologies with a view to creating better understanding of CLIL, arranging more meaningful support for the teachers beyond monthly trainings and readymade lesson plans as well as addressing the key challenges faced by CLIL teachers in the study context expeditiously.

7.3 Implications

In view of the findings that have emerged, this thesis offered a number of recommendations in the previous chapter that may serve as useful responses to the challenges of effective CLIL implementation in the MAG schools. These findings provide an evidence-based snapshot of the state of CLIL implementation, key challenges faced by stakeholders, especially teachers and learners as well as the relatively unexamined issues of language, culture and identity arising from the adoption of the CLIL in the UAE educational context. Another area in which the implications of the research findings have resonance is that of policy and practice in future directions of CLIL programme and the implementation of future educational
initiatives. Policy makers could use this study as a basis for integrating needs analysis into the prerequisites of further educational innovations as well as deciding whether to roll out CLIL further or to improve those schools where it is currently under implementation before opting for expansion. The findings also identified the need for suitable training for CLIL language and content teachers in order to improve the quality and sustain the momentum of the programme. In this regard, policy makers can use the findings to design an offer need-appropriate trainings, whether in-house, off-site or through the continuous professional development approach. The massive momentum of the programme means that policymakers cannot afford to lose experienced CLIL educators, as new hiring or training of CLIL-qualified faculty members is a challenging exercise. Better training initiatives could help to stem the tide of teachers departing from the field due to the pressures exerted by the demands of implementing CLIL. Further, in view of identified gaps in unobserved teacher performance, the policymakers and educational managers can also examine ways to strengthen quality checks, which are currently done through teacher observation and portfolio (achievement folder) evaluation. In view of the insights into the educator and learner perspectives gained in this study, policymakers may also consider the tailoring of the materials in use, as these do not seem to resonate well with teachers and learners alike. Perhaps a key contribution of this study has made in terms of evaluating CLIL implementation has been the identification of the need for an overall shift in teacher epistemologies that can allow CLIL to be accepted not as a burdensome reform but as a positive educational innovation meant to improve student learning and the quality of education on offer. Obviously, it is vital to understand the nexus between teacher conceptions and epistemologies and teacher motivations. This study also makes a modest attempt to contribute to literature on CLIL programme effectiveness in the UAE context as well as to educational innovations in general.

While the findings are applicable to CLIL teachers in the UAE, the study also has the potential to enrich the literature on the implementation of educational innovations elsewhere. These contexts could include not just English as a foreign language (EFL) settings but also settings where other languages are being used to teach content, for instance, French immersion programmes in Canada. While CLIL pedagogy and implementation are a very distinctive area of research bound by specific contexts, this study has implications for researchers seeking to explore teacher beliefs or epistemologies in other learning contexts as well.

7.4 Limitations of the Research

Despite the contributions and the originality of several aspects of this research, it remains an individual effort that has its limitations and shortcomings. Yet, the limitations of this research are largely due to limitations in time, resources and scope of research. These factors compelled a somewhat narrow focus on limited factors that affected, affect, and are affecting the current CLIL programme in the United Arab
Asma Al Blooshi _ PhD _ 2017

Emirates. However, there were many other factors identified during the research, which could have greater impact on the current CLIL programme. An additional limitation of this study was that it took place in two schools only, whereas MAG has been implemented in 50 schools across the UAE, it is likely that further inquiry into the conceptualisations and motivation of a larger sample of CLIL teachers would enable the findings of this study to be substantiated and expanded considerably.

7.5 Coda
King (2015, p.56-57) notes that although there are multiple ways in which English can exercise influence within Periphery educational context, in all likelihood, the most intrusive and possibly difficult form is that of English as medium of instruction, as in the case of CLIL. King comments that factors such as the privileging of native speaker competence and practitioners and the “reification of Western education and the Core” means non-native speakers are excluded from the opportunity to contribute to pedagogical planning and self-regulation. Hence, when policies relating to English language are implemented, they are likely to “draw bottom-up resistance and enactment from those who do not agree with it” (King, 2015, p.56). These observations have been borne out amply in this study. While CLIL is very much an accomplished fact in terms of curricular innovation for now, if the implementation of the programme cannot be sustained, then it remains for the UAE policy makers to consider other ways of promoting English and fulfilling its national development objectives at the same time. King (2015, p.62) outlines a number of ways in which to incorporate English within the UAE educational context without continuing with the use of EMI. For instance, UAE could choose to use Arabic as a medium of instruction, while teaching English as a foreign language or to teach English as a second language within a bilingual framework. If it decides to stay the course with EMI in the form of CLIL, then policy makers must be prepared to cope with the far-reaching political, economic and cultural consequences of their decision, as must other stakeholders including teachers and learners.

While the findings of this study may have uncovered the many things that are wrong with CLIL implementation in the research context, there have also been instances, which have given rise to optimism for the future success of the CLIL programme, if recommendations made in this study are integrated into progressive policies.

For instance, there is case of the CLIL teacher, with a background in CLIL teaching and requisite training, whose clear conceptualisation of CLIL drives both her practice and her enthusiasm for teaching via CLIL. This example demonstrates that CLIL practice can thrive given the right conditions, including empowerment and involvement of teachers as key stakeholders. It is interesting to recall that the teacher under discussion had both a degree related to English and a teaching qualification. This links up to an important point made a number of years ago about Dr Earle
Warnica, former adviser to the educational ministry in UAE (2010). When questioned about the state of education in UAE, Dr Warnica observed that in his experience, the educational reforms since 2006 and before had yielded little on ground change at school level or influence on the learning of the students or their outcomes. Although a number of years have passed since Dr Warnica made his observation, the findings of this study show that the state of education in UAE especially with respect to educational reforms and their impact is much as described earlier. Dr Warnica attributed the failure of the reforms to a number of things, including the top-down and directive nature of the reforms, which are directed by the Ministry. In addition, he noted that school teachers needed to gain pedagogical expertise through graduate study that could provide them with the theoretical basis of teaching practice as well as practitioner craft knowledge. A third observation of relevance to this study pertained to the need to make teachers accountable for implementing the professional development they were receiving. This study bears out the truth of these observations to a great extent. Not only has most of the CLIL reform imposed upon the schools and teachers been driven from the top and involved little stakeholder input but also untrained and underprepared teachers continue to be expected to implement a complex methodological approach without any attempt to address their lack of training. Until these key issues are addressed, educational reforms and innovations will continue to fail at the level of implementation. Finally, as demonstrated in the analysis, evaluations of teacher performance are structured in such a way as to give a false impression of the state of CLIL implementation. The educational authorities need to come up with better ways to evaluate teachers and hold them accountable for the teaching that goes on behind closed doors of the classroom. Only then can true change be expected in terms of the educational reforms being implemented.

