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## **Table of contents**

<b>1. INTRODUCTION .....</b>	<b>1</b>
<b>2. CLIL (CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING).....</b>	<b>3</b>
2.1. WHAT IS CLIL? .....	3
2.2. ASSUMPTIONS ABOUT SLA.....	5
2.3. REASONS AND AIMS FOR CLIL.....	6
2.4. TYPES OF CLIL.....	8
2.5. ADVANTAGES AND LIMITATIONS OF CLIL.....	11
2.6. CLIL IN EUROPE.....	17
2.7. CLIL IN AUSTRIA .....	18
2.8. THE ROLE OF TEACHERS WITHIN CLIL .....	21
2.9. SUMMARY OF CHAPTER.....	23
<b>3. BELIEFS.....</b>	<b>23</b>
3.1. WHAT ARE BELIEFS? .....	23
3.2. BELIEF FORMATION.....	24
3.3. CHARACTERISTICS OF BELIEFS.....	25
3.3.1. <i>Stability and changeability of beliefs</i> .....	25
3.3.2. <i>Connection to other concepts</i> .....	26
3.3.3. <i>Action</i> .....	26
3.3.4. <i>Constructing beliefs</i> .....	27
3.4. BOUNDARIES TO DIFFERENT CONCEPTS.....	27
3.5. WHY STUDY TEACHERS' BELIEFS? .....	29
3.6. HOW CAN BELIEFS BE STUDIED? .....	30
3.7 SUMMARY OF CHAPTER.....	33
<b>4. METHODOLOGY.....</b>	<b>33</b>
4.1. QUALITATIVE RESEARCH .....	33
4.2. INTERVIEWS.....	34
4.3. SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEWS.....	36
4.4. GUIDING QUESTIONS.....	36
4.5. PILOT STUDY .....	36
4.6. THE SAMPLE.....	38
4.7. PROCESS OF INTERVIEWS .....	39
4.8. PROCESS OF TRANSCRIPTION .....	40
4.9. QUALITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS .....	40
<b>5. RESULTS .....</b>	<b>43</b>
5.1. WHAT IS CLIL FOR THE TEACHERS .....	44
5.2. THE AIMS OF CLIL .....	44
5.2.1. <i>Improving language competence</i> .....	45
5.2.2. <i>Reduction of language anxiety</i> .....	46
5.2.3. <i>Trying out something new</i> .....	46
5.2.4. <i>Raising awareness for the importance of English</i> .....	46
5.2.5. <i>Image improvement</i> .....	47
5.3. ORGANISATION OF CLIL WITHIN THE SCHOOL.....	47
5.3.1. <i>Support from the school</i> .....	47
5.3.2. <i>Choice of subjects</i> .....	47
5.3.3. <i>Amount of CLIL lessons</i> .....	48
5.3.4. <i>Cooperation between teachers</i> .....	48

5.3.5. <i>Obligation of CLIL</i> .....	49
5.3.6. <i>Preparation for CLIL</i> .....	49
5.4. THE ROLE OF ENGLISH .....	50
5.4.1. <i>The importance of English</i> .....	50
5.4.2. <i>The teachers' language competence</i> .....	51
5.5. THE CLIL LESSON .....	53
5.5.1. <i>Activities in CLIL lessons</i> .....	53
5.5.2. <i>Balance of content and language</i> .....	54
5.5.3. <i>The atmosphere of CLIL lessons</i> .....	54
5.5.4. <i>Forcing students to talk in English</i> .....	55
5.5.5. <i>Teachers' feelings about talking in English to the students</i> .....	55
5.5.6. <i>Grading</i> .....	56
5.5.7. <i>Availability of materials</i> .....	57
5.6 ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF CLIL .....	58
5.6.1. <i>Advantages of CLIL</i> .....	58
5.6.2. <i>Disadvantages of CLIL</i> .....	62
5.7. THE STUDENTS AND CLIL .....	65
5.7.1. <i>Positive aspects</i> .....	66
5.7.2. <i>Negative aspects</i> .....	66
5.7.3. <i>Individuality of students</i> .....	67
5.8. SUGGESTIONS FOR IMPROVEMENT .....	67
5.9. THE INFLUENCE OF BELIEFS.....	68
5.9.1. <i>Teachers' judgement of their beliefs</i> .....	68
5.9.2. <i>Change of beliefs</i> .....	69
5.9.3. <i>The influence of beliefs on students</i> .....	69
<b>6. DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS</b> .....	<b>69</b>
6.1. WHAT IS CLIL .....	70
6.2. AIMS OF CLIL .....	71
6.3. THE STUDENTS .....	72
6.4. ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF CLIL.....	73
6.5. SUGGESTIONS FOR IMPROVEMENT .....	75
6.6 ISSUES ASSOCIATED WITH CLIL .....	76
6.6.1. <i>Language competence of the teachers</i> .....	76
6.6.2. <i>Cooperation between teachers</i> .....	78
6.6.3. <i>Activities in the CLIL lesson</i> .....	78
6.6.4. <i>Balance of content and language</i> .....	79
6.6.5. <i>Materials</i> .....	80
6.6.6. <i>The influence of seminars</i> .....	80
6.6.7. <i>The obligation of teaching CLIL</i> .....	82
6.6.8. <i>Issues concerning beliefs</i> .....	83
6.7. SUMMARY OF DISCUSSION .....	85
<b>7. CONCLUSION</b> .....	<b>86</b>
<b>8. BIBLIOGRAPHY</b> .....	<b>89</b>
<b>9 APPENDIX</b> .....	<b>97</b>
9.1 INTERVIEW LEITFADEN .....	97
9.2 CODES .....	99
9.3. ABSTRACT (ENGLISH) .....	101
9.4. ZUSAMMENFASSUNG (DEUTSCH).....	102

## List of Figures

FIGURE 1: OVERVIEW OF PARTICIPANTS .....	39
FIGURE 2: DISTRIBUTION OF AIMS OF CLIL.....	45
FIGURE 3: ESTIMATION OF LANGUAGE COMPETENCE.....	51
FIGURE 4: VARIETY OF ACTIVITIES WITHIN A CLIL LESSON .....	53
FIGURE 5: AVAILABILITY OF MATERIALS .....	57
FIGURE 6: ADVANTAGES AND LIMITATIONS OF CLIL .....	58
FIGURE 7: ADVANTAGES OF CLIL .....	59
FIGURE 8: DISADVANTAGES OF CLIL .....	62
FIGURE 9: THE INFLUENCE OF CLIL ON THE STUDENTS.....	65
FIGURE 10: THE INFLUENCE OF SEMINARS ON THE ATTITUDE TOWARDS CLIL.....	82





## 1. Introduction

Due to globalisation, an excellent command of foreign languages is viewed as essential. Foreign languages are not only important for travelling or leisure activities, but also for the job market. Thus, new approaches towards foreign language learning are spreading. One of these rather new approaches is CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning). CLIL focuses on both content learning and language learning simultaneously; a foreign language is used in order to convey content. At the same time, this approach utilizes methods of foreign language learning, thus uniting two aspects (Coyle, Hood & Marsh 2010: 1). It promises an improvement of language competence while simultaneously conveying content knowledge, which is one of the reasons for its rapid spread throughout the last decades.

Especially within the EU, the importance of having a high level of language competence in numerous languages has been emphasised. In 1995, the European Commission proposed their aim that every EU citizen speak at least two foreign languages in addition to their first language (European Commission 1995: 47). CLIL approaches, which started as grass-root movements, are now promoted by the European Commission as approaches to achieve these language goals (Eurydice 2006: 9).

Due to its status as a lingua franca, English has a special role within the context of CLIL. An excellent command of the English language is viewed as a prerequisite to compete on the European job market, and the CLIL approach seems to promise to achieve this goal. Therefore, it is no surprise that the majority of CLIL programmes are conducted in English.

In Austria, this aim is relevant as well. CLIL and similar concepts have been present for at least two decades, and it became obligatory in 2011 for some schools to conduct a certain amount of CLIL lessons. Secondary technical colleges (HTLs) have to conduct at least 72 hours per year per class as CLIL lessons (Rechtsvorschrift der Höheren technischen und gewerblichen Lehranstalten: Zusatz IId). This obligation leads to a high number of issues. While CLIL has been researched thoroughly in the last twenty years, most of the research on CLIL was conducted within a framework of voluntariness. That this major factor has changed can influence the success of CLIL immensely.

Therefore, it is essential to investigate whether this change has effects on CLIL in Austria.

Within every educational context, teachers are an important factor, since they are always involved in language-learning situations. They also play an important part within CLIL. Therefore, this study focuses on the teachers who have to conduct CLIL lessons and especially their beliefs concerning CLIL. It has been argued that beliefs influence teachers' attitudes and practices immensely (Gabillon 2005: 233; Xu 2012: 1397). This influence of beliefs of course also plays an integral part in the context of CLIL. Therefore, this paper will focus on CLIL and teachers' beliefs.

The main interest of this study is to identify beliefs of CLIL teachers, which leads to the major research question:

*What beliefs do CLIL teachers in secondary technical colleges hold?*

This research question leads to a number of sub-questions:

- 1) What do teachers believe that CLIL is?*
- 2) Which aims of CLIL can teachers identify?*
- 3) How do teachers believe their students cope with CLIL?*
- 4) What do teachers view as the advantages and disadvantages of CLIL?*
- 5) How can the implementation of CLIL be improved?*

These questions will be investigated through interviews with eight CLIL teachers of a secondary technical college in Lower Austria.

In the first section of this paper, the concept of CLIL is discussed in detail. The aims of and reasons for teaching CLIL are considered as well as advantages and disadvantages of this approach. Moreover, the role of CLIL in Europe as well as in Austria is mentioned. Additionally, different types of CLIL are presented and the role of the teacher within CLIL is discussed in detail.

The second part of this paper focuses on beliefs and their importance especially for teaching. A special focus lies on different characteristics of beliefs, as well as their formation. Moreover, it is considered why beliefs are important and how they can be studied.

In the third part, the method of this study is discussed. The development of the guiding questions is reported and the process of interviewing, transcribing, coding and analysing is discussed. Since beliefs are rather difficult to investigate, the method is described in detail.

Afterwards, the results of the study are presented and then discussed in the final part of this paper. The results are considered within specific topics and a connection to the theoretical parts of CLIL and beliefs as well as to the research questions is established.

## 2. CLIL (Content and language integrated learning)

This section on CLIL will first define and clarify the term CLIL. Afterwards, underlying assumptions about SLA (second language acquisition) concerning CLIL will be discussed. Then, the reasons for and aims of teaching CLIL will be presented. Subsequently, different types of CLIL will be described, followed by a discussion of the advantages and disadvantages of CLIL. Afterwards, the situation of CLIL in Europe and Austria will be considered. Finally, the role of teachers within the context of CLIL will be discussed.

### 2.1. What is CLIL?

CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning) is a “dual-focused educational approach in which an **additional language** is used for the learning and teaching of both content *and* language” (Coyle, Hood & Marsh 2010: 1; original emphasis). The term *additional language* refers to a foreign language which is not the mother tongue of the majority of the pupils, nor a second language in the country (Dalton-Puffer, Nikula & Smit 2010: 1). Henceforth, instead of the term *additional language*, the term *foreign language* will be used.

In contrast to other concepts where a foreign language is used only to deliver content, CLIL also utilizes “connected pedagogies and [...] contextual methodologies” (Coyle, Hood & Marsh 2010: 12), so methods used for language teaching should be used in CLIL lessons. Language learning and content learning should happen simultaneously in CLIL lessons (Dalton-Puffer, Nikula & Smit 2010: 2). However, research of European CLIL programmes demonstrates that the majority are more content-driven than language-

driven (Nikula 2015: 24; Dalton-Puffer, Nikula & Smit 2010: 2), which means that the content is considered to be more important than the language aspect of CLIL.

The term CLIL itself was developed in the 1990s, in an attempt to introduce an independent and neutral term (Dalton-Puffer, Nikula & Smit 2010: 3) and has since played an important part not only within the European discussion of education (Coyle, Hood & Marsh 2010: 3), but also far beyond, for example in South America or Asia (Ioannou Georgiou 2012: 495).

While the term CLIL was only coined in the 1990s, learning through a foreign language is not a new phenomenon. A prominent example is the use of Latin as the language of education throughout many centuries in Europe (Dalton-Puffer, Nikula & Smit 2010: 3; Lasagabaster 2015: 13). More recently, in the 1960s, bilingual education was introduced in many countries, as well as immersion programmes in Canada (Dalton-Puffer, Nikula & Smit 2010: 1; Ruiz de Zarobe & Jiménez Catalán 2009: xi). Since the 1990s, CLIL has spread at a high speed, which “has surprised even the most ardent of advocates” (Maljers, Marsh & Wolff 2007: 7). This statement from 2007 is still highly accurate today, because the speed has not slowed down since (Hüttner, Dalton-Puffer & Smit 2013: 267; Ruiz de Zarobe & Cenoz 2015: 90; Cenoz, Genese & Gorter 2014: 255).

One of the reasons for this spread is the language most frequently used for CLIL, which, throughout Europe, is English (Dalton-Puffer & Smit 2013: 550; Dalton-Puffer & Nikula 2014: 117; Wilkinson 2004; Eurydice 2006; Lasagabaster & Sierra 2010). This prominence of the English language within CLIL programmes can be explained by its importance as a lingua franca (Dalton-Puffer et al. 2014: 215; Dalton-Puffer & Smit 2013: 546). In order to mirror this development, the term *CEIL* was proposed, where the L for languages is exchanged for E as in English (Dalton-Puffer, Nikula & Smit 2010: 286); however, this suggestion has not prevailed. Next to English, other “languages with high symbolic capital” (Kramsch 2008: 316) such as French, Spanish or German are used for CLIL (Dalton-Puffer et al. 2014: 215). The frequent use of English is thought to contribute to the success of CLIL, since due to the importance of the English language, a high number of people, especially students, are willing to devote extra effort into learning this language (Dalton-Puffer & Smit 2013: 550).

Despite the agreement on the most prominent language, CLIL is often characterised as an “umbrella term” (Dalton-Puffer, Nikula & Smit 2010: 2), since a variety of approaches and practices can be found under its name. There are no regulations regarding the length or intensity of CLIL programmes, which is one of the reasons why

they differ significantly from each other. Usually, the target language remains “a subject in its own right in the shape of foreign language lessons” (Dalton-Puffer, Nikula & Smit 2010: 1-2), so CLIL lessons do not replace EFL classes, but supplement language learning. Moreover, there are numerous similar approaches to CLIL which adds to the varied use of the term. These approaches will be discussed below (see 2.4).