In the six years that have lapsed since Dr Warnica made his observations regarding the state of education in the UAE, it would not be unreasonable to expect that the things have improved and the educational sector has been strengthened in areas requiring improvement. Yet, that would appear to be far from the reality of what is happening on ground. According to Al Nowais (2016), “the Ministry of Education is facing a wave of teacher resignations after a new evaluation scheme increased frustrations about a lack of benefits and career prospects”. In addition, teachers are expected to volunteer for a set number of hours on a yearly basis and increase student grades to a tune of ten percent since the previous year. Teachers interviewed by Al Nowais express great bitterness at the Ministry decision, pointing out that there is little motivation for most of them to stay in the educational sector, especially given the fact that their salaries lag behind those of other public sector employees, yet their responsibilities seem to be on the rise. The prevalence of the restrictions in this scenario are borne out by the participating teachers in this study, who were approached informally after the study had been concluded as for views on changes in their situation. They too confided that the number of classes they had to teach had been increased substantially, thereby adding to their workload. This move on the part
of the ministry seems rather counterproductive in view of the fact that the government seeks to emiratise the workforce.

Rising rates of teacher attrition are likely to damage the Emirati educational sector irreversibly, as experienced teachers seek to leave the field and new teachers hesitate from entering the workforce. In the event that teacher attrition continues, UAE will have to fall back on relying on an expatriate workforce, members of which, no matter how qualified, are unable to understand the constraints of culture and local learner needs well enough to accomplish the socio economic vision of the government.

In this context, the findings of the study should serve as an important trajectory for key decision makers in the educational sector to take stock of what is happening on ground and to make decisions based on empirical evidence. Teachers are important stakeholders in that they are responsible for implementing the reforms envisioned by the government in consultation with foreign experts. At the end of the day, no matter how well-intentioned the government may be in its aims and objectives and no matter how qualified its consultants, additional restrictions on teacher autonomy and enhancement of their workload will not work to the advantage of the vision in hand. Failure to heed the voices of teachers raised in protest at the directives sent their way or to ignore the insights of research will but hold the real issues at bay for a while, but it will not prevent the objectives of educational reforms launched hitherto from being defeated, thereby impeding the course of social and economic development in lasting ways.
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Appendix 1
Letter of Consent - Teacher

Dear Teacher,

Thank you for your participation in this research that is based on finding the advantages and disadvantages of using Content and Language Integrated Learning in the UAE. It is hoped that the results of this research will be significant in the education in the future.

I am an Emirati PhD student studying in the University of Bath and I have obtained permission from my university to use a series of methods for this research. Apart from observations, I might need some of you for Focus Group Discussions in for individual Interviews, which will be recorded.

Rest assured that the data will be used for my research only; your views will not be revealed to others. You name will not appear on any transcription, and once the transcriptions have been done, all the recordings will be destroyed.

I greatly appreciate your collaboration and I will be very glad to send you a summary of the results if you are interested or if you so require.

If you agree to take part in this research, please sign the attached form.

With deepest thanks.

Sincerely,

Asma Jooaan

PhD student, University of Bath

I agree to take part in this research project and understand what my participation involves.

Signature……………………………… Signed Date ……………………………
Appendix 1
Letter of Consent- Students

Dear Student,

Thank you for your participation in this research that is based on finding the advantages and disadvantages of using Content and Language Integrated Learning in the UAE. It is hoped that the results of this research will be significant in the education in the future.

I am an Emirati PhD student studying in the University of Bath and I have obtained permission from my university to use a series of methods for this research. Apart from observations, I might need some of you for Focus Group Discussions in for individual Interviews, which will be recorded.

Rest assured that the data will be used for my research only; your views will not be revealed to others. You name will not appear on any transcription, and once the transcriptions have been done, all the recordings will be destroyed.

I greatly appreciate your collaboration and I will be very glad to send you a summary of the results if you are interested or if you so require.

If you agree to take part in this research, please sign the attached form.

With deepest thanks.

Sincerely,

Asma Jooaan

PhD student, University of Bath

I agree to take part in this research project and understand what my participation involves.
Signature ..............................
Signed Date ..............................
Appendix 1
To whom it May Concern Letter- Principal

To Whom It May Concern

Dear Sir,

I am a PhD student in the University of Bath. My PhD is based on finding the advantages and disadvantages of using Content and Language Integrated Learning in the United Arab Emirates. I have obtained permission from my university to use a series of methods for this research. Therefore, I am seeking for your permission to apply my research in two of your primary schools. It is hoped that the results of this research will be significant in the education in the future.

For more information about my research, please see the attached documents.

Sincerely,

Asma Jooaan

PhD student, University of Bath
Appendix 2
Permission letter from the Ministry of Education of the UAE
Appendix 3

Class/Lesson: Science

Observation No.6

Teacher: Teacher F

Observation topics:
1. Weather teachers use CLIL in the Classroom
2. How teachers use CLIL in the classroom
3. Language use in the Classrooms
4. Teaching techniques (The content and materials)
5. Students’ attitudes towards the teaching
6. Students’ motivation towards the lesson

. Teacher started by greeting the students.
. There are some grammatical mistakes used by the teacher. For example “Last day in science class we talk about”, “you was very noisy today”, “whose else”.
. She used Arabic to explain some stuff, especially, to clarify some tasks and questions.
. She pronounced lots of words wrong. For example, “dissolve, oil and separate”.
. The students kept talking, singing, playing and making noises and the teacher kept ignoring and carried on the task.
. Teacher stood in front of the class, behind her table, and showed the students the materials she is going to be using for the experiment.
. She explained the experiment in Arabic and did not re-explain it in English at all.
. Then, she gave each group the materials needed to do the experiment and asked them to look at her and the way she will conduct the experiment and follow her.
. After finishing the experiment, the teacher discussed the experiment’s result with the students.
. She kept shouting, as the students did not pay attention.
. All of the explanations were done in Arabic except some of the new vocabulary.
. The lesson was finished before the time.
. The teacher has finished the lesson before the time as she was in hurry. she had to finish her portfolio to be shown to the principal before the end of her class.

My feedback

. She used lots of Arabic. Sometimes she would explain the task in Arabic and would not bother to recall it in English.
. No student management
. Students were just using Arabic and they were not discouraged to do so.
. Not a CLIL class
. Teacher controlled
. The teacher concentrated on finishing the class than making sure her students understand the lesson.
Appendix 4
Teacher Interview

Aim: Teachers’ and students’ understandings of and attitudes towards curricula innovation and CLIL.
Teacher: S

1- What do you think of the innovation (CLIL) that happened four years ago?

Despite that I love the new program. I believe that it was applied in a bazaar way. Teachers were not involved in the new program. We did not know about it until couple of weeks before the implementation. I believe only the teacher can understand the way students think about the subject and assess the students’ thinking methods and misunderstandings.

I believe that the refusal of many teachers to use the new method is because of the misapplication. Our students’ needs are not being covered in this program. How can it be if the teachers are not involved when planning the program? It is not right to expect that the program would work based on an outer planner decisions. Teachers are the only ones who can better understand students’ needs and requirements.

The ministry’s fault was that they believe that we can teach anything. That is not right. They have to understand that we have our deficiencies. Not all of us are English teachers. I am surprised that those Arabic teachers are asked to teach English. Also, I am surprised that some of them survived.

2- What are the things that you think can be done to make it better?

I guess the first thing would be to allow the teachers to choose whether they want to be MAG teachers or not. This will help to avoided problems such as using excessive Arabic in the classroom and disruptive behaviors. Also, I would say the ministry should provide us with proper materials. These materials that we have now are way above our students abilities. I have to modify most of them to be able to match them with the students’ needs and levels. Moreover, there should be fewer responsibilities given to teachers looking at the huge responsibilities CLIL itself produces for CLIL teachers. The Ministry would do teachers a great help if they cancel the achievement folder and the other extra activities that we have to do. If they do that then we will have time to follow whatever they want. Another thing would be, to give teachers the freedom in their classes, or I would say provide the teachers with better and suitable lesson plans. The last suggestion would be to train teachers and make the objectives clearer. I was amazed that the ministry asked the teachers to teach such method without any training or preparation.

3- How did teachers (colleagues and others) react to it?

I am not going to lie to you they never accepted it until now. I can understand that. In the new program their qualifications, skills and creativity is being neglected. They have become tools rather than teachers. This is demotivating a lot of teachers. You can tell from their way of teaching and behaving with their students.
In the previous program they used to have less responsibilities and planning. They used to plan their lesson within five minutes. However, now they can take up to two hours for a lesson to be planned.

4- How did the students react to it?

I feel bad for those students. Sometimes I feel that they are wasting their time. We all know that the knowledge they are learning, Oh, I mean memorizing would only last until their final exam. I bet they understand a thing. Therefore, some teachers use Arabic. I know many language teachers who use Arabic not because they are not good at English, but out of sympathy for their students.

From my conversations with the students’ parents, I believe that the students are not happy with the program. It can be seen in the students’ results comparing with the old program’s results. There is a need for the ministry to reconsider the program. I know it is good, but it is not something that any teacher can teach.

5- How do you find it compared with the previous method you used?

The old program was easy to teach. We just had to teach a subject and create our own materials and lesson plans. It was easier to teach even with little English knowledge. The textbooks were so easy and simplified. However, the new content and the language used in CLIL classes are to only be comprehended by professional English teachers or those who have ‘very good’ to excellent English language skills. I don’t know how did those Arabic teachers survived and are surviving. Sometimes I find it difficult being a graduate from an English medium university.

Talking about textbooks, I really don’t understand the purpose of the CLIL textbooks. They are not only difficult for both the teachers and the students; they also contain contents that have no relation to the students’ culture or lives. It is hard to teach my students some of the parts in the lesson plan. How can you teach students a subject that has nothing to do with the students’ lives and that you know that they would never benefit from it in the future? In addition to that you have to teach it in a nonnative language”. Students in this age need to learn the language and the contents that they can use in their daily lives and prepare them. However, their textbooks now are all about contents that have no relation to their lives, levels and needs.

I love the new program, but for the sake of the students, I believe that the old program was better. At least the teachers knew what to teach and how to teach. In addition, the students’ needs were better achieved and understood.

6- What did you know about CLIL before it was announced as a compulsory teaching approach in the UAE schools?
I have graduated from the HCT, which has taught me more than enough on how to be prepared for such programs. However, I noticed that there are many teachers graduated from the HCT who dislike using CLIL.

7- Why is that?

I think it’s the overloaded responsibilities. Don’t forget that those teachers were first assigned to teach a lesson, and how they have to teach three lesson.

8- Do you actually use CLIL in your classes?

Of course I do. I never changed my way of teaching even after the program. That is as I was using it prior to the implementation of the new program. I fell in love with this method since I studied in at college. It has become my style since.

9- How do you apply CLIL in your classes?

Easy, you have to focus on students’ understanding of the subject. For example, when you teach math you should teach the students the equations using English. You should not teach the language and the content separately. You need to combine them together using communicative activities.

10- Do you think that CLIL has any effect on the students’ progress? If so how and why?

If applied correctly, then yes. I always see great results using this method.

11- What are the advantages?

It helps the students to better understand the language and the content. It makes them focus on both and develop both of the skills to achieve the task. Doing so helps them to be able to use the language in and out the classroom. It makes learning the language valuable.

12- What are the disadvantages of CLIL?

There are some disadvantages such as what I have explained previously. If not applied correctly, it can lead to many problems.
Appendix 5
Student Interview

Purpose: Students’ and teachers’ understandings of and attitudes towards curricular innovation

Student: M

1- What do you think about the math and science lessons?
I don’t like them.

2- Why?
I don’t know about my classmates, but I am learning nothing.

3- Can you explain more?
To be honest, I feel I am learning nothing. I can’t understand anything during the class. The teachers’ mixed use of languages makes me confused. I can’t manage two languages at a time. I wish if we just use one language. That is really confusing. The teachers’ poor English makes it more difficult.

4- How?
The students got so used to Arabic that the teacher now focuses on Arabic than English. Even when she tries to use English, the students start to misbehave and make noises requesting her to explain the lesson in Arabic.

5- Can you tell me about your teacher’s teaching procedures?
She explains the new words. She then presents the new lesson, gives us a task to do. After that, she gives us feedback

6- Does she follow the same procedure in all of the classes?
Yes.

7- What are the things that you think can be done to make it better?
We need native speakers who we can trust, and who have confidence in herself and her teaching. I sometimes doubt on the information given by my MAG teacher. Sometimes the teacher herself explains the whole lesson to figure out that she has explained it wrong! This is confusing. Therefore, I guess we either need the old program to replace this program, or proper teachers.

8- How do you find the current program compared with the previous method you used?
I would say the previous program was way better than the current one. We used to learn better that way even that it wasn’t that much of fun to attend.

9- When you first heard about the MAG school program, how did you react to it? At first, I was motivated. I thought it’s a good opportunity for to improve my English. Now, I feel that there is no hope. How would they want us to be good in English if our tutors are not? They should change this program.

10- What do you think your mates feel about the MAG school? Why? Depends. Some really like it and some do not.

11- What do you think are the advantages of using CLIL? There is no advantage that I can see.

12- What are the disadvantages? We are learning the wrong English and the wrong content knowledge. I feel I have not improved in anything except my Arabic language skills.

13- If you had not being obliged by the MOE to be part of the CLIL program, would you ever have chosen it? Never

14- What if the program includes all of the things you mentioned above? Oh, then I would be more than happy to be part of it.

15- Do you think it works in some classrooms and does not work in others? Why? Yes, in classes where teachers are experts in what they teach maybe.
Appendix 6
Teacher Group Discussion 2

This session was a follow up session of the interview answers given in the individual interview. The reason behind this session was to clear some points and to get more valuable information.