Nevertheless, Dalton-Puffer et al. identified three typical characteristics of CLIL (Dalton-Puffer et al. 2014: 215; Dalton-Puffer & Smit 2013: 546f): first of all, the content is taught through a foreign language, which in most cases is English. Secondly, CLIL does not replace foreign language teaching, so the foreign language remains a subject in itself. Finally, CLIL lessons are scheduled as content lessons and taught by subject teachers, who usually are content experts, but not foreign language experts. This paper will follow this description of CLIL.

## **2.2. Assumptions about SLA**

A large number of theories on how second languages are learned coexist (for an overview see: Hoff 2009; Gass, Behney & Plonsky 2013; Robinson & Ellis 2008). This section will not try to offer an exhaustive description and discussion of these theories, but will briefly mention the theories on which numerous underlying assumptions regarding CLIL are rooted. These theories are the Comprehension Hypothesis, the Output Hypothesis, the Interaction Hypothesis and Sociocultural Theory.

An underlying assumption concerning CLIL is that language-learning takes place naturalistically, “implying that the best kind of language learning proceeds without formal instruction” (Dalton-Puffer, Nikula & Smit 2010: 6). It is assumed that foreign language acquisition happens through comprehensible input (Dalton-Puffer 2011: 194; Dalton-Puffer, Nikula & Smit 2010: 6-7), which corresponds to Krashen’s Comprehension Hypothesis (Krashen 2009: 81). This theory states that second language acquisition takes place when the learner is exposed to comprehensible input. This input is understandable for the learner either because it is simplified intentionally, or because of the context (Krashen 2009: 81). Moreover, it is argued that grammar is acquired automatically (Gass & Selinker 2008: 309), if the input is comprehensible.

Another theory about second language acquisition is the Output Hypothesis, which was proposed by Swain (1995: 125ff). Swain argues that the learner has to produce comprehensible output in order to learn a language, because some aspects of a language,

for example syntax, cannot be acquired only via input (Gass & Selinker 2008: 326). The learners have to “play more active, responsible roles” (Swain 1995: 126) in their learning process. Output is not only important for practice, but plays an important part in learning a language.

The Interaction Hypothesis proposes that interaction is essential for learning a language. Participation in communication is seen as key to second language acquisition, and classrooms offer a high number of opportunities for interaction (Ellis 1992: 245). Walsh argues that due to its importance, classroom discourse should be central to every learning situation (Walsh 2011: 2). Classroom interaction is described as “highly complex and central to all classroom activity” (Walsh 2011: 2) and is “very fast and [...] has multiple foci” (Walsh 2011: 2). Especially “negotiation for meaning” (Gor & Long 2009: 445) plays an important part within this theory, because through this negotiation, learning occurs.

Sociocultural theory views language as rooted in a social context (Gass & Selinker 2008: 280). This theory is based on work by Vygotsky and it is assumed that “[l]earning is anchored in the social practices that a learner engages in” (Gass & Selinker 2008: 280f). Thus, the context in which language is used and learned is highly important. Dalton-Puffer, Nikula and Smit (2010: 8) argue that sociocultural theory enhances the understanding of learning in CLIL classrooms, because every social interaction involves specific people, times and places (Dalton-Puffer, Nikula & Smit 2010: 8). Therefore, the context cannot be ignored, but is an essential part of every communicative situation as well as the language learning process.

When considering CLIL, all of these theories on second language acquisition offer underlying assumptions about SLA which influence CLIL. First of all, CLIL increases the input as well as the output students are confronted with, since they listen to their teacher and colleagues, and also have to take part in the lesson themselves. Every classroom consists of communication and interaction in some form, which according to the Interaction Hypothesis is essential for language learning. Moreover, the context and social practices play an integral part in every learning situation, thus also in CLIL lessons.

### **2.3. Reasons and aims for CLIL**

CLIL can be introduced for various reasons, which have been described by Coyle, Hood and Marsh as either reactive or proactive: reactive reasons are defined as “responding to

situations” (Coyle, Hood & Marsh 2010: 6), while proactive reasons create situations (Coyle, Hood & Marsh 2010: 6). However, not every reason fits into one of those categories, because frequently, the boundaries are more fuzzy than clear-cut.

The most frequently mentioned reason for CLIL is the “2 for 1 argument” (Bruton 2013: 595; Dalton-Puffer et al. 2008: 166; Ioannou Georgiou 2012: 497), which foregrounds the aspect that both content learning and foreign language learning can occur at the same time and place. This argument has also been criticised frequently, for example as being “idealised” (Bruton 2015: 120). This aspect has financial consequences as well, since CLIL is highly cost-efficient (Dalton-Puffer et al. 2008: 166).

Moreover, CLIL is often seen as an answer to the growing demand of a high foreign language competence due to globalization, society and economy (Coyle, Hood & Marsh 2010: 2) and especially the European Commission striving for more inclusion (Coyle, Hood & Marsh 2010: 8). One of the main aims of CLIL is to prepare students for future work life, which is thought to be improved by a high command of the English language (Coyle, Hood & Marsh 2010: 10). Following Coyle, Hood and Marsh’s division, this is a reactive reason for introducing CLIL, since it responds to current situations and demands.

Another reason for introducing CLIL is the fact that it is often attractive for parents to send their children to schools which offer CLIL due to the “socio-economic advantage” (Coyle, Hood & Marsh 2010: 8) a high proficiency in English promises (Coyle, Hood & Marsh 2010: 5; Ioannou Georgiou 2012: 496). Thus, offering CLIL may strengthen the popularity of a school and can lead to higher student numbers. This would count as a proactive reason for CLIL.

The aims of CLIL have been discussed thoroughly, with the most influential concept (and one of the earliest) being the “4C curriculum” (Coyle 1999). According to Coyle (1999: 53f), every CLIL lesson should contribute to the 4Cs, which are content, culture, communication and cognition. *Content* refers to the content of the specific subject matter which is taught and which should be studied by the students. *Culture* refers to “developing a sense of otherness [and] contrasting different perceptions of events rooted in different cultures“ (Coyle 1999: 54). The aspect of *communication* is related to the widely used approach of communicative language learning, where the ability to communicate with others is foregrounded. *Cognition* refers to the “development of tasks related to thinking skills” (Coyle 1999: 53).

Other researchers describing the aims of CLIL often use different terminology, but the aims as such have a strong resemblance to the 4Cs. For example, Maljers, Marsh and Wolff mention “knowledge of and communicative competence in the FL” (Maljers, Marsh & Wolff 2007: 17), which corresponds to cognition and communication. However, content and culture are not referenced in their description, but instead they list “linguistic ability” (Maljers, Marsh & Wolff 2007: 17) as well as being prepared for the future, especially with regards to the future working life (Maljers, Marsh & Wolff 2007: 17) as aims for CLIL. Maljers, Marsh and Wolff present *communicative competence in the foreign language* and *linguistic ability* as different aims, despite their similarities and overlaps.

Eurydice, a project by the European Union describing the status quo of CLIL in all EU member states, which was published in 2006, states that CLIL can have a positive influence on four different aspects: socio-economic, socio-cultural, linguistic and educational areas (Eurydice 2006: 22). Regarding the socio-economic objectives, CLIL should prepare “pupils for life in a more internationalised society” (Eurydice 2006: 22) and also increase their chances on the job market (Eurydice 2006: 22). Concerning the socio-cultural objectives, it is stated that pupils should learn the “values of tolerance and respect vis-à-vis other cultures” (Eurydice 2006: 22). Moreover, Eurydice claims that CLIL can assist students to develop “language skills which emphasise effective communication, motivating pupils to learn languages by using them for real practical purposes (linguistic objectives)” (Eurydice 2006: 22) as well as “subject-related knowledge and learning ability, stimulating the assimilation of subject matter by means of a different and innovative approach (educational objectives)” (Eurydice 2006: 22). When comparing this definition to the 4Cs by Coyle, it is striking that the socio-cultural aim corresponds to culture, the linguistic aim to communication and educational aims to cognition and content.

## 2.4. Types of CLIL

There have been heated debates regarding the differences of CLIL and other similar concepts, such as immersion or bilingual education (Lasagabaster & Sierra 2010; Somers & Surmont 2011; Bruton 2013; Cenoz, Genese & Gorter 2014). Although there is considerable overlap between these concepts (Dalton-Puffer et al. 2014), a clear terminology would be helpful for numerous people involved in CLIL. Especially



teachers, students and parents who want to inform themselves about this concept would profit from a clearer distinction between CLIL, immersion, communicative language teaching (CLT) and bilingual education (Lasagabaster & Sierra 2010: 368).

This lack of clarification has been discussed by a large number of researchers. Coyle (2007) argues that this flexibility of the term CLIL is both “a strength and a potential weakness” (Coyle 2007: 546), since the flexibility allows for “varied, dynamic and relevant learning environments” (Coyle 2007: 546). She does not explain further how this flexibility might affect CLIL in a negative way, but argues that CLIL “has to demonstrate rigorous theoretical underpinning, substantiated by evidence in terms of learning outcomes and capacity building” (Coyle 2007: 546). This view is shared by Cenoz, Genese and Gorter (2014) who claim that “[c]larification is critical if CLIL is to evolve and improve systematically and if CLIL educators are to benefit from the experiences and knowledge acquired in other educational settings” (2014: 243). Lasagabaster (2015) also criticises the “lack of precision” (2015: 20) and claims that the confusion between CLIL and immersion is very problematic (2015: 20). This has also been observed and criticised by Bruton (2015: 126), who declares that CLIL is too context-sensitive and views this as a pitfall of CLIL.

Ruiz de Zarobe and Cenoz, on the other hand, argue that a clarification of the term CLIL might not be as helpful as one might hope, and that it would be more helpful to “acknowledge the existence of many different approaches to address the integration of content and language in the curriculum” (Ruiz de Zarobe & Cenoz 2015: 91). While a clear definition would be helpful for a high number of people, it has to be acknowledged that CLIL is an umbrella term and since CLIL is not only a theoretical concept, but is widely used in real life, different contexts and cultures play an important role. It would be impossible to exclude real life contexts; therefore, appreciating the chances and challenges these contexts offer is more sensible.

Since not only contexts, but also overlaps with similar concepts cause confusion, the following section will attempt to offer some clarification between these different concepts. However, it has to be acknowledged that the boundaries between some of these concepts are fuzzy. First, immersion will be discussed, followed by CLT. Afterwards, EaA will be considered.

The overlaps between CLIL and immersion have been debated strongly, since these two terms are often used interchangeably. In an attempt to offer a clear-cut distinction between them, Lasagabaster and Sierra (2010) present differences and

similarities. One of the similarities is that both immersion and CLIL are always conducted in a new language, “so that its learning resembles the L1 acquisition process” (Lasagabaster & Sierra 2010: 370). A difference between CLIL and immersion is the language in which these programmes are conducted, because the language of immersion programmes is a local language, while that of CLIL programmes is a foreign language (Lasagabaster & Sierra 2010: 370).

While some parts of Lasagabaster and Sierra’s argumentation are logical and valid, others are contradictory. For example it is stated that immersion programmes exclusively start at an early age; however, in reality, there are numerous CLIL programmes which start from an early age on, too. This contradiction is also noticed by Somers and Surmont (2011), who criticize Lasagabaster and Sierra’s article. Lasagabaster and Sierra claim that immersion teachers use materials aimed at native speakers, while CLIL teachers use “abridged” (Lasagabaster & Sierra 2010: 372) materials. Somers and Surmont then point out that for both programmes a lack of materials altogether has been identified (Somers & Surmont 2011: 114; Cenoz, Genese & Gorter 2014: 253).

It is argued that the goals of immersion and CLIL are different ones, since immersion aims at reaching “an L2 proficiency similar to that of native speakers, whereas CLIL programmes cannot have such a far-reaching objective” (Lasagabaster & Sierra 2010: 372). This is also described by Cenoz, Genese and Gorter, who however argue that this distinction “does not always apply” (2014: 249), since different programmes have different objectives.

As seen with the examples above, the differences and similarities between immersion and CLIL have been discussed at length. The most obvious difference which could be identified is that CLIL is taught in a foreign language, while immersion programmes are usually used in contexts where two official languages co-exist. Thus, immersion students have access to the language of the immersion programme in everyday life, while CLIL students only encounter this language in school.

Another discussion emerged from the concepts Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and CLIL. CLT focuses on the communicative aspect of language learning and proposes the aim that students have “linguistic competence, pragmatic competence, discourse competence, strategic competence, and fluency” (Hedge 2000: 46; original emphasis). The aims proposed by Hedge describe only the linguistic ability of the students, thus it can be observed that the aims of CLIL are wider and include different foci on various aspects.

Bruton states that “idealised CLIL is no different from idealised CLT” (Bruton 2013: 590), while Coyle, Hood and Marsh point out the differences between these two concepts, stating that CLIL is more successful than CLT, since CLT lacks the authenticity CLIL offers (Coyle, Hood & Marsh 2010: 5). However, it can be argued that it is very difficult to compare the success of these two approaches due to their numerous differences. While there are numerous similar aims, CLT can be described as an overall teaching approach, which can be used in every language teaching situation, while CLIL is a program on a different scale.

The next section is going to explain the differences and similarities between EaA and CLIL. EaA is the acronym for *Englisch als Arbeitssprache/Fremdsprache als Arbeitssprache* and was introduced in Austria in the late 1980s/ early 1990s (Hüttner & Rieder-Bünemann 2010: 66). It views “language as a tool that can be employed to teach subject-specific content, by temporarily merging content teaching and language learning” (Mewald 2007: 47). This definition is quite similar to CLIL, and also its aims are very similar, since it aims at:

increasing linguistic ability (in the subject matter as well as generally),  
increasing reflection on the usefulness of the foreign language through using  
it with the subject matter (increasing motivation), better preparation for the  
future, as well as for the professional career and for social changes,  
improving knowledge of and communicative competence in the foreign  
language, and equipping learners with the skills required to cope  
successfully in a foreign language in a variety of workplace-related settings.  
(Eurydice 2005: 3).

Thus, EaA and CLIL are very similar concepts, since both foreground the linguistic ability, socio-economic advantages as well as what Coyle described as communication and cognition (Coyle 1999). Nevertheless, CLIL foregrounds the use of methods and didactics used for language teaching, which is not an aspect of EaA. As mentioned above, EaA was introduced in the late 1980s/ early 1990s and is still widely in use in Austrian secondary technical colleges, the school type where CLIL is now obligatory (see section 2.7).

## 2.5. Advantages and limitations of CLIL

CLIL offers numerous advantages but also limitations, which have been discussed by a high number of researchers. This section offers an overview of the most frequently mentioned benefits and drawbacks of CLIL.