I have started the session by asking the teachers about their opinion about the new innovation, is it working/ not working and why? What do they think would be done to advance it? And most of the interview questions were covered as well.

I’ve started the conversation by discussing the less Arabic being used in the class. Teacher G said that they cannot use lots of Arabic as the students are not that perfect in English and that they have to make sure that students do get the information they want them to get. Teacher E also agreed with her that they have to do that as in the exam all they need to do specially for math is just fill in the space. She adds, students do not need to understand English to answer a math exam. They just need the new vocab and importantly how to answer the equations. Teacher J interferes saying that “if you think that we speak Arabic most of the time then you should go observe those teacher’s classes who had no English teaching experience neither certificates”. I’ve told her that I did. She adds saying “ I am hundred percent sure that you got shocked”. She has blamed the government for that. One of the teacher’s sitting, who used to be an Arabic teacher but now is an English teacher, interfered saying that she observed lots of those teachers’ classes who has certificates and are experienced but they teach same as they do. She adds that the actual reason is the exams question that courage them not to focus on the language students need to learn English but for the exam sake. She said that we have to finish a curriculum as well so we need to fasten things up! Every one agreed with her on that! They believe that when speaking Arabic the class goes faster, students learn better and the curriculum finishes fast!

I asked the following question after this discussion; What if you just trained them from the first day of school that no Arabic should be spoken even outside the class. Plus, if any Arabic would be spoken you just ignore and act that you do not understand. By that way students will have to understand and speak in English. What do you think?

Teacher H said, it won’t work and who has time for that. We have more than a subject to teach in three hours and a whole curriculum to finish. Teacher D, blames grade one and two teachers. She says that they had to teach them all the basics and shouldn’t have spoken with them ever in Arabic! “If they did we wouldn’t have had this problem” she said. Teacher A,G and J agreed on that.

I added saying that, “ So they know English even if a little bit”. They said yes but who has time to recall what they’ve learnt ages ago. “We cannot take that headache” teacher C said said.

In the whole discussion they kept blaming grade one and two teachers, the curriculum, exams and the students.

They believe that the old way of teaching was great and that there is no better program was applied than the old one. They meant that style where the teacher has the control over everything and the class used to be a teacher centered.

I asked a follow up question which was; don’t you think it’s the same old way anyways? It is teacher centered and controlled anyways as I have noticed. They replied saying that yes but we need more freedom which no binderies on having goal and a curriculum to finish everyday. They say that they hate being told what to do and not. The say that there is no one who can know better than them in how to teach their students and know better about their students’ levels. They said, all they need to have a freedom and an old style and they can be happy as well as the students.

“Would you still use Arabic then?” I asked. They answered by ‘of course’ and gave a reason that they have to for the same reasons mentioned above.

I asked “ Have you been trained for the new program before being asked to apply it?” They said no. They were shocked when they were told to teach using CLIL. After four months of using it, the training started. They had to go once a month to some kind of workshop on how to teach using CLIL.
“Did it help” I asked. The answer was no. “Why “ I asked. They said, we believe that our ways are better and we know better what suits our students.

“How did you react when first were told?” I asked. Teacher G, said that she was shocked and angry as she had her preparation file that she has been using for ages and now its going to be a waste. Teacher A said, I did not mind as the government has new thoughts every year. Teacher F said sarcastically, “ I entered it from an ear and took it our from the other. Who is going to check anyways”. All laughed and agreed!

“ What about the students’ reaction?” I asked. They all said that they do not react, they just know that they have to follow their teacher whatever her techniques are and they have no say in the program used. The parents had problems with it though as we had to write and communicate with them in English as we had to. Most of the parents do not know English, so it was so hard for them to teach and revise for their children and help them in their homework.

I asked the teachers about how they manage between teaching their students and the other responsibilities they have to do?

Many teachers claim that they manage by using their old teaching techniques that is based on using the teacher-centered approach. While others claim that it depends of the teachers’ student management skills. Teacher D for example stated that, her student management techniques used to be more effective in the previous program. According to her, ‘I have no idea what else can I do for these students. I am trying my level best to finish the lesson, and keep them on track with other classes in the school, and this is the way they pay me. I know that I use harsh management techniques with them, but it is for their sake. I wish if I have enough time to teach them manners, but this is not my job. I do not do that. I have to ignore otherwise they will be behind the other classes and I will be in trouble’. Teacher ‘J’ added saying, ‘yes I know what you mean. I have tried t use CLIL as it is, but it does not work sometimes. We should teach the students to concentrate. In CLIL it is hard to ask them to do that. There are many things that they have to learn in a subject. Sometimes I feel bad that I can’t clarify everything for them or answer their questions. If everyone asks questions then the teacher will not be able to finish the lesson. We have to finish the lesson so the students are on track with the other classes in the school’.

Most of the teachers agree with them. They believe that it is the teachers’ management techniques that can help the teacher better accomplish the target objectives of the program.
Appendix 7
Student Group Focus

This session was a follow up session of the interview answers given in the individual interview. The reason behind this session was to clear some points and to get more valuable information.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I have started the session by asking the students about their opinion of the new innovation, is it working/ not working and why? What do they think would be done to advance it?</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Most of the students showed dissatisfaction with the current MAG program. According to student B, ‘the teachers are not teaching as they should’. She adds stating, ‘the program is to teach us in English not Arabic. The teachers’ excessive use of Arabic language cannot be understandable sometimes’.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some students disagreed with her. They believe that, the teacher should use Arabic in the class. According to them, if the teacher would not use the language, they would have never understood the lessons. They believe that the Arabic that the teacher uses is the reason behind their success in their exams.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student L replied to the above statements saying that, ‘but the subjects are supposed to be taught in English. Using Arabic does not help to improve our language. I feel that I have gotten weaker in English. We do not practice it in the class.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some students did not agree with her. They believe that Arabic should be used in the class. They believe that if it were not used, they would have failed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Many students believe that they dissatification is a result of their teachers’ behaviors in the classroom. According the students, teachers have become more aggressive towards teaching. They feel that it is the language difficulties that the teachers have is the reason. According to student Q, there are many times when her friends and herself asked the teacher for clarifications and she reused to answer. They believe that it is because of the language deficiency the teacher has. According to them, the teacher gets confused and covers herself by shouting or being stricter.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some students believe that it is the lack of mathematical and science knowledge that is causing the above mentioned issues. They have faced many situations where the teacher stopped in the middle of the class and telling them she has done the equation wrong. According to student K, her teacher comes with new pronunciation everyday and when they do the previous pronunciation the teacher would get upset at them.</td>
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<td>Many students complained for the MAG classes for being difficult and incomprehensible. They believe that nothing have changed. It is as if they are taking general English lessons. The focus is as it was in the previous program: on grammar, vocabulary and language.</td>
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<td>Some students complained that the content is not given importance by the teachers as the language. While other complained that the content is being concentrated on than the language.</td>
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<td>-What do you think can be done to make the program better?</td>
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<tr>
<td>Some students believe that they should have either foreign teachers teaching them or qualified English teachers. According to them, the poor language of the teacher is the main reason of their negative attitude towards CLIL. They need a teacher who they can trust. According to student L, we should have teachers that we can trust. ‘I cannot trust my teachers’ teaching anymore’. Many students agreed with her.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other students believe that math and science should never be taught in English. They believe that looking at the situation in hand, they do not think that it would ever work. According to them, it might work if there is an expert in math and science with the language ability.</td>
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## Appendix 8

### Year Overview: Grade 4

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<tr>
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<th>Term 1 (Sept-Dec)</th>
<th>Term 2 (Jan-March)</th>
<th>Term 3 (March-May)</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Number</strong></td>
<td>- Represent numbers to at least five digits and describe the place value of digits.</td>
<td>- Use knowledge of place value to add or subtract 1, 10, 100, 1000 to any number</td>
<td>- Recognise and use the symbols for multiplication and division and read and interpret the horizontal and vertical form of the multiplication algorithm.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- Count forwards or backwards by ones, twos, and fives from any number up to three-digits.</td>
<td>- Round numbers to the nearest 1000 when estimating.</td>
<td>- Multiply TU by U using informal methods, place value and partitioning, extending to formal methods.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- Order a set of 4-digit numbers in ascending and descending order.</td>
<td>- Use &lt; and &gt; and find ‘between’ numbers.</td>
<td>- Multiply or divide by 10 or 100 using place value.</td>
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<td>- Use a range of mental strategies for addition and subtraction involving 2, 3 and 4 digit numbers. Use the inverse relationship between + and – to check answers.</td>
<td>- Mentally derive halves and doubles, using partitioning for numbers beyond 50.</td>
<td>- Use formal algorithm (including carrying and decomposition) for + and – of 3 digit numbers, including money. Check answers with inverse operation.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- Recall multiplication facts for 2, 3, 4, 5, 10 times tables and derive the corresponding division.</td>
<td>- Use informal written methods to partition for + and – of 2 and 3 digit numbers</td>
<td>- Know and use the 7x and 9x table</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- Understand multiplication as repeated addition</td>
<td>- Recall multiplication facts for 6 and 8 times tables and derive the corresponding division facts.</td>
<td>- Find fractions of shapes and quantities through division.</td>
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<td>- Find remainders after division and know from the context whether to round up, down, or continue to decimals.</td>
<td></td>
<td>- Understand decimal notation to 2 decimal places, and the equivalence of ( \frac{1}{4} ) and 0.25.</td>
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<td>- Find equivalence between simple fractions.</td>
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<td>- Round money from 2 decimal places to the nearest dirham.</td>
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<td>- Know when 2 fractions total 1 whole.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- Read and understand mixed numbers.</td>
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<td>- Count money in 25’s and 50’s.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- Extend the number line to negative numbers in context.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- Round a number with 1 decimal place to the nearest whole number.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- Locate fractions on a number line and recognize links between ( \frac{1}{2} ) and 1/10 and decimal notation.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Measurement &amp; Data Handling</strong></td>
<td>- Read and record time, using digital and analogue notation to the nearest minute.</td>
<td>- Measure and record capacity in ml and l, converting between l and ml, and record using decimals to 2 decimals places.</td>
<td>- Estimate, measure, compare and record mass, using kg and g. Read scales.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Measure time in seconds, using a stopwatch.</td>
<td>- Calculate time intervals from clocks and timetables, and estimate and plan use of time.</td>
<td>- Know and use the relationship between units of time.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- Construct and interpret frequency tables, tally charts and pictograms.</td>
<td>- Construct and interpret bar graphs.</td>
<td>- Read calendars.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Use symbols and part-symbols to designate quantities on pictograms.</td>
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<td>- Determine the data needed to answer a specific question and represent in more than one way.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Use standard metric measures for length and convert between them: mm, cm, m, km.</td>
<td></td>
<td>- Represent sorting tasks in Venn and Carroll diagrams.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Estimate, measure, compare and record lengths and distances and the perimeter of 2-dimensional shapes, using m, cm and mm.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Pattern &amp; Function</td>
<td>Shape &amp; Space</td>
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<tr>
<td>- Generate, describe and record number patterns, using a variety of strategies, e.g. times tables, repeated addition and subtraction</td>
<td>- Identify and name quadrilaterals, pentagons, octagons and parallelograms presented in different orientations, and group using multiple attributes. - Recognise equilateral, scalene and isosceles triangles.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Recognise and use patterns when adding or subtracting odd and even numbers.</td>
<td>- Represent 3-dimensional objects in drawings, and sketch different views and describe cross-sections. - Name, describe, sort, make and sketch prisms, pyramids, cylinders, cones and spheres. - Learn the polyhedron and tetrahedron.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- Use and interpret simple maps and grids to represent position, and follow routes using coordinates and compass directions. - Use 8 point compass, clockwise and anti-clockwise turns. - Compare angles, using informal means and use the term ‘right’ for angles of 90°. Know that 360° is a full turn.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Day</td>
<td>Objective</td>
<td>Activity</td>
<td></td>
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<td>------</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sun</td>
<td>Recognise polygons term and names, properties of 2 dimensions shapes.</td>
<td>Mental oral starter: count on or back in 3s from any number. <strong>Warm up:</strong> review three types of geometry which are ray: it has a start point and no end, straight line no start and end point and line segment which has start and end point and it was part of straight line. Ask each group to bring 3, 4, 5, ..., pencils and make a shape from it by putting the pencils beside each other. Discuss their shape to know the polygons term by ask them some questions such as: * Can we enter to the shape? They will say no because it was closed. * From what the shape is construct? They will say from line</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mon</td>
<td>Review polygon &amp; 2d shapes.</td>
<td>Mental oral starter: add a multiple of 10 to a 2 or 3 digit number. Warm up: Ask questions about previous lesson: What are the term of polygon? Sort 2D shapes? How we know if the shape regular or irregular? Show a PowerPoint which has some real things like house, car, etc and ask students to find 2D shapes.. Distribute a worksheet to work for each group to work on it? Distribute a kites' art (* kite: he is person use math in his art *) to find 2D shapes and write its name as a group work...</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tue</td>
<td>Recognize the properties of square, rectangles and right angle triangle.</td>
<td>Mental oral starter: add several small numbers &amp; add multiples of 100 to make next 1000. Warm up: what is the quadrilateral? To recognize angles for children I will ask each student to use 2 pens or pencil and let them to put them beside each other and start open it slight slight and tell them this called acute angle and when we reach perpendicular it's called right angle and after 90 it's called Obtuse Angle. Then we have three angles: acute, right and obtuse we will concentrate in right angle which is one of the properties for square, rectangle and right angle triangle. Show them some example by using textbook1.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thurs</td>
<td>Review and Small quiz.</td>
<td>Solve some exercises from the textbook1.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Theme: Friction**

By the end of the theme, students should be able to:
- recognize and use theme vocabulary
- use target language (comparatives) to talk and write a comparison of different surfaces

An ice rink is smoother than sand. You can slide along quicker on tile than on concrete.