An increased motivation towards language learning of students who take part in CLIL lessons was observed by numerous researchers and plays an important part in the promotion of CLIL (Coyle, Hood & Marsh 2010: 11; Pladevall-Ballester 2015: 56; Mehisto, Marsh & Frigols 2008: 21; Dale & Tanner 2012: 11; Çekrezi 2011: 3822). However, Coyle, Hood and Marsh report that the motivation of students is only increased if they take part in CLIL voluntarily (Coyle, Hood & Marsh 2010: 11). This observation is not shared or mentioned by other researchers, but it has to be acknowledged that so far, most CLIL programmes were based on teachers and students taking part in CLIL voluntarily (Nikula 2015: 17; Llinares & Pastrana 2013: 80; Lorenzo & Rodriguez 2014: 66; Juan-Garau & Jacob 2015: 58).

This rise in motivation could stem from the fact that CLIL gives the foreign language a purpose to be used (Dalton-Puffer & Smit 2007: 8) and increases the authenticity (Ioannou Georgiou 2012: 495; Bruton 2013: 590; Çekrezi 2011: 3822). Students do not discuss invented topics, situations and problems, but they talk about a specific subject. Therefore, communication is necessary and the foreign language is used not only for the sake of using the language itself, but in order to be able to discuss a specific subject matter. A rise in “willingness to communicate in a foreign language” (Pladevall-Ballester 2015: 56), which could be related to the issue of purpose and authenticity, was also observed.

Another advantage of CLIL is that it often invites the teacher to use different methods (Klimova 2012: 573, Çekrezi 2011: 3822f). This can lead to more motivation on the side of the students since the methods are diversified and this caters for a higher number of learner types. Thus, the teacher might be able to reach more students, which has a positive effect on all aspects of learning.

Additionally, CLIL tends to reduce anxiety related to speaking a foreign language, which frequently poses a problem for a high number of students (Dalton-Puffer & Smit 2007: 9). CLIL focuses on meaning over form, which means that fluency is foregrounded. A high number of students who are usually too afraid to contribute to the classroom discussion, since they want to avoid language mistakes, might dare to do so. It is reported that CLIL strengthens the confidence of students in the foreign language (Klimova 2012: 573; European Commission Communication 2003: 8), which coincides with reduced anxiety.

Moreover, CLIL can be very empowering for students, since it is reported that within CLIL lessons, students are more equal to teachers, because the teachers lack the

“repertoire of subtle means to construct and negotiate the teacher-student relationship and its power asymmetries” (Nikula 2010: 105). CLIL teachers lessen the amount of monologues and the students are encouraged to participate more actively (Nikula 2010: 119).

One of the most frequently mentioned concerns about CLIL is whether the content knowledge will be acquired as well if students are taught in a foreign language (Pladevall-Ballester 2015: 56). It is reported that “CLIL students perform as well as or even outperform non-CLIL students in terms of learning content” (Mehisto, Marsh & Frigols 2008: 20). Ruiz de Zarobe emphasises “contradictory results” (Ruiz de Zarobe 2015: 53) regarding the content learning and explains this by pointing out different contexts of the various studies. This was also observed by Dalton-Puffer (2011), who reports numerous studies concerned with content knowledge. While she concluded that outperformance happens rarely, CLIL students nevertheless acquire at least the same amount of content knowledge as students in regular settings (Dalton-Puffer 2011: 188f). However, it has to be considered that so far, there is no universal instrument for measuring content knowledge; therefore, the results have to be considered within their context. All in all, these studies confirm that CLIL does not disadvantage students’ content knowledge.

In addition, a high number of studies report increased language competence of the students who take part in CLIL programmes (Muñoz 2015; Dale & Tanner 2012: 12, Pladevall-Ballester 2015: 56; Ioannou Georgiou 2012: 501, Klimova 2012: 573). Before reporting the results of these numerous studies, it has to be kept in mind that so far, CLIL was voluntary, so it is possible that those students who participated in CLIL lessons were already more confident in their language competence.

The studies suggest that there appears to be some aspects of language competence where this improvement is stronger than in others. Fluency and complexity, as well as writing and listening skills showed a positive development in several studies (Gené-Gil, Juan-Garau & Salazar-Noguera 2015; Perez-Vidal & Roquet 2015; Jexenflicker & Dalton-Puffer 2010; Hüttner & Rieder-Bünemann 2010; Mewald 2007; Zydati 2007). Especially complexity, accuracy and fluency were reported to be improved (Gené-Gil, Juan-Garau & Salazar-Noguera 2015). However, another study showed no significant difference between CLIL and non-CLIL students regarding fluency (Rallo Fabra & Jacob 2015). Other studies report unclear results regarding listening (Prieto-Arranz et al. 2015; Perez-Vidal & Roquet 2015). Moreover, Jexenflicker and Dalton-Puffer (2010) observed

that while some areas of writing improve, for example pragmatic competence and language skills, other areas such as organisation and structure or textual competence showed no advancement (Jexenflicker & Dalton-Puffer 2010: 181f). Additionally, pronunciation was not improved (Rallo-Fabra & Jacob 2015). It was observed that CLIL-students develop lexico-grammatical skills faster than their non-CLIL peers (Juan-Garau, Prieto-Arranz & Salazar-Noguera 2015; Perez-Vidal & Roquet 2015). Also, receptive vocabulary, sentence complexity, affixial inflection and morphosyntax showed improvements (Prieto-Arranz et al. 2015; Jexenflicker & Dalton-Puffer 2010; Mewald 2007; ZydatiB 2007). In addition, CLIL students outperform regular students within oral communication skills (Hüttner & Rieder-Bünemann 2010: 77; Ruiz de Zarobe 2010: 206f). Somewhat surprisingly, also the reading, writing and listening skills in the L1 were reported to be improved (Mehisto, Marsh & Friglos 2008: 20). Less surprising is the increase of the knowledge of subject-related terminology (Klimova 2012: 573), since this is an integral part of every CLIL lesson. Also academic language appears to be improved by CLIL-contexts (Lorenzo & Rodríguez 2014: 70), but the results are not very clear-cut and the researchers recommend longitudinal studies. Moreover, an increase in communication skills was observed frequently (Dale & Tanner 2012: 11; Klimova 2012: 573; Temirova & Westall 2014: 217), which could be caused by the authenticity and purposefulness of CLIL communication. In addition, a rise in cognitive development (Dale & Tanner 2012: 11), “interaction skills” (García Mayo & Lázaro Ibarrola 2015: 48), “intercultural awareness (Dale & Tanner 2012: 13; Klimova 2012: 573, Temirova & Westall 2014: 217) and “transcultural competence” (Juan-Garau & Jacob 2015: 66) was reported. By using a foreign language to communicate content, students become aware of different languages and cultures, a factor which not only increases their socio-cultural competences, but also stimulates cognitive development.

It has to be acknowledged that the majority of these studies were conducted within a very specific context. Therefore, it is difficult to draw generalizations from these studies, because various other contextual factors can influence the results. The results cannot be transferred to another context without caution. However, when numerous studies from divergent backgrounds report similar results, it can be assumed that the outcomes are relevant for different contexts.

Despite the high number of advantages, there are also limitations to CLIL, which will be discussed in the following section. A high number of these drawbacks exist due to a “lack of institutional support” (Pladevall-Ballester 2015: 56; Klimova 2012: 574;

Gierlinger 2007: 81) Most of the drawbacks mentioned below could be turned into advantages if the institutional support rewarded CLIL teachers for their initiative.

One of the most frequently mentioned disadvantages of CLIL is the lack of materials for CLIL teachers (Pladevall-Ballester 2015: 57; Ioannou Georgiou 2012: 500; Klimova 2012: 573; Gierlinger 2007: 81). It can be discouraging for CLIL teachers to be forced to prepare all the materials themselves, which requires an extra effort on side of the teachers. Gierlinger reports that teachers identified this lack of materials as the most discouraging aspect of CLIL (Gierlinger 2007: 93).

A major factor influencing the success of CLIL is the language competence of teachers and students (Coyle, Hood & Marsh 2010: 14). Only a small number of teachers are both language and content experts (Klimova 2012: 574), which can lead to difficulties. Numerous researchers report problems if teachers do not have a high competence of the language in which they teach (Dalton-Puffer, Nikula & Smit 2010: 1, Klimova 2012: 573).

Maljers, Marsh and Wolff focus on the language competences of the students, which, if very low, can form a “barrier” (Maljers, Marsh & Wolff 2007: 21). According to them, this can lead to a decline in understanding and learning. However, this is in contrast to the findings of Mehisto, Marsh and Frigols (2008) and Dalton-Puffer (2011), who report no decline in content knowledge. In addition, Klimova observed that it can cause problems for the teacher if the students have highly mixed competences in the language (Klimova 2012: 573).

Moreover, very few teachers appear to be able to focus both on content and on language equally, with one or the other constantly being foregrounded (Mehisto, Marsh & Frigols 2008: 21). Within the European context, usually the content is foregrounded (Dalton-Puffer, Nikula & Smit 2010: 2). This could weaken the effect CLIL could have on the students.

It is reported that CLIL teachers require more time to prepare CLIL lessons in comparison to regular lessons (Mehisto, Marsh & Frigols 2008: 22), which per se is not a disadvantage. It would be beneficial for the students if the teachers prepared the lessons more thoroughly. However, the added preparation time is in most cases not included in the assigned working hours, leading to an increase in working hours for CLIL teachers without any rewards. This can be highly frustrating for many teachers, who have to decide whether to accept a higher workload, or to teach CLIL lessons without much

preparation. Both options can add to the frustration, since either, the teachers have to work longer hours, or the quality of their lessons will decrease.

Additionally, there is also a need for increased cooperation between teachers, especially between language experts and content experts (Mehisto, Marsh & Frigols 2008: 22). Again, this could be turned into an advantage if the surrounding conditions were appropriate and the added time was appreciated. As with the preparation, the cooperation might quickly be frustrating for both sides if their extra work is not rewarded.

One aspect which is mentioned very frequently is the supposed “elitism” (Cenoz, Genese & Gorter 2014: 250; Bruton 2013: 593; Ioannou Georgiou 2012: 502) associated with CLIL. It is argued that only students who already have a high language competence participate in CLIL classes, or that parents from a high socio-economic background send their children to schools with CLIL strands, increasing their socio-economic advantage. However, numerous studies prove that CLIL is suitable for students of all levels of ability (Mehisto, Marsh & Wolff 2008: 21). The success of CLIL can also be attributed to implied elitism and thus lead to the acceptance of parents and students (Dalton-Puffer, Nikula & Smit 2010: 3). Nevertheless, stakeholders of CLIL should keep this issue in mind and prevent CLIL from becoming an elitist approach to language teaching.

One author who posits a striking amount of disadvantages of CLIL is Bruton (2013). He claims that CLIL students do not acquire the same content knowledge as non-CLIL students (2013: 593), argues that CLIL is very difficult for teachers (2013: 593) and criticises the elitism associated with CLIL (2013: 593). However, his argumentation is often simplified. For example, he states that the new content discussed in CLIL lessons hinders learning, and a “communication based on the familiar, the local and the mundane” (Bruton 2013: 592) would be better suited for learning a foreign language. However, even if discussing a familiar topic might be easier for some students, they could lose interest quickly out of boredom. One of the advantages of CLIL is that it gives a purpose to the foreign language by discussing interesting, relevant subject matters which are taught in school.

Bruton’s simplified argumentation has also been observed by Hüttner and Smit (2014), who criticise several aspects of his propositions. First of all, it is mentioned that Bruton frequently oversimplifies the results of his sources, which leads to misunderstandings (Hüttner & Smit 2014: 161). Moreover, Bruton reports of the danger of CLIL replacing EFL classes – a claim which is highly unlikely in reality, since in most cases CLIL lessons are additional to EFL classes and not a replacement (Hüttner & Smit



2014: 162f; Dalton-Puffer, Nikula & Smit 2010: 1-2). Moreover, Bruton posits that CLIL postulates a “uniform pedagogy” (Hüttner & Smit 2014: 163), which undermines variety and diversity. This again is an unsubstantial claim, since CLIL is an umbrella term which unites various different approaches and pedagogies (Hüttner & Smit 2014: 163f1).

Additionally, Bruton claims that studies often report a high amount of L1 or translanguaging being used by both the students and the teachers, which he views as a disadvantage of CLIL. Translanguaging “refers to a systematic shift from one language to another for specific reasons” (Coyle, Hood & Marsh 2010: 16), and is “a phenomenon found in many monolingual CLIL classes, where learners may respond to a teacher’s L1 question in the L2, use the L1 during group work in an otherwise L2 lesson, or use L1 reading materials to support instruction in the L2” (Ioannou Georgiou 2012: 499). In contrast to Bruton, other researchers foreground the positive aspects of it, since it is a part of the learning process. Lorenzo and Moore refer to it as “positive transfer” (Lorenzo & Moore 2010: 34) and emphasise the productive aspects. It is argued that CLIL is a progress, and while at the beginning it is quite obvious that many students will use their L1, the aim is to lessen the amount of L1 used. This of course cannot happen from one day to the next, so some amount of L1 will always be included in CLIL lessons.

## 2.6. CLIL in Europe

The European Commission has played an integral part in the promotion of CLIL with their goal of every member of the European Union being able to speak at least two foreign languages in addition to their first language (European Commission 1995: 47).

Furthermore, in Eurydice 2006, one of the major EU-publications on CLIL, it is stated that “[t]he promotion of linguistic diversity in education and training has always been an important consideration in planning the successful construction of Europe” (Eurydice 2006: 8), which “may be achieved through a wide variety of approaches, including CLIL type provision.” (Eurydice 2006: 9). CLIL is thought to prepare students more effectively “for the (multi)lingual and cultural requirements of a Europe in which mobility is expanding” (Eurydice 2006: 55). Thus, CLIL is recommended by the European Commission on many grounds.

The reality of how CLIL is conducted in different countries varies strongly. There are no regulations on how CLIL should be conducted, which languages should be used etc., since “schools are largely free to determine the nature and scale of their own CLIL-

based activity” (Eurydice 2006: 27). According to Eurydice 2012, of all European countries, only Luxembourg, Malta and the German-speaking community of Belgium offer CLIL provision in all schools, while in most other European countries, CLIL exists in only some schools (Eurydice 2012: 39). Iceland, Turkey and Greece are the only countries which do not have any CLIL provision at all (Eurydice 2012: 39). Within this document, CLIL is defined as “a form of education provision according to which non-language subjects are taught either through two different languages, or through a single language which is 'foreign' according to the curriculum“ (Eurydice 2012: 39). The three countries where CLIL provision is offered in all schools (Luxembourg, Malta and the German-speaking community of Belgium) all have more than one official state language. The languages used for CLIL within these countries are two state languages (Eurydice 2012: 41). This leads to the assumption that this form of CLIL likely has more resemblance to immersion than CLIL, since this paper argues that the major difference between these two approaches is that CLIL programmes use a language which is not used outside the classroom regularly, in contrast to immersion. When a state language is used for CLIL instead of a foreign language, as is the case in Luxembourg, Malta and the German-speaking community of Belgium, it is likely that the students encounter this language more regularly than foreign languages.

According to Eurydice (2012), the only country where CLIL is partly compulsory, as it is in Austria (see section 2.7), is Italy, where in the last year of upper secondary school, one subject must be taught using a foreign language (Eurydice 2012: 40).

## **2.7. CLIL in Austria**

In Austria, the decision on whether a school provided CLIL widely depended on the individual school and often on individual teachers who took the initiative. The ministry of education is an advocate of CLIL and states that CLIL plays an important part in language education:

Von besonderem Interesse ist neben der Entwicklung der Bildungssprache Deutsch die Einbeziehung der Fremd- und Familiensprachen als Bildungssprachen, was insbesondere für den bilingualen Unterricht und für CLIL (Content Language Integrated Learning) in verschiedenen Sprachen gilt. Die sprachlichen Ressourcen und Erfahrungen der Schülerinnen und Schüler sollen in jedem Fach durch jede Lehrperson gefördert und weiterentwickelt werden. (Bundesministerium für Bildung und Frauen)

This document promotes CLIL in different languages. According to Eurydice, the

languages used for CLIL in Austria are the following: mostly English, French and Italian, but also minority languages such as Slovene, Croatian, Hungarian, Czech, Slovak and Romany (Eurydice 2006: 18). The extent to which the minority languages are offered depends on the location as well as the population.

In 2011, the legal requirements for CLIL provision have changed, since it is now compulsory for technical colleges (HTLs) to have 72 CLIL lessons a year per class for the last three years of school. This was introduced as an addition to the curriculum in Austria:

Als fremdsprachlicher Schwerpunkt sind in einzelnen Pflichtgegenständen (vorzugsweise in fachtheoretischen Pflichtgegenständen, aber auch in allgemein bildenden und fachpraktischen Pflichtgegenständen, ausgenommen jedoch die Pflichtgegenstände „Religion“, „Deutsch“ und „Englisch“) ab dem III. Jahrgang mindestens 72 Unterrichtsstunden pro Jahrgang in Abstimmung mit dem Pflichtgegenstand Englisch in englischer Sprache zu unterrichten. Die Festlegung der Pflichtgegenstände und des Stundenausmaßes in den einzelnen Pflichtgegenständen und Jahrgängen hat durch schulautonome Lehrplanbestimmungen zu erfolgen. (Rechtsvorschrift der Höheren technischen und gewerblichen Lehranstalten: Zusatz II d).

The idea of compulsory CLIL is a very new one, and numerous issues arise from it. Teachers and students do not necessarily participate in CLIL voluntarily anymore, which can influence the success of CLIL, as will be discussed in sections 5.3.5. and 6.6.7. Additionally, research on CLIL so far was conducted when CLIL was voluntary, so the results of this research have to be considered with caution regarding the situation in Austria. Although CLIL is now compulsory in secondary technical schools, every school has the freedom to decide on their own which subjects, teachers etc. will be part of the CLIL lessons. Interestingly, while the ministry of education promotes CLIL in several different languages (Bundesministerium für Bildung und Frauen), the addition to the curriculum only mentions English as the compulsory language for the required 72 hours of CLIL.

There are not many regulations regarding CLIL, with the exception of examinations. Every student has the right to be examined in German, even if the content was taught in English. If the student decides to be examined in English, only the content knowledge, not the language ability is to be considered (HTL-Innovativ). Moreover, some subjects are excluded from CLIL. These subjects are German, English and Religion. If CLIL is taught within those subjects, it does not count towards the compulsory 72 hours (HTL-Innovativ).

Regarding CLIL training in Austria for teachers, there is a high diversity in the offers of the federal lands. PH Wien, PH Niederösterreich and PH Steiermark offer a variety of CLIL courses. However, there is a significant difference between their offers. PH Wien offers a two-semester course called “CLIL for Austrian HTL” (PH Wien1), aimed at HTL teachers who desire to teach CLIL. The requirement to participate in this course is English at B1 level. PH Wien also offers another two-semester course called “DLP - Dual Language Programme; CLIL - Content and Language Integrated Learning in Sekundarstufe 1 und 2 for LehrerInnen in Sekundarstufen 1 und 2“ (PH Wien2). In addition to those longer courses, there are several shorter workshops, seminars and courses on various topics related to CLIL: subject-specific workshops, seminars on CLIL methodology, or courses preparing for the Cambridge Certificate. PH Wien currently offers 23 courses related to CLIL or to language proficiency (PH Wien 3).

PH Niederösterreich offers no courses especially for CLIL, but there are some short seminars and workshops on languages and language skills, such as “Englisch als Arbeitssprache in der Gastronomie” or “Communicative Business English” (PH Nö1). This shortage of courses on CLIL is also apparent in the “Schwerpunktthemen” listed on their homepage (PH Nö2), since CLIL is not mentioned as an important issue for the PH Niederösterreich.

PH Steiermark offers a high number of CLIL courses, some of which are rather general and aimed at all teachers, such as “CLIL-Kurs” (PH Steiermark) or “Einführung in die CLIL – Auffrischung” (PH Steiermark), while others focus on specific subjects, such as music or art (PH Steiermark).

PH Burgenland, PH Tirol and PH Salzburg all offer only one CLIL course, which is aimed at teachers in secondary technical colleges (HTL) or secondary business colleges (HAK). These courses last for one or two semesters (PH Burgenland; PH Tirol; PH Salzburg).

PH Oberösterreich, PH Vorarlberg and PH Kärnten offer no CLIL seminars at all in the years 2015/2016 (PH Oberösterreich; PH Vorarlberg; PH Kärnten).

Some scholars (Çekrezi 2011: 3824) recommend CLIL education on university level. However, when looking at the course register of the University of Vienna, where a high number of future teachers are educated, there is only one course focusing on CLIL, which is conducted within the English department and designed for 25 people. Thus, availability is limited for students at the University of Vienna. This shows that also in future, only few teachers will have learned about CLIL before utilising this approach.

Since a high number of teachers will have to teach CLIL, learning about this concept in university could help prevent various issues (Çekrezi 2011: 3824), as discussed in section 5.3.6. and 6.6.6.

## 2.8. The role of teachers within CLIL

While teachers play an integral part in the implementation of CLIL, in Austria there is no certificate required for a teacher to be allowed to teach CLIL (Eurydice 2006: 41). Nevertheless, there are some requirements which are recommended by Eurydice:

Prospective CLIL teachers should 1) be native speakers of the target language, 2) have completed a course or studied in the target language, 3) be undergoing in-service training on CLIL type provision, and 4) have taken a language test or examination (Eurydice 2006: 44)

In reality, it is rather unlikely that many teachers fulfil all these requirements. In Austria, there are many teachers who study a foreign language and another subject in order to be teachers, but especially in technical colleges, there are many teachers who used to work in a different field beforehand. On the one hand, this limits the chances of meeting teachers who studied both a foreign language and another subject, but on the other hand increases the chance that some teachers have prior experience in working in English.

In other countries, however, some requirements are necessary for teachers to conduct CLIL lessons. These countries are Belgium, France, Czech Republic, Poland, Italy, Portugal, Spain, The Netherlands, Cyprus, Romania, Slovakia and Bulgaria (Eurydice 2012: 95). The additional requirements range from an academic degree in the foreign language (Slovakia) over certificates of the language competence (Belgium, Czech Republic, Poland, Spain, Bulgaria), oral exams (France), participation in courses about CLIL teaching methods (Cyprus, The Netherlands, Romania, Portugal) to a one-year university course (Italy) (Eurydice 2012: 94f).

A high competence in the foreign language is recommended by many scholars, such as Dalton-Puffer et al., who suggest that CLIL teachers should ideally have a C1 competence in the foreign language according to the Common European Framework of References (CEFR), or a minimum level of B2 competence (Dalton-Puffer et al. 2008: 214). Moreover, it is proposed that an entrance exam should be held in addition to on-going seminars and workshops (Dalton-Puffer et al. 2008: 214). Ioannou Georgiou (2012) as well argues for more training for CLIL teachers:

CLIL teachers need to have adequate competence in the CLIL language, training in foreign language teaching as well as in teaching their particular content subject, and an understanding of the CLIL approach and relevant methodology. Lack of training as well as inadequate competence in the CLIL language have been identified as factors that have led to the failure of CLIL programmes. (Ioannou Georgiou 2012: 500)

She argues that insufficiently trained teachers are frequently the reason for failed CLIL-programmes. Mehisto also identifies a “need for qualified teachers that understand CLIL methodology” (Mehisto 2007: 62) and are either native speakers or have a native-speaker like language competence (Mehisto 2007: 68).

CLIL teachers are required to have a high number of competences. It is expected of the CLIL teachers to collaborate with other teachers more frequently, which can also include team-teaching (Çekrezi 2011: 3824). CLIL teachers have to organise different kind of activities and should include various student-centred and interaction activities in order to integrate the students and animate them to talk (Llinares & Pastrana 2013: 89). Moreover, they have to encourage students to use the foreign language for different purposes (Llinares & Pastrana 2013: 89). All this is required of CLIL teachers, and therefore, they would benefit from attending seminars and workshops where they would learn different methods and activities (Çekrezi 2011; Dalton-Puffer et al. 2008; Llinares & Whittaker 2010: 141). Teachers themselves recognise the importance of courses and express a desire to take part in language courses (Gierlinger 2007: 112). However, so far, no entrance exams, obligatory courses or other standards have been realised in Austria.

Teaching CLIL can be very rewarding for the teacher, since it “enlarges their knowledge” (Çekrezi 2011: 3824) and “improves their teaching competences” (Çekrezi 2011: 3824). Thus, also teachers can benefit from teaching CLIL.

There is also some support for CLIL teachers, such as explanations, materials, good practice examples etc. for example in Dale and Tanner (2012), Coyle, Hood and Marsh (2010) or Reynolds (2015). Additionally, the website HTL-Innovativ offers a CLIL library with some ideas on how a CLIL lesson could be conducted and also includes CLIL materials.

## **2.9. Summary of chapter**

In conclusion, CLIL is a highly diverse approach to teaching and learning and various different programmes and concepts can be found under its name. While CLIL has spread with an immense speed through Europe, the reality of CLIL provision differs considerably in various countries. This diversity is intensified due to the similarities of CLIL to similar concepts, such as immersion, which leads to vague terminology causing confusion. CLIL offers various opportunities and advantages; however, there are also some problematic areas incorporated, for example the rather new obligation to teach CLIL in Austria. This compulsion could lead to several issues, such as a decreased motivation of both students and teachers. This paper will discuss how teachers in secondary technical colleges in Austria experience CLIL. The beliefs teachers hold towards CLIL play an integral part; therefore, section three focuses on various aspects of beliefs.

## **3. Beliefs**

This section will describe the concept of beliefs. First, it will be attempted to define beliefs, followed by a brief description of belief formation. Afterwards, several characteristics of beliefs will be discussed. Then, the boundaries between beliefs and other similar concepts, such as cognition, attitude and knowledge, will be considered. Finally, reasons for the importance of the study of beliefs will be offered, followed by a discussion of possibilities how research within this area can be conducted.

### **3.1. What are beliefs?**

Beliefs are a highly complex and complicated concept (Song & Andrews 2009: 202; Dufva 2006 [2003]: 146; Barcelos & Kalaja 2006 [2003]: 233) and have been defined differently by various researchers. Since the mid 1980s, the study of beliefs has played an important part within SLA research (Barcelos & Kalaja 2011: 281; Kalaja 2006 [2003]: 87; Gabillon 2005: 234). In the last twenty years, the focus has shifted from research on the content of beliefs to how these beliefs are constructed and whether they are subject to

change. Moreover, their influence on behaviour, emotions and personality (Kalaja & Barcelos 2013: 282; Ferreira Barcelos & Kalaja 2011: 282) has been investigated.

Simon Borg, an important researcher within the field of beliefs, suggests that beliefs are “propositions individuals consider to be true and which are often tacit, have a strong evaluative and affective component, provide a basis for action, and are resistant to change” (Borg 2011: 370f). In another publication, the “affective quality” (Nespor, 1987: quoted in Borg 2012: 12) of beliefs is underlined, which “implies a role for emotion” (Borg 2012: 12). Beliefs have been described as “interconnected and structured” (Woods 2006 [2003]: 202) and can be implicit or explicit (Xu 2012: 1399). This means that while people are aware of some beliefs, they might be unaware of others. Moreover, beliefs influence “decisions, actions, events and interpretation of events” (Woods 2006 [2003]: 202). Ogan-Bekiroglu and Akkoc (2009) claim that beliefs are deeply personal, stable, rooted in vivid memories of past experiences and lie beyond individual control (Ogan-Bekiroglu & Akkoc 2009: 208). This indicates that people cannot influence their beliefs consciously and intentionally, but that they are out of reach of the conscious area.

### **3.2. Belief Formation**

Beliefs have been argued to be constructed through social interaction (Hogg & Vaughan 2008: 176). Due to the close link to attitudes and knowledge, beliefs are also influenced by these concepts (Hogg & Vaughan 2008: 157), as will be discussed below (see section 3.4).

Regarding teacher beliefs, three different “sources” (Richardson 1996: quoted in Ogan-Bekiroglu & Akkoc 2009: 1174) could be identified. These sources are “(a) personal life experiences that shape a teacher’s worldview, (b) experiences as a student with schooling and instruction, and (c) formal knowledge including pedagogical content knowledge” (Richardson 1996: quoted in Ogan-Bekiroglu & Akkoc 2009: 1174). It is argued that personal experience influences beliefs more than “knowledge of scientific theories” (Dalton-Puffer 2002: 16), so (a) and (b) are considered as more important than (c). Moreover, Xu claims that beliefs influence behaviour more than knowledge (Xu 2012: 1398).

A high number of researchers agree on the shaping influence of prior experiences (Borg 2009: 164; Pena Diaz & Porto Requejo 2008: 152, Hindmann & Wasik 2008: 482; Ogan-Bekiroglu & Akkoc 2009: 1174f). Experiences gathered as a student have a huge



influence on teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning (Borg 2009: 164). According to Ogan-Bekiroglu and Akkoc, these beliefs can be “reshaped by pedagogical content knowledge” (Ogan-Bekiroglu & Akkoc 2009: 1175).