**Warm-up – The students will:**
- Review phonics/vocabulary from previous week
- Complete a wordsearch - comparatives

**Main Focus Activities:**
**The students will:**
- listen to and respond to a story
- Complete story-based activities
- Sentence relay games - comparatives
- Make a chart comparing the surfaces in the ice rink and Joe and the Bike or different surfaces in places around the school. Which surfaces are safest for children?
- Write a paragraph describing your best friend - what helps you get along with him/her? What don’t you like about your friend

**Oral/mental warm up:**
- Multiply a whole number by 10, 100 or 1000
- Recall x facts for 8x table
- Count on and back in 1, 10, 100, 1000 from any 4 digit number
- Multiply a tens number (e.g. 30) by a 1 digit number
- Say the decimal equivalent of a number of tenths.

By the end of this week, children should be able to:
- Subtract HTU-HTU using the formal method of decomposition
- Understand through practical work how the formal method records the exchange of 10's for 1's etc.
- Ensure through estimation and reflection that children are aware when they have made a calculation error
- Check results by applying the inverse operation
- Apply this method to problems involving money, modelled with actual money

**Quick Quiz Revision warm up:**
- Vocab/Word Wall activities
- K-W-L chart

**Sound**
- Force, Motion and Energy Systems
- S4.2A, B, C

By the end of this week, children should be able to:
- Explain how sound is produced and how it travels
- Describe how sound differs in pitch and intensity
- Create/label a model of a sound wave
- Explain the relationship between frequency and pitch
- Explain why sound waves travel only when there is matter to transmit them
- Compare and contrast sounds

**Question of the week:**
What harm can loud sounds do to our ears? How can we protect our ears from loud sounds?

**Vocabulary**
Quicker, slower, faster, smoother, rougher, surface, get along, like, dislike, skate, spin, speed, bike

Ice, sand, concrete, asphalt, tile, wallpaper, paint

Spelling List:
Quick, speed, rough, skate,

- Subtract, difference, how much more
- Discount, give change
- Columns
- Exchange

**Knowledge Vocabulary - read/write/spell**
- Vibration/pitch

**Content Vocabulary - concepts to understand**
- Wavelength/frequency/intensity

**Resources**
ORT The Ice rink – Stage 3
ORT Teacher’s Book – ESL learners
ORT Joe and the Bike - Sparrows

Abacus Unit A3.d, D3.b
- ITR A3.d – estimating and checking
- ITR D3.b – examples of shop discounts
- Real examples of local shopping discounts to use

TE: 406-429
Readers: BL Sound
Internet
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme: Natural Disasters</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Learning Objectives</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>By the end of the theme, students should be able to:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- recognize and use theme vocabulary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- use target language to give instructions in case of an emergency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You should try and keep calm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You must call the police</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- make an emergency phone call</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Warm-up</strong> - The students will:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Review previously introduced vocabulary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Main Focus Activities</strong> - The students will:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Brainstorm - What should you do in case of emergency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Write an ICE (In case of emergency) contact list</td>
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<tr>
<td>- Develop and write instructions for leading a fire drill for the school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Role play an emergency call</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Make posters describing community helpers</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

| Math |
| Oral / mental warm up: |
| - Count on and back in 100's from any number |
| - Give the number 100 more or less than any 4 digit number |
| - Add multiples of 10 or 100 using known number facts |
| - Round 3 digit numbers to the nearest 10 or 100 |
| - Recall x pairs to 100 |
| By the end of this week, children should be able to: |
| - Revise line symmetry in shapes and patterns |
| - Classify polygons according to their line symmetry |
| - Visualise and sketch reflected shapes across mirror lines |
| - Name common 3D shapes |
| - Describe and visualise 3D shapes |
| - Investigate general statements about 3D shapes |
| - Match 3D shapes to their nets and 2D drawings |
| - Being to recognise polyhedrons (3D shapes with several faces) and tetrahedrons (3D shapes with 4 faces) |

| Science |
| Quick Quiz / Revision / warm up: |
| - Strand: Earth / Space Systems |
| Changes to the Earth's Surface |
| Standard: 4.6C |
| Question of the Week? What are the major causes of change in the earth's surface? Where do they occur? |
| By the end of this week, children should be able to: |
| - Classify changes to the earth according to rate of change (sudden, slow) |
| - Compare and contrast causes of change to the earth's surface |
| - Identify (through investigation) how slow and rapid processes change the Earth. |

| Integration |
| Develop with children a classroom experiment on earthquakes and volcanoes. |
| Research with children the places and areas of volcanic eruptions and earthquakes, pinpoint on an earth's map. |

| Vocabulary |
| Hospital, emergency, fire engine, firefighters, rescue, safety, rules, fire drill, signs, community helpers, first aid, calm, police |
| Spelling List: |
| Safety, fire, hospital, emergency, rules, help, drill |
| - Polygon, polyhedron |
| - Shape |
| - Symmetry |
| - Corners and sides (2D) |
| - Vertices, faces and edges (3D) |
| - Tetrahedron |
| - Net |
| Knowledge Vocabulary - read / write / spell |
| - Earthquake, volcano |
| Content Vocabulary - concepts to understand |

| Resources |
| MIE Volcano erupts pg 342 |
| Ring Of Fire Harcourt Reader |
| MIE Big Book pg 23 |
| MIE pg 274-275, 276 |
| Abacus Unit B2.c and d |
| - ITR B2.c - symmetrical patterns including Islamic art |
| - ITR B2.d - 3D shapes, regular and irregular, polyhedrons |
| - Examples of 3D shapes and nets |
| - Pictures of symmetrical patterns and designs. |
| TE: 248-255 |
| SB: Changes To Earth's Surface |
| PPT: or research Earthquakes, volcano eruptions |
Appendix 9
Informal conversation on CLIL materials on social network

ألفته فيه دروووس مالها داعٍ

يعني مثلاً لايجد القسمة يمكن 6 أو 7 طرق وكل طريقة لها خطوات

كنت أبا صورة الدرس

مع أنه درس الرسم و بعدها القسمة المطوله تكفي
University of Bath  Department of Education

MPHIL / PHD PROGRAMME: ETHICAL IMPLICATIONS OF PROPOSED RESEARCH

To be completed by the student and supervisors, and approved by the Department of Education’s Transfer Panel or the Director of Studies if data are collected before the Transfer

Introduction

1. Name(s) of researcher: Asma Mohammed Jooaan

2. Provisional title of your research: The advantages and limitations of using Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) in the United Arab Emirates (UAE)

3. Justification of Research:
This study is of vital significance to the UAE education system because of the role that English plays as an international medium of education, and because of the increasing use of Content & Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) as a methodology for language teaching. To date almost no research in this area has been conducted or published in the Gulf States context.