With regards to CLIL, it can be assumed that a majority of teachers do not have any experience with this concept, since the approach only started to become popular in the 1990s. Nevertheless, it could be possible that teachers have experienced similar concepts such as EaA.

### **3.3. Characteristics of beliefs**

Although beliefs are a highly complex and complicated concept occurring in various shapes and forms, several characteristics could be identified. The next section offers an exhaustive overview of these characteristics.

#### **3.3.1. Stability and changeability of beliefs**

The changing of beliefs has been described as “complex and nuanced“ (Kalaja & Barcelos 2013: 286f), and there is an on-going discussion on whether it is possible for beliefs to change. While some scholars, for example Peacock (2001) or Urmston (2003) report stability of beliefs, others, such as MacDonald, Bagder and White (2001), Mattheoudakis (2007) and Busch (2010) observed change in beliefs. Woods argues that beliefs do not change easily, but they can “destabilize and change under certain circumstances” (Woods 2006 [2003]: 226). Alanen states that beliefs are both “stable and variable” (Alanen 2006: 67). The stable part of beliefs refers to beliefs being “(co)constructed in social interactions in specific contexts of activity” (Alanen 2006: 67), while the variable part goes back to the fact that “beliefs are appropriated/internalized and (re)constructed in mediated action to become part of the individual's knowledge reservoir” (Alanen 2006: 67f). Hosenfeld argues that “beliefs change along with the experiences in which they are embedded” (Hosenfeld 2006 [2003]: 39). Woods claims that beliefs are not stable but depend on context and interaction (Woods 2006 [2003]: 202). Reflection is also said to have an influence on the changing of beliefs (Kalaja & Barcelos 2013: 286f). While the research presents divergent views on the aspect of stability and changeability of beliefs, the majority reports of some aspect of change in beliefs. It can be argued that beliefs are shaped by contextual factors, and personal experience appears to be an important factor for the changeability of beliefs.

Beliefs are also characterized as being “fluctuating” (Kalaja & Barcelos 2013: 285), since over the course of short time spans, one person can hold diverse beliefs on the same subject (Kalaja & Barcelos 2013: 285). Moreover, it is argued that beliefs can be both emerging and stable, and emerging beliefs can stabilize over the course of time (Hosenfeld 2006 [2003]: 39). Kalaja claims that beliefs are variable both over the course of time as well as during occasions, thus indicating that even within one action, beliefs can change, and various beliefs can act at the same time (Kalaja 2006 [2003]: 105). Dufva as well claims that beliefs change over time (Dufva 2006 [2003]: 143). This paper recognises the fluctuating aspects of beliefs as well as that they can be subject to change. Since these aspects are debated strongly by researchers, the teachers participating in this study are asked to describe their point of view on this topic, as discussed in sections 5.9.2 and 6.6.8.

### **3.3.2. Connection to other concepts**

Beliefs are “[i]ntrinsically related to other affective constructs such as emotions and self-concepts” (Kalaja & Barcelos 2013: 285), because they can influence beliefs as well as actions. Reflection also has an impact on beliefs, since reflection can alter beliefs (Kalaja & Barcelos 2013: 286). Thus, reflection on a meta-level is highly important and can lead to a change in beliefs. Additionally, “significant others” can have an influence on changing beliefs, forming new beliefs or reinforcing old ones (Kalaja & Barcelos 2013: 286). Moreover, beliefs are connected to identity, external factors and life experience (Barcelos 2006 [2003]: 177; Sakui & Gaies 2006 [2003]: 156) through “evaluative and affective components” (Sakui & Gaies 2006 [2003]: 204). Beliefs are also thought to be affected by “language ideologies” (Kalaja & Barcelos 2013: 285), which are defined as “(1) ideas about the nature of language itself; (2) the values and meanings attached to particular codes; (3) hierarchies of linguistic value; and (4) the way that specific linguistic codes are connected to identities and stances” (De Costa 2011: 349).

### **3.3.3. Action**

A high number of researchers argue that the connection between beliefs and actions is very complex (Kalaja & Barcelos 2013: 286; Woods 2006 [2003]: 226). This relationship is not straightforward and “causal” (Kalaja & Barcelos 2013: 286; Sakui & Gaies 2006 [2003]: 164), but rather dynamic: “it is intrinsically mediated by affordances, one’s interpretations of one’s own actions, emotions, and self-concepts; and it is influenced by

the socio-historical contexts” (Kalaja & Barcelos 2013: 286). Hosenfeld argues that beliefs are strongly connected to actions (Hosenfeld 2006 [2003]: 37). Other researchers observe both a “congruence and divergence” of beliefs and behaviours (Sakui & Gaies 2006 [2003]: 157) and argue that the divergences are influenced by external factors.

Some scholars, such as Stipek, Givven, Salmon and MacGyvers (2001), Skott (2001) or Xu (2012), argue that beliefs influence practice, while others, for example Guskey (1986) or Ruthven (1987) claim that “belief is the result of practice“ (Ogan-Bekiroglu & Akkoc 2009: 1175). Barcelos (2006 [2003]) or Sakui and Gaies (2006 [2003]) argue that the relationship goes on both directions (Barcelos 2006 [2003]: 175; Sakui & Gaies 2006 [2003]: 154), which is described as a “bi-directional relationship” (Sakui & Gaies 2006 [2003]: 154).

Another interesting aspect is the consistency or inconsistency of beliefs concerning actions. As with the discussion on whether beliefs are subject to change, there is little agreement among researchers on this aspect: “While some studies have suggested that teachers’ practices in the classroom were consistent with their theoretical beliefs, others have generated results indicating inconsistency between teachers’ beliefs and practices” (Song & Andrews 2009: 6). It has been suggested that these inconsistencies stem from external factors, such as “the physical environment and administrative duties” of teachers (Ogan-Bekiroglu & Akkoc 2009: 1176).

#### **3.3.4. Constructing beliefs**

It is argued that in the process of encoding beliefs in language, they are not only represented, but also constructed (Kramsch 2006 [2003]: 111). This means that while a person articulates a belief, this belief is formed and established. Thus, beliefs are constructed through the process of articulating them. Dufva also mentions this effect and states that beliefs change as they are articulated (Dufva 2006 [2003]: 143). The awareness which develops during articulation is an influential factor of change (Dufva 2006 [2003]: 143), as will be discussed in sections 5.9.2. and 6.6.8.

#### **3.4. Boundaries to different concepts**

There are numerous overlaps between beliefs and similar concepts, such as cognition, attitudes, perception, knowledge, assumptions and theories (Song & Andrews 2009: 3). The boundaries between these concepts are rather fuzzy than clear-cut, and in some

publications are used interchangeably (eg. Song & Andrews 2009: 4; Dufva 2006 [2003]: 146). This paper will attempt to differentiate between beliefs, cognition, attitudes, knowledge and perception; however, it has to be acknowledged that beliefs cannot be discussed without reference to these concepts, since they are intertwined and influence each other. Nevertheless, since these different terms exist, one can take advantage of this diversity; a deliberate usage of these terms can establish clarity. The following section will briefly introduce those different concepts in order to draw the distinction between them.

Cognition is a widely used term, and language teacher cognition is defined as “what second- or foreign-language teachers think, know and believe” (Borg 2012: 11). When examining this definition, it can be argued that beliefs are a subset of cognition, since cognition is described as a combination of knowledge and beliefs. It is emphasised that cognition interplays with attitudes, emotions, identities and beliefs (Borg 2012: 11), so again there is no clear-cut definition for cognition alone. Despite these confusions regarding terminology, their importance is agreed on by most researchers. Without investigating teachers’ cognition, it would be impossible to understand what and especially why teachers do what they do (Borg 2009: 163). As well as beliefs, cognition is “unobservable” (Borg 2009: 163), since cognition is part of the “teachers’ mental lives” (Borg 2009: 163), which cannot be observed directly. However, there are certain tools and methodologies which allow these cognitions to become explicit (Borg 2009: 167). As with beliefs, a teacher’s cognition is thought to be influenced most strongly by their own prior experience as a student, as well as by practice teaching and early teaching (Borg 2009: 168).

Attitudes are defined as being able to “contribute to knowledge organisation, [...] guide approach and avoidance strategies, [...] supply a cognitive schema” (McKenzie 2010: 24-25) and serve different functions: a utilitarian function, an ego-defensive function and a social identity function (McKenzie 2010: 24-25). The importance of attitudes for second language learning have been widely acknowledged (Bosenius 2009, McKenzie 2010). However, usually only the attitudes of learners are investigated, although the attitudes of teachers play an important part as well. Again, it is pointed out that the attempt to define attitudes is problematic since “the definition of attitude concerns the overlap with other concepts in social psychology such as ,belief’, ,opinion’, ,value’, ,habit’, ,trait’, ,motive’, and ,ideology’”. (McKenzie 2010: 19). In this paper, the term *attitude* refers to the teachers’ overall opinion, viewpoint, feelings and stand on a topic.

Teacher knowledge is defined differently by various researchers. It is understood as “dynamic, situated, and contextualized” (Kalaja & Barcelos 2013: 286) and thought to be shaped through experiences and “reflection on those experiences” (Kalaja & Barcelos 2013: 286). Woods argues that knowledge is a subset of beliefs and also a type of belief where there is more consensus and the least amount of “personal identification” (Woods 2006 [2003]: 205). He emphasises that beliefs and knowledge are different concepts. Knowledge can be divided into linguistic knowledge and world or background knowledge (Woods 2006 [2003]: 204). While this knowledge consists mostly of shared knowledge between various members of the community, beliefs are “non-consensual” (Woods 2006 [2003]: 202), so there is no consensus in beliefs.

It has been debated whether a distinction between knowledge and beliefs is helpful. Pajaraes (1992), on the one hand, argues that beliefs and knowledge should not be confused, since beliefs are “based on evaluation and judgement” (Pajares 1992: 313), while knowledge is an “objective fact” (Pajares 1992: 313). Other researchers argue that beliefs and knowledge are “inextricably intertwined” (Hindmann & Wasik 2008: 480) and therefore, no attempt to distinguish between these two should be made.

In this paper, *knowledge* refers to instances where teachers express their understanding about a topic, for example when they are asked what CLIL is. The term *belief* refers to their own experiences, thoughts, ideas and principles. Of course these beliefs can be based on knowledge, which emphasises the interrelatedness of these topics.

### 3.5. Why study teachers' beliefs?

Beliefs are claimed to influence people's behaviours immensely (Gabillon 2005: 233; Xu 2012: 1397), and research on teachers' beliefs will "ultimately become one of the most valuable psychological constructs for teaching and teacher education" (Johnson, 1994: 439, quoted in Song & Andrews 2009: 3). While this quote is from 1994, the amount of research conducted within the area of beliefs is evidence that this statement is still relevant today. Beliefs function as a frame of what teachers perceive as important and thus influences their way of teaching (Xu 2012: 1398). Within the last thirty years of research, it was discovered that “teaching is a process that involves teachers' thinking, knowledge, judgements and decision making rather than just teachers' behaviour alone” (Song & Andrews 2009: 2). Therefore, the focus moved from behavioural observations to researching the beliefs of teachers.

Moreover, it is argued that “beliefs about SLA will directly impact learners’ attitude, motivation or strategy” (Barcelos 2003/6: 14), which emphasises the importance of beliefs for the learning environment. It is necessary to raise awareness and discuss the influence of beliefs, since “they are at the very basis of the individual teaching methodology” (Yero 2002 in Pena Diaz & Porto Requejo 2008: 152). Teacher beliefs influence teaching behaviour and also “perceptions on one’s own teaching”. (Pena Diaz & Porto Requejo 2008: 152). Regardless of whether beliefs are implicit or explicit, they have a major impact on how teachers act (Xu 2012: 1399).

The importance of teachers’ beliefs is also recognised for teacher training, when it is stated that “teacher education is more likely to impact on what teachers do if it also impacts on their beliefs” (Borg 2011: 370). Therefore, in order to change teachers’ behaviours, first of all teachers’ beliefs have to be changed.

Song & Andrews foreground the “conscious and unconscious thought processes in teachers’ minds” (Song & Andrews 2009: 202) which are involved in beliefs. Moreover, teachers’ beliefs are “deeply personal, rather than universal, and unaffected by persuasion” (Pajares, 1992: 309) and the “personal ways in which a teacher understands classrooms, students, the nature of learning, the teacher’s role in a classroom, and the goals of education” (Kagan 1990: 423) have been emphasised.

### **3.6. How can beliefs be studied?**

The study of beliefs is highly complex, since they “cannot be directly observed or measured but must be inferred from what people say, intend, and do” (Pajares, 1992: 314). Thus, the “unobservable dimension of teaching – teachers’ mental lives” (Borg 2009: 163) is in the focus of this study. However, there are research methods which allow to investigate beliefs, such as “self-report instruments”, “verbal commentaries”, “observation” and “reflective writing” (Borg 2009: 167). While learner beliefs are often researched through questionnaires, teacher beliefs are frequently studied through interviews or observations (Sakui & Gaies 2006 [2003]: 157).

This study will focus on the “verbal commentaries”, which include interviews. This decision will be discussed in detail below (see section 4.2). In the 1980s and early 1990s, quantitative methods were used most frequently in order to assess beliefs (Pena Diaz & Porto Requejo 2008: 153), but already in 1991, Schunk called for the use of qualitative methods in order to gain further insights (Schunk 1991 in Pena Diaz & Porto

Requejo 2008: 153). Nowadays, interviews, especially with open-ended questions, are used most frequently in order to study beliefs (Kalaja & Barcelos 2013: 282).

There are various theoretical frameworks for the study of beliefs. The most frequent ones are social psychology, cognitive psychology or the sociocultural approach (Alanen 2006: 59; Gabillon 2005: 234). For example, Alanen studied learner beliefs from a sociocultural perspective and states that this approach recognizes “the role of beliefs or knowledge as a powerful motivating factor in human activity” (Alanen 2006: 59), but focuses more on the influence this activity has on “self-regulation” (Alanen 2006: 59). Both social psychology and sociocultural theories have in common that the importance of “external factors” (Gabillon 2005: 234), such as influence from the environment, is emphasised.

Advocates of social psychology and socio-cultural approaches argue that beliefs are constructed within the social context and beliefs can only be discussed in reference to this context (Gabbillon 2005: 239). The cognitive approach, on the other hand, does not consider the context to be important, but claims that beliefs are “*well organized schema[s]*” (Gabbillon 2005: 239; original emphasis). Belief formation is thought to be an “individual autonomous act” (Gabbillon 2005: 239). Today, these approaches coexist and both are “justifiable and complementary” (Gabbillon 2005: 239). Instead of opposing these views, the “dual nature of beliefs” (Gabbillon 2005: 239), as including both social and individual aspects, is foregrounded.

This paper, while recognizing the importance of all three theories, foregrounds the significance of contextual influences as proposed by sociocultural theory and social psychology. The social context plays an integral part in every classroom situation; therefore, it is argued that beliefs regarding teaching and learning cannot omit the importance of these contexts. Teaching contexts, such as the situational background, the school, the support etc. have been identified as very important for teachers’ beliefs, for example when it is stated that “the examination of teachers’ beliefs [...] has to be made within the contexts of teachers’ work, and more importantly, with due attention to teachers’ own perception of those concepts” (Song & Andrews 2009: 7). Moreover, it is argued that beliefs are “[r]elated to the micro- and macro-political contexts and discourses” (Kalaja & Barcelos 2013: 285), since they are influenced by political, social and historical factors.

Barcelos groups research on beliefs into three different categories and describes the normative approach, the metacognitive approach and the content approach (Barcelos

2006 [2003]: 11f). The normative approach attempts to classify and describe beliefs. Within this framework, beliefs are viewed as “synonyms for preconceived notions, myths or misconceptions” (Barcelos 2006 [2003]: 11). The focus is mainly on learner beliefs and a distinction is made between productive and unproductive beliefs. While productive beliefs lead to successful learning, unproductive beliefs lead to unsuccessful learning (Barcelos 2006 [2003]: 15). Within this approach, often Likert-scale questionnaires, such as the BALLI by Horwitz are used (Barcelos 2006 [2003]: 11).

The metacognitive approach views beliefs as “metacognitive knowledge” (Barcelos 2006 [2003]: 16). A highly influential researcher within this approach is Wenden, who describes metacognitive knowledge as “theories-in-action” (Wenden 1987: 112) which is both “fallible [...] and interactive” (Barcelos 2006 [2003]: 16). While beliefs are described as a specific kind of knowledge, Wenden still emphasises the difference between these concepts, since knowledge is “factual, objective information, acquired through formal learning” (Barcelos 2006 [2003]: 16), while beliefs are “individual, subjective understandings” (Barcelos 2006 [2003]: 16). The relationship between beliefs and behaviour is argued to be very strong (Barcelos 2006 [2003]: 17). Within this approach, mostly semi-structured interviews and self-reports are used in order to conduct research (Barcelos 2006 [2003]: 17).

The contextual approach does not aim at making generalizations, but emphasises the specific context of each belief (Barcelos 2006 [2003]: 19). Beliefs are described as “contextual, dynamic and social” (Barcelos 2006 [2003]: 20) and are frequently studied through ethnographic classroom observations, diaries, discourse analysis, phnemonographies and case studies (Barcelos 2006 [2003]: 21). Within this framework, contexts are very important since beliefs are shaped by cultural background and social contexts. Beliefs are argued to be “changeable, situationally variable, conflicting and contradictory” (Barcelos 2006 [2003]: 28), and behaviour is connected to beliefs.

While the value and importance of each of these approaches is recognized, this paper mostly corresponds to the contextual approach. As mentioned in the discussion of theoretical frameworks, the context is considered as highly influential on beliefs in this study, which is emphasised by the contextual approach. Nevertheless, also aspects of the other approaches are included. A description of beliefs, as suggested by the normative approach, is attempted, but the beliefs are not classified into productive and unproductive beliefs. Also, this paper distinguishes between beliefs and knowledge (as discussed above, see section 3.4) in accordance to the metacognitive approach and considers the



importance of the relation between beliefs and behaviour; however, beliefs are not viewed as metacognitive knowledge. Thus, this study combines elements of all three approaches, with a stronger focus on the contextual approach.

### **3.7 Summary of chapter**

In conclusion, beliefs are highly complex and linked to various other concepts such as cognition, attitude or knowledge.. However, despite this complexity, several characteristics of beliefs regarding their formation, construction and connection to other concepts can be observed. The importance of beliefs for research has been recognized and several studies focus on them. Moreover, there are various different approaches to the study of beliefs. For this study, interviews are chosen, which will be discussed in the following chapter.

## **4. Methodology**

This section will discuss the method used for this study. Reasons for the decision for a qualitative approach will be offered. Then, the advantages and limitations of qualitative research will be discussed. Moreover, the choice of semi-structured interviews will be argued for. Afterwards, the process of conducting the study will be described, including information on the pilot phase. Finally, qualitative content analysis, the method chosen for analysing the data within this study, will be discussed.

### **4.1. Qualitative research**

Quantitative and qualitative research methods have often been viewed as opposing approaches. Qualitative research has been developed as a response to several issues arising from quantitative data, such as the lack of depth and detail which sometimes is associated with quantitative research (Dörnyei 2007: 36). However, it has to be acknowledged that there are advantages and limitations to both approaches, which will be discussed below. Through triangulation, qualitative and quantitative methods can also be combined (Flick 2011: 39ff).

While a wide range of different research methods can be described as qualitative research, there are some typical characteristics of qualitative studies. Qualitative research focuses on “the participants’ views of the situation being studied” (Dörnyei 2007: 38), and the analysis is to a large extent interpretive, which emphasises the importance of the role of the researcher (Dörnyei 2007: 38). Qualitative research should fulfil several quality criteria such as validity, reliability and researcher integrity (Dörnyei 2007: 54-62; Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2011: 75f).

As with any research method, there are numerous advantages and limitations to qualitative research. For example, the “exploratory nature” (Dörnyei 2007: 39) of qualitative research is a benefit since it allows exploring new areas. Moreover, qualitative research enables researchers to understand highly complex phenomena (Dörnyei 2007: 39), because frequently, *why* questions can be answered (Dörnyei 2007: 40). Qualitative data gives rich and detailed material and can broaden our understanding of a specific situation (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2007: 461; Dörnyei 2007: 40). Additionally, qualitative research enables researchers to be flexible and to adapt their research methods and plans if something unexpected happens (Dörnyei 2007: 40).

On the downside, there are also considerable limitations to qualitative research. Since the workload of analysing qualitative data is enormous, it only allows for a small sample size. Therefore, qualitative data is usually not suitable for generalization (Dörnyei 2007: 41). It has to be considered that the study described in this paper is a case study of individual people and cannot be discussed as a representative sample, so no generalizations can be made. Within qualitative research, the researcher plays an important part, since the analysis is in many cases based on his or her judgement (Dörnyei 2007: 41). Therefore, it has to be ensured that the researcher is not influenced by personal biases (Dörnyei 2007: 41). In addition to this aspect, qualitative research is very “time consuming and labour intensive” (Dörnyei 2007: 42), which can also be seen as a disadvantage.

## 4.2. Interviews

Teacher beliefs are not directly observable and difficult to research; therefore, interviews were used to gain insights into these beliefs (Van Canh 2012: 91).

As with qualitative research in general, interviews also have strengths and weaknesses. Interviews are a “natural and socially acceptable way of collecting

information” (Dörnyei 2007: 143) and most people feel comfortable with it. Other advantages are, for example, flexibility and spontaneity, and they also allow for “multi-sensory channels” (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2007: 350). Moreover, they generate detailed, in-depth material to be analysed (Dörnyei 2007: 143). On the downside, they are time-consuming, open to bias and anonymity might not be ensured (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2007: 350). Additionally, interviews require the interviewer to have excellent communication skills (Dörnyei 2007: 144).

Interview questions should be open ended (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2007: 357; Gläser & Laudel 2012: 131), since this enables flexibility, gives room for detail, helps to establish rapport and also to avoid misunderstandings (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2007: 357). Moreover, the questions should be simple, neutral, clear and ambiguity should be avoided (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2007: 358; Gläser & Laudel 2012: 131-141; Flick 2011: 195).

Research ethics require qualitative researchers to ensure confidentiality and well-being, as well as acknowledging the rights and dignity of each participant (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2007: 362; Flick 2011: 62-65). Moreover, every participant has to consent to the study, and anonymity has to be guaranteed as well (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2007: 362; Flick 2011: 62-65).

In addition to research ethics, practical issues such as power relations have to be addressed as well (Van Canh 2012: 98). Social distance should be as small as possible, and this can be influenced by practicalities such as dressing in an appropriate way (Gläser & Laudel 2012: 167) or matching language style to that of the participants. It is important for the interviewer not to appear as an imposter, and this can be achieved by harmonizing ones own clothes or language to the surroundings. However, at the same time, the researcher should still stay authentic.

While conducting the interview, the interviewer should listen actively, make room for pauses, be flexible, ask for clarification and for details and avoid appearing judgemental (Gläser & Laudel 2012: 173-177).

In one case within this study, two teachers requested to be interviewed together; a request that was granted. While interviewing two people at the same time contains risks, such as only one person giving answers most of the time, it also has advantages. For example, statements of one interview partner can trigger memories and stories from the other (Gläser & Laudel 2012: 168).

### 4.3. Semi-structured interviews

Within this study, a semi-structured interview is used. This type of interview is commonly used in applied linguistics. While semi-structured interviews are structured by guiding questions, the responses are open-ended and there is also room for follow up questions (Dörnyei 2007: 136). Moreover, the sequence of the questions can be altered accordingly. Thus, it is a very flexible, but at the same time also a rather structured research method, which helps obtaining relevant data.

### 4.4. Guiding questions

The guiding questions are influenced by the research questions as well as other studies on CLIL and teacher beliefs; in this case, in particular, by Dalton-Puffer et al. (2008). The complete guiding questions are enclosed in the appendix.

Cluster one (Hintergrund-Informationen) is included because background information offers valuable insights into the context of teacher's beliefs. Moreover, the first questions should be relatively easy to answer in order to ensure that the interviewees feel safe and secure (Dörnyei 2007: 137). The second cluster (Was ist CLIL?) introduces the topic CLIL and offers insights into beliefs and knowledge about this topic. Cluster three (CLIL an der Schule) gives information on the context of the school and external factors. Cluster four (Die Rolle der SchülerInnen) focuses on the role of the pupils. The fifth cluster (Vorbereitung auf CLIL) offers insights into the preparation and courses on CLIL. Cluster six (CLIL-Stunden) focuses on CLIL lessons as such and discusses various issues of it. The last cluster (Einstellungen zu CLIL) summarizes their beliefs on CLIL. At the end of the interview, a final closing question as to whether there is anything the interviewees would like to discuss is asked, which allows the interviewee to "have the final say" (Dörnyei 2007: 138). The guiding questions are enclosed in the appendix.

### 4.5. Pilot study

The guiding questions for the interview were tested in a pilot study with one teacher of the secondary technical college. This teacher will henceforth be referred to as T0. This interview lasted for 31 minutes and afterwards, feedback from T0 was collected. This pilot was conducted in order to identify potential problems and issues with the guiding questions. A special focus was on comprehensibility of the questions, structure and

timing. The timing did not pose any problems, since a length of around 30 minutes was aimed for. Except for one question none caused problems with understanding, so only this one questions was reformulated. The structure of the interview was slightly changed; two clusters were grouped together and the order of the clusters was altered. Moreover, redundant questions were left out.

During the pilot phase, a class observation and a discussion with pupils were conducted. A two-hour CLIL lesson of *Raumgestaltung* (interior design) was observed. Ten pupils were present, four of them male and six female. Of those ten pupils, two exhibited an excellent command of English. Four others did experience some difficulties, but participated in the lesson nevertheless. The remaining four pupils did not participate actively in the classroom activities. The observation focused especially on the use of English and German within the classroom.

Upon entering the classroom, the students started talking in English, but soon switched to German when they were talking to one other. The teacher spoke English through most of the lesson, but switched to German on several occasions. German was used whenever pupils talked to each other or when organizational matters were discussed. Interjections and very short remarks from different pupils, which are typical of classroom discourse, were conducted in German. The pupils were asked to give presentations in English, and it was obvious that for some pupils, the language did not pose a problem. However, there were some who appeared highly uncomfortable speaking English. Some pupils used a German word whenever they could not think of the English one, as in “a good Almhütte”, while others tried to find the right one. Those pupils who switched easily between languages seemed to be more at ease and their fluency appeared to be better. Naturally, the teacher as well as the pupils made mistakes, and pupils often corrected one another. In addition, on occasions when pupils or the teacher did not know a word, others helped with shouting it out. Moreover, whenever a pupil started to speak German to the teacher, the teacher spoke German as well, switching back to English after a few sentences.

When discussing CLIL with the pupils, most reported that they consider it unnecessary. A high number of students experience it as artificial and described it as “putting on an act”. While the pupils think that English is going to be important for their future career, they do not view it as a key competence. Their main issue was the lack of competence many CLIL teachers have in English. The pupils who participated most in the lesson argued that speaking in English is no problem at all, while others reported of

issues arising because of the language forming a barrier. These other pupils participated only rarely in the lesson or not at all.

The students were able to identify advantages and disadvantages of CLIL. They argued that interaction and presentations in English are a good opportunity for learning a language, but also stated that there is very little time for it. They do not appreciate studying the lists of vocabulary which sometimes accompany CLIL lessons. The students also reported that difficult topics are usually discussed in German and some stated that CLIL lessons are more challenging and difficult for them. This appears contradictory, but can be explained by the use of a foreign language in CLIL lessons. For some students, the foreign language appears to form a barrier, which makes CLIL lessons about easy topics more difficult than regular lessons about difficult topics. Thus, some students appear to be challenged by CLIL.

When asked what factors could improve CLIL lessons, the students agreed that the teachers should be proficient in the language and that they need to know technical vocabulary.

#### **4.6. The sample**

The teachers participating in this study teach in a secondary technical college in Lower Austria. The teachers were chosen due to personal connections and the only factor regarding pre-selection was their involvement in CLIL. All in all, eight teachers participated in this study. Five of them are teachers of technical subjects, who did not study education but became teachers later in life. The other three are teachers of general education subjects who studied teacher education. Four of the teachers pursue technical jobs beside teaching. Three of the teachers were female, while five were male. Detailed information on the teachers can be seen in figure one.

No	Date of interview	Participant	Duration	Sex	Subjects	Participation in CLIL seminar
1	20.10.2015	T1	31:48	male	Technical subjects	no
2	20.10.2015	T2	26:08	male	Technical subjects	yes
2	20.10.2015	T3	26:08	male	Technical subjects	no
3	22.10.2015	T4	22:40	female	General education subjects	yes
4	22.10.2015	T5	21:44	male	Technical subjects	yes
5	27.10.2015	T6	24:28	male	General education subjects	no
6	27.10.2015	T7	29:35	female	General education subjects	no
7	02.11.2015	T8	42:08	female	Technical subjects	yes

**Figure 1: Overview of participants**

Figure one shows the dates the interviews were conducted, the duration of each interview as well as the sex of the participants. Information concerning the subjects and the participation in seminars (related to CLIL) are also shown.