Consent

4. Who are the main participants in your research (interviewees, respondents, raconteurs and so forth)? UAE university Foundation students and teachers, Primary and secondary MAG school students, teachers and principals.

5. How will you find and contact these participants? Through professional contacts in the workplaces I mentioned above.

6. How will you obtain consent? From whom? Consent will be obtained from:
- The Ministry of Higher Education & scientific research
- The Ministry of Education
- The directors of the schools and the college
- The participants themselves.

The ways would differ in each case. However, in each case an official letter would be sent to ask for a permission of including and using the college/school for my research. An official letter will be sent to the students’ parents as well.

Deception

7. How will you present the purpose of your research? Do you foresee any problems including presenting yourself as the researcher?

A copy of the abstract will be sent to the responsible parties and a verbal detailed explanation will be provided, in order to avoid any kind of misunderstanding.

8. In what ways might your research cause harm (physical or psychological distress or discomfort) to yourself or others? What will you do to minimise this?

All care will be taken to avoid harm or distress for the participants during the study. They will be volunteers who are helping of their own free will and who are interested in the study. To avoid any kind of harm, I will ensure that all of the participants are volunteers. Also, through the use of a culturally sensitive qualitative methodology, I will seek to minimise my impact on the research setting.
Confidentiality
9. What measures are in place to safeguard the identity of participants and locations?

The participants will not be identifiable, as their names will be replaced with pseudonyms in the study. All the respondents' details and data collected will be securely kept in a safe place out of anyone’s reach. Furthermore, all the documents and the data will be deleted and shredded after I have completed my study.

Accuracy
10. How will you record information faithfully and accurately?
   - Videotaping
   - Voice recordings

11. At what stages of your research, and in what ways will participants be involved?
    There will be several cycles of:
    - Interviews
    - Discussions
    - Observation

12. Have you considered how to share your findings with participants and how to thank them for their participation?

When I have completed my research, a copy of it will be sent to the administrators and a detailed report will be sent to each of the participants, along with a letter of appreciation as a way of saying thank you.

Additional Information
13. Have you approached any other body or organisation for permission to conduct this research? No.
    N/A

14. Who are the supervisors of this research?
    Dr. Trevor Grimshaw (lead supervisor)
    Dr. Santi Sanchez (2nd supervisor)

15. Any other relevant information. No.
University of Bath    Department of Education

MPHIL / PHD PROGRAMME: ETHICAL IMPLICATIONS OF PROPOSED RESEARCH

To be completed by the student and supervisors, and approved by the Department of Education’s Transfer Panel or the Director of Studies if data are collected before the Transfer

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student</th>
<th>Signature: Asma Jooaan</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Asma Jooaan</td>
<td>Date: 30th June 2012</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

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<tr>
<th>Supervising Member(s) of Staff</th>
<th>Signature:</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dr Trevor Grimshaw</td>
<td>Date: 30th June 2012</td>
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<tr>
<th>Director of Studies / Chair of Transfer Panel</th>
<th>Signature:</th>
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<td>Date: 28/2/2017</td>
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Note: The original ethics form signed by the Director of Studies at the time (Dr Jill Porter) has been mislaid, so this is a copy of the original form submitted to her, now signed off by the current Director of Studies.

A copy of this form to be placed in [1] the student file, and [2] an Ethics Approval File held by the DREO (Department Research Ethics Officer). The Director of Studies (MPhil / PhD) will report annually to the Department’s Research Students Committee (white paper business) on ethical issues of particular interest that have been raised at transfer.
Coded Teacher Interview Transcript

Aim: Teachers’ and students’ understandings of and attitudes towards curricula innovation and CLIL.

Teacher: S

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Transcript</th>
<th>Coding</th>
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</table>
| **1- What do you think of the innovation (CLIL) that happened four years ago?**
   Despite that I love the new program. I believe that it was applied in a haphazard way. Teachers were not involved in the new program. We did not know about it until couple of weeks before the implementation. I believe only the teacher can understand the way students think about the subject and assess the students’ thinking methods and misunderstandings. I believe that the refusal of many teachers to use the new method is because of the misapplication. Our students’ needs are not being covered in this program. How can it be if the teachers are not involved when planning the program? It is not right to expect that the program would work based on outer planner decisions. Teachers are the only ones who can better understand students’ needs and requirements. The ministry’s fault was that they believe that we can teach anything. That is not right. They have to understand that we have our deficiencies. Not all of us are English teachers. I am surprised that those Arabic teachers are asked to teach English. Also, I am surprised that some of them survived.
| - Addressing a situation
  - Teachers were not involved in the decision making process
  - Reasons of teachers’ attitudes of CLIL
  - Addressing concerns
  - Students’ needs are not covered in the program
  - The program was decided by other sources than teachers.
  - Teachers are aware of their deficiencies
  - Addressing the reasons of teachers’ deficiencies, demotivation and understanding of the program. |

| **2- What are the things that you think can be done to make it better?**
   I guess the first thing would be to allow the teachers to choose whether they want to be MAG teachers or not. This will help to avoid problems such as using excessive Arabic in the classroom and disruptive behaviors. Also, I would say the ministry should provide us with proper materials. Those materials that we have now are way above our students’ abilities. I have to modify most of them to be able to match them with the students’ needs and levels. Moreover, there should be fewer responsibilities given to teachers looking at the huge responsibilities CLIL itself produces for CLIL teachers. The Ministry would do teachers a great help if they cancel the achievement folder and the other extra activities that we have to do. If they do that then we will have time to follow whatever they want. Another thing would be, to give teachers the freedom in their classes, or I would say provide the teachers with better and suitable lesson plans. The last suggestion would be to train teachers and make the objectives clearer. I was amazed that the ministry asked the teachers to teach such method without any
| - Addressing problems and situations
  - The disadvantages and problems caused by the new program
  - Concerns of the results of the new program
  - Teacher empowerment
  - Concerns regarding materials
  - Addressing causes of students’ learning difficulties
  - Concerns in regards of Materials
  - The current materials do not match with the students’ needs and levels.
  - Addressing factors that are affecting students’ and the program.
  - Addressing factors that are affecting student and teachers’ attitudes towards CLIL.
  - Increased teachers’ workload (achievement folder and extra activities).
  - Freedom of lesson plans planning
  - Addressing teachers’ teaching difficulties |

| - Addressing a situation
  - Teachers’ attitude towards CLIL |
3.- How did teachers (colleagues and others) react to it?
I am not going to lie to you they never accepted it until now. I can understand that. In the new program their qualifications, skills and creativity is being neglected. They have become tools rather than teachers. This is demotivating a lot of teachers. You can tell from their way of teaching and behaving with their students.
In the previous program they used to have less responsibilities and planning. They used to plan their lesson within five minutes. However, now they can take up to two hours for a lesson to be planned.