#### 4.7. Process of interviews

The interviews were conducted at the technical secondary college, except for one which took place at the architectural office of one of the participants. The interviews were conducted between October 20<sup>th</sup>, 2015 and November 2<sup>nd</sup>, 2015. They usually lasted between 20 and 40 minutes, with the longest interview at 42 minutes and the shortest one at 23 minutes. All the interviews were individual interviews with one teacher, except for one. T2 and T3 asked to be interviewed together, and their request was granted. The interviews were audio-taped and later transcribed.

Before the interviews started, the topic of the research and the purpose of the interviews were briefly described. It was emphasised that there are no right or wrong answers, since their beliefs are the focus of the interview. The participants were assured that the recorded data would be treated strictly confidentially, and would only be used for research purposes. They were assured that this paper refers to the teachers as T1, T2 etc. in order to ensure anonymity.

The interviews were conducted in German, since that was the first language of all the participants and thus more convenient for the teachers. The interviews started off with

background questions in order to ensure a safe and easy beginning for the interviewees. The aim was to create a professional and inviting environment, so that the participants would answer as freely and honestly as possible.

#### 4.8. Process of transcription

When transcribing audiotapes, it has to be considered that the audiotape itself is selective, since it “filters out important contextual factors, neglecting the visual and non-verbal aspects of the interview” (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2007: 365). Thus, only a limited version of the data is available, and this “loss of information” (Dörnyei 2007: 246) has to be considered. This lost data especially refers to “*nonverbal* aspects” (Dörnyei 2007: 246; original emphasis) such as body language and also suprasegmental features, such as stress, intonation, false starts and repetitions (Dörnyei 2007: 247). Transcribed interviews are “*already interpreted* data” (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2007: 367; original emphasis), since the person transcribing has already made decisions on what is included in terms of intonation, pauses etc. Moreover, transcribed data is always “decontextualized” (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2007: 367).

Within this study, all verbal utterances were transcribed, as well as pauses. The different dialects of the participants were mostly translated to standard German, as recommended by Dörnyei (2007: 248). Only in some cases, where the exact wording is important, dialectical words and phrases were transcribed. Since this study is more interested in the content of what the participants said than in the exact language, “linguistic surface phenomena” (Dörnyei 2007: 247) were left out.

#### 4.9. Qualitative data analysis

Analysing qualitative data is always an interpretative process, which has been described as a “reflexive, reactive interaction between the researcher and the decontextualized data” (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2007: 469). It has to be acknowledged that the researcher is not an entirely objective entity, but “brings to the data his or her own preconceptions, interests, biases, preferences, biography, background and agenda” (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2007: 469). Instead of denying or ignoring this, the researcher has to be aware of these influences and reflect on them.



The goal of data analysis is to “move from description to explanation and theory generation” (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2007: 462). Within this process, data selection plays an integral part, since this allows for a clearer focus (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2007: 462). Thus, not every utterance is important for the research, but part of the process of analysing data consists of deciding which statements are relevant for answering the research questions. Within the results, instances where the direct phrasing is interesting and salient, sentences or phrases are quoted directly in order to reflect what was said as exactly as possible (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2007: 462). These are then translated in English as well (the translation can be found in the brackets following the quote).

Cohen, Manion & Morrison (2007) report five different ways to organize data: by groups of people, by individuals, by issues, by research question and by instrument (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2007: 467f). When data is organized by groups, participants are grouped together by “membership of different strata” (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2007: 467); for example primary school teachers and secondary school teachers belong to different groups. Organizing data by groups offers the advantage that patterns emerge easily from the data, which allows for a relatively easy analysis. However, this way of organization also tends to simplify individual answers, since their importance can be lost within the group (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2007: 467). Grouping data by individuals has the advantage that every participant is discussed in detail, but on the downside, in most cases a “second analysis” (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2007: 467) is needed in order to compare individual’s responses. Another possibility is to analyse data by issue, so all the sequences where a specific issue is addressed are grouped together. While this is very economical, again the “integrity and wholeness of each individual can be lost” (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2007: 467) and data can be “decontextualized” (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2007: 467). Organizing data by research question offers many advantages, such as focusing on relevant data for the study, while at the same time acknowledging the integrity and coherence of an individual’s response (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2007: 468). The organization by instrument is used when different methods of data collection were used (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2007: 468).

In this study, the data is analysed by issues, so instances where participants responded to similar topics are grouped together. These issues are connected to the research questions, thus including aspects of grouping by research questions. This approach is chosen due to its advantage of focusing on the main topics relevant for this

research. Moreover, due to the manageable number of eight participants, it is still possible to be true to the context of each interview.

The data of this study is analysed by qualitative content analysis, which originally stems from a quantitative method of analysing written texts, but is now used within qualitative research (Dörnyei 2007: 245). The goal of qualitative content analysis is “reducing or simplifying the data while highlighting special features of certain data segments in order to link them to broader topics or concepts” (Dörnyei 2007: 250).

There are different kinds of content analysis, such as summarizing content analysis, explicit content analysis and structuring content analysis (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2007: 480; Flick 2011: 410-415). Summarizing content analysis aims at reducing the material to “manageable proportions while maintaining fidelity to essential contents” (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2007: 480). This is achieved by paraphrasing relevant parts of the text and eliminating irrelevant ones. Then, similar paraphrases are grouped together (Flick 2011: 410). The goal of explicit content analysis is to explain difficult, complex words and phrases of the text through context-material (Flick 2011: 414:). It “seeks to add in further information in the search for intelligible text analysis and category location” (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2007: 480). Structuring content analysis searches for types or structures within the materials (Flick 2011: 415) and “filters out parts of the text in order to construct a cross-section of the material using specified pre-ordinate criteria” (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2007: 480). Within this paper, the approach of summarizing content analysis was chosen, since it is most appropriate for the purpose of this study. It is highly important to stay true to the statements and arguments of the participants, while at the same time reducing the material in order to reach purposeful results. Moreover, summarizing content analysis fits the approach of grouping respondents by issues as well, since paraphrases relating to similar issues are grouped together.

In order to conduct qualitative content analysis for this study, various steps were considered. First of all, the context of the study, including how the material was gathered, who was involved and when and where the study was conducted, was considered (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2007: 477). Then, the material (ie. the transcripts) was read and reread in order to “obtain a general sense of data” (Dörnyei 2007: 251). Afterwards, the coding was conducted. In order to “be faithful to the data”, the codes were created by rereading and coding the data instead of developing them without the material (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2007: 479). In this stage, some codes were very specific, while

others were rather general (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2007: 479). For instance, one rather general code at the beginning of analysing the data was “advantages of CLIL”, which later was divided into various subgroups. On the other hand, the code “activities used in CLIL lessons” has a rather narrow focus and was not altered in the course of the study. Afterwards, the codes were listed and compared and similar codes were grouped together into broader categories (Dörnyei 2007: 252). It was examined whether the codes still fit to the category. Therefore, some codes were recoded and modified (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2007: 477). As with the codes, the categories used in content analysis “are not predetermined but are derived inductively from the data analysed” (Dörnyei 2007: 245). Afterwards, the categories and codes were then organised and a hierarchy established. A list of final categories and codes is enclosed in the appendix

It is often argued that the frequency of each code should be counted, since “the frequency of words, codes, nodes and categories provides an indication of their significance” (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2007: 481). However, this can be problematic, because if only one person mentions one issue, but at numerous times during the interview, the importance of this issue will appear to be significant for all teachers. Therefore, the frequency alone cannot indicate significance for all participants. Within the results section, the number of teachers who answer to a code will be mentioned for each code in order to stay true to the statements of the participants.

## 5. Results

This section reports the results of the analysis of the interviews. It is roughly structured according to the research questions; so first, the ideas of the teachers of what CLIL is are discussed. Secondly, the organisation of CLIL at the school is considered. This is followed by a discussion of the role of English. Afterwards, the comments and experiences regarding actual CLIL lessons are considered. Then, the advantages as well as the disadvantages of CLIL as perceived by the teachers are reported. This is followed by a discussion of the role of the students, as well as the teachers’ own perception of their

beliefs. Finally, suggestions for improvement for CLIL proposed by the teachers are reported.

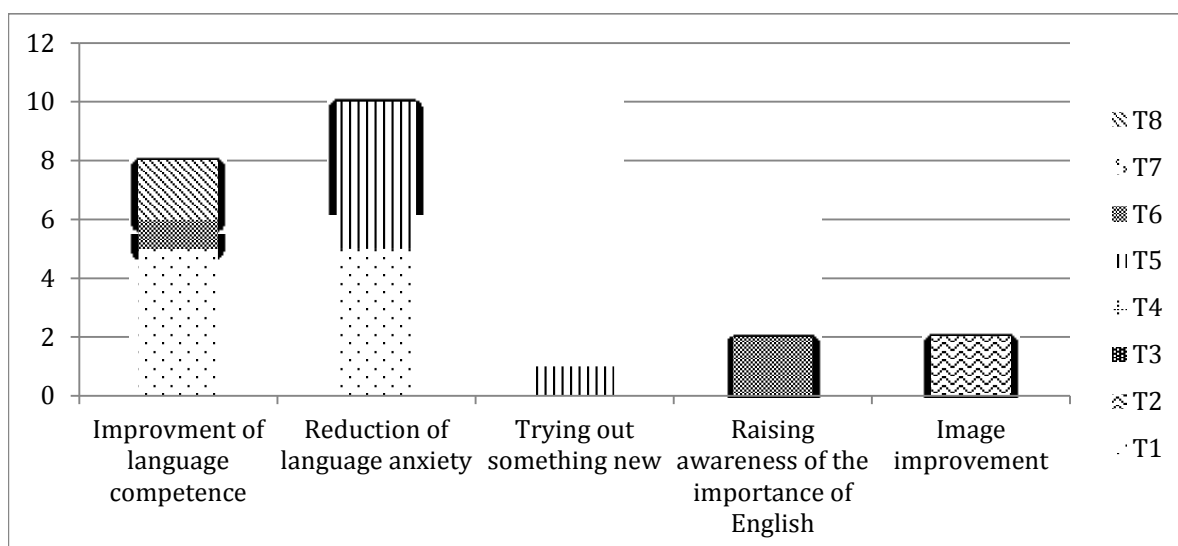
### 5.1. What is CLIL for the teachers

In the interviews, the teachers were asked what their understanding of the concept of CLIL is and what it entails. Interestingly, only three teachers (T2, T4 and T8) answered this question and described their understanding of CLIL; the others avoided answering this question. All of the teachers who answered this question have already attended at least one seminar on CLIL, which could be the reason for these teachers offering an explanation of CLIL. They could either have a better understanding of what the concept of CLIL entails, or they could feel more confident of their understanding of CLIL, since they are aware of some theoretical background. This will be discussed in detail in section 6.6.6.

Two teachers (T2 and T4) mention didactic aims in their description of CLIL. T4 states that she aims to include methodological aspects of language teaching in her CLIL lessons and describes that she tries to teach the content of Geography through worksheets in English (T4: lines 21-24). Another teacher (T8) claims that CLIL is not just teaching in English, but that different methods are used (T8: lines 460-461). On the other hand, T2 argues that CLIL is a less-than-ideal solution decreed by the ministry, which is inefficient. Moreover, he claims that the students do not need English within the subject he teaches (T2: lines 68-69).

### 5.2. The aims of CLIL

The aims of CLIL as proposed by the participants of this study are an integral part of this research. Thus, the following section considers the aims of CLIL identified by the teachers. Five main areas could be identified: *Improvement of the language competence*, *Reduction of language anxiety*, *Trying out something new*, *Raising awareness of the importance of English* and *Image improvement*. The distribution of these categories can be seen in figure two.



**Figure 2: Distribution of aims of CLIL**

Figure two shows the distribution of the aims of CLIL and indicates which aims are particularly important for which teacher. The frequency with which an aim is mentioned by the teachers is indicated as well. For instance, T1 articulates both “*improvement of language competence*” and “*reduction of language anxiety*” in five instances throughout the interview. As can be seen, linguistic aims such as *improving the language competence* or the *reduction of anxiety* are highly important, while the other three aims are only mentioned by one teacher. Interestingly, only five teachers (T1, T2, T5, T6 and T8) name aims of CLIL, while the others do not list any. Of these five teachers, two (T2 and T8) only propose one aim respectively, while T1, T5 and T6 all describe two aims of CLIL. The following sections will discuss these aims in greater detail.

### 5.2.1. Improving language competence

The improvement of the English language is mentioned frequently as an aim of CLIL by three teachers. For example, T8 states that the major aim of CLIL is to improve the language competence of the students (T8: lines 164-165). The teachers who propose this aim (T1, T6 and T8) argue that the improvement of the language competence is linked to an increased amount of output the students produce. They posit that this improves the communicative competence in the foreign language. T1 also argues that it is beneficial for pupils to hold presentations within CLIL lessons and lead short discussions. However, in another context, he argues that it cannot be the aim of CLIL to improve the language competence of the students (T1: lines 227-228).

### 5.2.2. Reduction of language anxiety

T1 and T5 both claim that one aim of CLIL should be to reduce language anxiety. T5 states that his aim is that students are not afraid of answering in English (T5: lines 29-30).

T1 mentions this aspect on several occasions during the interview:

ich glaub es geht wirklich um diese eingangstür dass man in kontakt tritt (T1: line 318; *i think it is about this entrance door that you get in touch with it*);

und wenn man die scheu ablegt dann ein kurzes gespräch in englisch zu führen kann das schon der einstieg sein (T1: lines 296-297; *and when you get rid of the timidity and have a short conversation in English this can already be the beginning*);

darum geht ängste abzubauen (.) also berührungsängste (T1: lines 200-201; *it is about reducing fear (.) so fear of contact*);

nicht erschrocken sein am telefon wenn jemand anruft der eine andere sprache spricht (T1: lines 104-105; *to not be shocked when someone phones and speaks another language*).

At another point during the interview, T1 mentions that he wants to encourage pupils to apply for a position abroad even if they do not speak the language (T1: lines 294-296). He postulates that CLIL could be an opportunity to enforce the self-confidence of pupils regarding their language competence as well as their ability of communicating content in a language they are not entirely proficient in.

### 5.2.3. Trying out something new

T5 views CLIL as an opportunity to integrate creativity and to make the lessons different from regular ones. He claims that CLIL is an opportunity for the teacher to loosen up and postulates that his aim of CLIL is to conduct the lesson differently (T5: lines 30-31). This can be linked to the activities employed during CLIL lessons, which are more student-centred than in regular lessons. This will be discussed in greater detail in section 6.6.3.