4.- How did the students react to it?
I feel bad for these students. Sometimes I feel that they are wasting their time. We all know that the knowledge they are learning. Oh, I mean memorizing would only last until their final exam. I bet they understand a thing. Therefore, some teachers use Arabic. I know many language teachers who use Arabic not because they are not good at English, but out of sympathy for their students.
From my conversations with the students’ parents, I believe that the students are not happy with the program. It can be seen in the students’ results comparing with the old program’s results. There is a need for the ministry to reconsider the program. I know it is good, but it is not something that any teacher can teach.

5.- How do you find it compared with the previous method you used?
The old program was easy to teach. We just had to teach a subject and create our own materials and lesson plans. It was easier to teach even with little English knowledge. The textbooks were so easy and simplified. However, the new content and the language used in CLIL classes are to only be comprehended by professional English teachers or those who have “very good” to excellent English language skills. I don’t know how did those Arabic teachers survived and are surviving. Sometimes I find it difficult being a graduate from an English medium university.
Talking about textbooks, I really don’t understand the purpose of the CLIL textbooks. They are not only difficult for both the teachers and the students; they also contain contents that have no relation to the students’ culture or lives. It is hard to teach my students some of the parts in the lesson plan. How can you teach students a subject that has nothing to do with the students’ lives and that you know that they would never benefit from it in the future? In addition to that you have to teach it in a nonnative language. Students in this age need to learn the language and the contents that they can use in their daily lives and prepare them. However, their textbooks now are all about contents that have no relation to their lives, levels and needs.
I love the new program, but for the sake of the
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Students</th>
<th>Addressing a situation</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I believe the old program was better. At least the teachers knew what to teach and how to teach. In addition, the students' needs were better achieved and understood.</td>
<td>Some teachers have positive attitudes towards CLIL.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6- What did you know about CLIL before it was announced as a compulsory teaching approach in the UAE schools?</td>
<td>An example of an effective CLIL teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have graduated from the HCT, which has taught me more than enough on how to be prepared for such programs. However, I noticed that there are many teachers graduated from the HCT who dislike using CLIL.</td>
<td>- Addressing a situation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7- Why is that?</td>
<td>- If applied in an effective way, CLIL can be an efficient method to use.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think it's the overloaded responsibilities. Don't forget that those teachers were first assigned to teach a lesson, and now they have to teach three lessons.</td>
<td>- Effective learning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8- Do you actually use CLIL in your classes?</td>
<td>- Effective teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Of course I do. I never changed my way of teaching even after the program. That is as I was using it prior to the implementation of the new program. I fell in love with this method since I studied in college. It has become my style since.</td>
<td>- Knowledge, language and motivation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9- How do you apply CLIL in your classes?</td>
<td>- Advantages of using CLIL.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Easy, you have to focus on students' understanding of the subject. For example, when you teach math you should teach the students the equations using English. You should not teach the language and the content separately. You need to combine them together using communicative activities.</td>
<td>- Positive attitude towards CLIL.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10- Do you think that CLIL has any effect on the students' progress? If so how and why? If applied correctly, then yes. I always see great results using this method.</td>
<td>- The disadvantages of using CLIL.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11- What are the advantages?</td>
<td>- Concerns of ineffective implementation of CLIL.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It helps the students to better understand the language and the content. It makes them focus on both and develop both of the skills to achieve the task. Doing so helps them to be able to use the language in and out the classroom. It makes learning the language valuable.</td>
<td>- What are the disadvantages of CLIL?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12- What are the disadvantages of CLIL?</td>
<td>There are some disadvantages such as what I have explained previously. If not applied correctly, it can lead to many problems.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## Transcript

**Purpose:** Students’ and teachers’ understandings of and attitudes towards curricular innovation

**Student:** B

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Transcript</th>
<th>Coding</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1- Researcher: What do you think about the math and science lessons?</td>
<td>- Demotivation towards the new program</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2- Can you tell me about your teacher’s teaching procedures?</td>
<td>- The reason of the demotivation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Teacher’s procedure of teaching CLIL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She uses the same way all the time. She explains the new words and then the lesson. Then, she gives us a task to do. Sometimes we answer together or it is homework.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3- What are the things that you think can be done to make it better?</td>
<td>- Addressing students’ needs and desire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I would love my teacher to use games and activities. Also, use new technology. Like the iPad the government provided each of us.</td>
<td>- The role of the government in students’ motivation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4- Don’t you use it at all?</td>
<td>- Addressing a situation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>- Addressing students’ concern</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5- Why?</td>
<td>- Motivation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When we ask the teacher, she says we have no time for it and it’s a waste of time.</td>
<td>- Addressing a situation and concern</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6- Do you think it necessary to be used?</td>
<td>- The relationship between the teacher and the students and its effect on their learning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes, because the principle and the course coordinator has told us that there are many programs and exercises uploaded that can really help us improve our skills and have fun.</td>
<td>- Addressing teacher’s way of teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7- Did you speak to your principle about it?</td>
<td>- Using lots of Arabic in the class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No, if the teacher knows we might lose marks.</td>
<td>- Students’ concern</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8- What is the reason, in your opinion, of not using it in the class?</td>
<td>- Students’ learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you think it might really be a waste of time as your teacher claims?</td>
<td>- Addressing a situation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impossible. The use of Arabic is. The teacher spends more time in the translation than anything else.</td>
<td>- Addressing a situation and concern</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9- Can you give me an example?</td>
<td>- The relationship between the teacher and the students and its effect on their learning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She will read a text, translate it and then ask another student to read loudly. After that, she asks another student to translate it once again. She would repeat that four times or more. I wish if my teacher never uses Arabic.</td>
<td>- Addressing teacher’s way of teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10- How do you find the current program compared with the previous method you used?</td>
<td>- Students’ concern</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boring. In the previous program we used to have some fun activities and good teaching. Now we don’t. Our teachers don’t know English. This is a shame. There are some times were we correct our teachers' mistakes. We never used to do that in the old program. Our teachers used to know English. Even though math and science teachers, they used to be good when it was taught in Arabic. I used to be a student of my current English teacher. She used to be my math teacher. She used to be a good teacher. Her classes used to be fun. I don’t know what happened now. I guess it is the English. I don’t understand how she was allowed to teach in English anyways. That funny. I find her teaching funny. You should listen to her English.</td>
<td>- Students’ learning routine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11- When you first heard about the MAG school</td>
<td>- Students’ attitude towards the classes</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- Addressing a situation</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>- Students are aware of their teachers’ deficiencies</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- Students find the previous program to be better</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- Students are not aware of CLIL teaching</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- Teachers’ lack of English</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Reasons of students’ demotivation</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Students concerns towards their learning</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Learning difficulties</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Reasons of learning difficulties</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>