### 5.2.4. Raising awareness for the importance of English

T6 argues that the aim of CLIL is raising awareness for the importance of English (T6: lines 52-53). He claims that CLIL can help raise this awareness for the students, since they also learn to view English not only as a subject in school, but as a tool. By experiencing that English is a means of communication in different subjects, the students might acknowledge the importance of the language. (T6: lines 51-52).

### **5.2.5. Image improvement**

T2 considers improvement of the school's image as an aim of CLIL. He argues that the reputation of the language competence of technical secondary college alumni is poor and therefore, technical secondary colleges aim to improve their image regarding languages. This should improve the overall image of technical secondary colleges (T2: lines 130-132). Moreover, this teacher suggests that the competitiveness of students on the job market will increase due to CLIL. He claims that the school prepares students for the economy and that they will be more competitive if they have a good command of the English language (T2: lines 176-178).

## **5.3. Organisation of CLIL within the school**

This section focuses on various aspects associated with the organisation of CLIL at the school. First, the support from the school will be discussed. This will be followed by a presentation of the number of CLIL lessons and the choice of subjects. Afterwards, the cooperation between teachers will be considered, followed by the issue of the obligation to teach CLIL.

### **5.3.1. Support from the school**

Three teachers classify the support from the school as non-existent. T6, T7 and T8 all state that they do not experience any support from the school. T6 says that the only support teachers get with regards to CLIL is access to seminars (T6: line 256). T1 also reports a lack of official information, since no official meetings or conferences introducing or discussing CLIL have taken place (T1: lines 353-355).

### **5.3.2. Choice of subjects**

The choice of which subjects are taught through CLIL lies with the head of department. Three teachers (T1, T4 and T6) state that CLIL is suitable for every subject, and T1 emphasises that every subject where group activities and presentations can be included are suitable for CLIL (T1: lines 175-177). Two teachers (T2 and T3) state that they do not know whether CLIL is suitable for every subject, since they cannot judge its suitability in subjects other than their own. T7 reports that ideally, technical subjects should be CLIL subjects, but since within the department there are two teachers who teach English as well as Geography and History, Geography and History were chosen as well. Thus, practicalities influence the decision which subjects contain CLIL lessons.

### 5.3.3. Amount of CLIL lessons

As proposed by the addition to the curriculum, 72 hours per year should be conducted as CLIL lessons (Rechtsvorschrift der Höheren technischen und gewerblichen Lehranstalten: Zusatz IId). The headmaster or headmistress of each school then can decide how these 72 hours are distributed among the subjects. In the secondary technical college discussed in this study, there are several subjects chosen to be taught as CLIL subjects. Within these subjects, 30% of the lessons must be taught as CLIL lessons. T6 states that within one class, he has to teach seven or nine hours a year as CLIL lessons. He argues that since he only teaches one hour per week in this class, this is a very high percentage of the total amount of lessons (T6: lines 78-79).

### 5.3.4. Cooperation between teachers

The cooperation between teachers is assessed differently by the teachers. Five teachers (T1, T2, T4, T5 and T7) report more collaboration between teachers. T1 states that he knows whom to ask when he is in need of advice (T1: lines 355-356). Moreover, T4 emphasises that the cooperation between teachers of technical subjects and English teachers has increased because of CLIL:

also für die clil stunden auf jeden fall grad in den tandem-stunden oder in geographie wo ich eine englischlehrerin und die kollegin die ist eben keine englischlehrerin das heißt da arbeiten wir sehr stark zusammen (.) grade mit den clil stunden (.) und ich glaube in geschichte ist das ähnlich weil da haben wir auch eine englischlehrerin und eine nicht-englischlehrerin und mit den technikern wie gesagt (T4: lines 129-133; *for clil lessons definitively especially in team-teaching lessons or in geography when i as an English teacher and a colleague who is not an English teacher so we work together very closely (.) especially with clil lessons (.) and i think this is similar in history there is also an English teacher and a non-english teacher and well with the technicians as mentioned*)

T2 and T5 agree with T4's view and argue that due to team-teaching, which frequently happens in CLIL lessons, the teamwork has increased.

However, T4 and T8 both state that the higher cooperation, which often is established through CLIL seminars teachers attend together, is lost in the daily routine of school life (T8: lines 216-218). One teacher (T1) also claims that external factors influence the intensity of the collaboration. He states that time limits and the new curriculum within which CLIL was implemented prevent further teamwork to develop (T1: lines 352-354).



T6 as well as T7 argue that the cooperation is not fully developed yet, but will increase over time. He argues that the collaboration has to evolve and ideally, English teachers should be informed about what happens within a CLIL lesson. Then, the English teachers can take this as a starting point for further instruction (T6: lines 204-206).

### 5.3.5. Obligation of CLIL

Five teachers (T1, T4, T5, T6 and T8) express strong opinions about the fact that CLIL is obligatory. T1 and T6 both are sceptical whether it is sensible for CLIL to be compulsory (T1: line 156; T6: line 110). On the other hand, T1 and T8 both state that they believe that at the beginning, an obligation is necessary for people to become familiar with this concept. They argue that especially at the beginning, one has to be pushed to try out something new (T1: lines 156-157; T8: lines 433-434).

T4, T5 and T8 all express strong opinions about the obligation to teach CLIL, which they view as highly negative. T5 describes the situation as “fatal” (T5) and states:

einer nicht gern englisch mag und das nicht gemacht hat was ich gemacht hab dann ist komplett hirnrissig (.) der ist so weit weg von dem thema und kriegt das verordnet und soll das machen und meinetwegen ist der schon fünf jahre vor der pension und hat nie wirklich englisch gelernt also was soll denn das ? also das ist vollkommen beknackt (T5: lines 73-77; *someone who does not like english and has not done what i have done then it is totally nutty (.) this person is so far from the topic and has to do it and maybe this person has only five years to work until retirement and has never really learned english so what is the point ? that is entirely stupid*)

He focuses on the absurdity of insisting on someone teaching in English who has never learned this language at a high level. Also T4 believes that for many teachers the most problematic area of CLIL is that it is mandatory (T4: lines 199-200). T8 has a strong opinion on this point as well. She argues that forcing people who have not spoken English in many years is not sensible. Moreover, she expresses concern about a colleague who has not spoken English in thirty five years and now has to teach CLIL (T8: lines 393-396).

While two teachers (T1 and T6) tried out CLIL prior to the provision, T5 and T8 both state that they would not conduct any CLIL lessons if it were not compulsory. They argue that time limits and a higher workload make CLIL so exhausting; they would not implement it voluntarily.

### 5.3.6. Preparation for CLIL

Four teachers (T2, T4, T5 and T8) have participated in a seminar focusing on CLIL in order to prepare for this challenge. The other teachers have not attended a seminar so far,

but three of them (T1, T3 and T6) have a seminar scheduled. Two of the teachers who participated report that the seminar was very helpful (T5 and T8). T8 reports that the seminar was great and that without it she would not have understood the concept of CLIL (T8: line 59; lines 54-55). On the other hand, T2 claims that the course was unnecessary (T2: lines 19-20). He argues that they mostly learned pedagogical games and claims that he lacks time to incorporate these in the classroom. Therefore, while he states that the seminars were fun, they did not aid the implementation of CLIL in his lessons. Thus, the perception of the importance of seminars for preparation for CLIL depends on the individual teacher.

## **5.4. The role of English**

In this chapter, two different aspects of the role of English will be discussed. First, the perceived importance of English for the teachers' students will be reported. Afterwards, their judgement on their own language competence will be considered.

### **5.4.1. The importance of English**

Regarding the importance of English for their students, six teachers argue that English will be essential for them. T2, T3, T4, T5, T7 and T8 all consider English highly important for the future working life of their students. T4 states that the pupils will need English, and she also attempts to explain this to the students. She exemplifies this statement by saying that she knows numerous people working in the area the pupils are studying for and all of them need English (T4: lines 88-89). T7 also thinks that her students will need English and states that she thinks many pupils will go abroad either for studying or working and therefore they need a high language competence (T7: lines 39-42).

T8 is convinced that her students will need English in their career. She claims that English provides many opportunities and says she hopes that a majority of her students will find jobs where they will need it. (T8: lines 191-193). T2 and T5, who both work outside of school in addition to teaching, also report that they need English themselves in their job outside of school, which underlines their understanding of the importance of English.

On the other hand, four teachers (T1, T3, T5 and T6) all consider English relatively unimportant for their students. T5 argues that a low level of proficiency in

English is sufficient for the job market. T1 and T3 both reach the conclusion that English rarely is important. T6 argues that only the ‘good’ students will need English and go abroad, while for the majority of the pupils English will not be relevant (T6: lines 159-160).

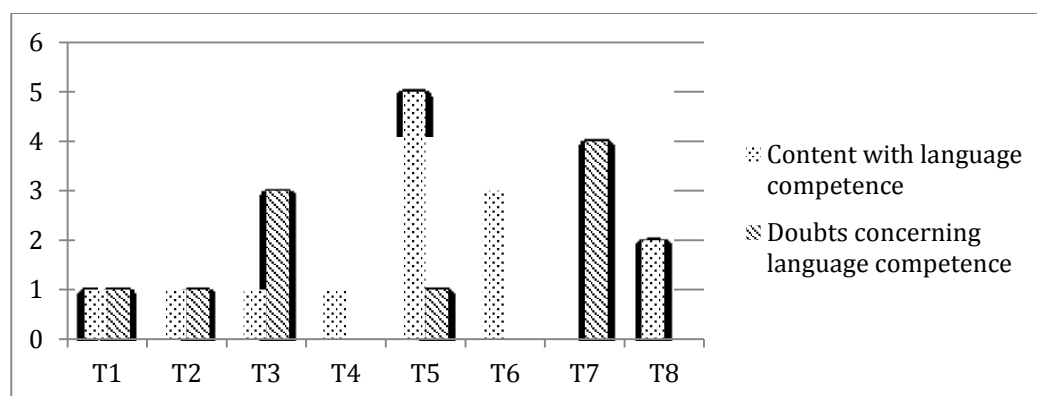
Interestingly, T3 and T5 mention both views, so at one point they argue that English is important for their students, while at the same time they claim that it will not be necessary for them. T5 states that he needs English in his job outside of school, but claims that a low proficiency of English is sufficient. T3 mentions that he was never required to speak English in his job outside of school, but he can imagine that English can be an essential requirement. Both teachers have experienced something very different in their career, which influences their opinion, but they are also aware of different situations, which can be the reason for this apparent contradiction. This inconsistency of beliefs will be discussed in greater detail in section 6.7.

#### 5.4.2. The teachers’ language competence

The language competence of the teachers is highly influential on various issues connected with CLIL. For example, it will be considered whether a link between the teachers’ own language competence and their beliefs about the importance of English exists. Moreover, in section 6.6.1. it will be examined whether the language competence of the teachers is linked to other aspects such as the success of CLIL, the willingness to conduct CLIL lessons and the teachers’ confidence or lack thereof regarding speaking in English to the students.

The teachers were asked to estimate their own language competence and whether they are content with it. This is depicted by figure three.

As demonstrated by figure three, only three teachers (T4, T5, T6) report that they are content with their language competence. Both T4 and T6 are English teachers, and while



**Figure 3: Estimation of language competence**

even some English teachers doubt their language competence, they are likely to be more confident in their language competence than their colleagues who did not study English. T1, T3, T5 and T8 all state that they are very content with their English competence regarding small talk and conversation. T3 says that he is content with the basics of English and that he is able to conduct a conversation in English (T3: lines 149-150). T5 states that he studied in English and frequently uses English, and that he is confident with his level of English (T5: lines 39-43).

Four teachers (T1, T3, T5, T7) express concern regarding their language competence. For example, T1 argues that he does not have a sufficient language competence to conduct CLIL lessons successfully (T1: lines 178-179). Similarly, T3 as well expresses doubt concerning his language competence. He claims that he does not feel competent when teaching CLIL (T3: lines 138-139). While T5 is mostly content with his level of English, he also states that his grammar is not perfect. Moreover, he argues that his vocabulary is limited in comparison to that of English teachers (T5: lines 107-108).

T3 mentions both aspects, since at one point he argues that he is content with his language competence, but at the same time expressed doubt concerning his proficiency. The context of these statements, which appears contradictory at first glance, can offer clarification: he claims that he is content with the basics of English, but expresses doubt about his competence of teaching in English. Holding a conversation in a foreign language is very different from teaching in it, which is an explanation for this apparent contradiction.

On various occasions during the interview, one teacher (T7) indicates that she doubts her language competence:

naja ich hab da kein besonders großes selbstbewusstsein (T7: line 11; *i do not have a high self-confidence concerning this*);  
aber es sind halt gewisse sprachbarrieren (T7: line 13; *but there exist some language barriers*);  
Ich bin ja da nicht kompetent (T7: line 16; *i am not competent*);  
ich eben wusste dass ich in englisch mündlich nicht so gut bin (T7: lines 47-48; *i knew i am not good in English orally*).

These statements describe her insecurities regarding her level of English.

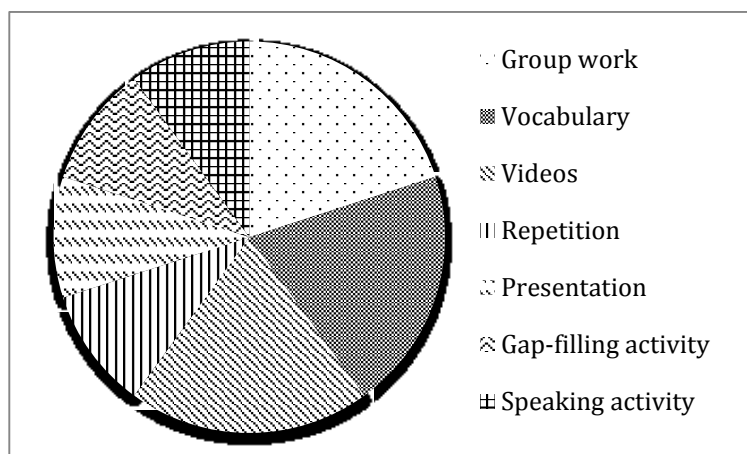
Thus, the language competence appears to be a highly problematic issue for many teachers. This will be discussed in greater detail below (see section 6.6.1.).

## 5.5. The CLIL lesson

Discussing the actual CLIL lesson with teachers, a variety of different issues arise. These include the activities utilized during lessons, the balance of content and language, and the atmosphere of the lessons. It is also discussed whether students should be forced to talk in English. The teachers' experiences and feelings about having to talk in English to the pupils are considered as well. In addition, practical aspects such as grading and the availability of materials are discussed.

### 5.5.1. Activities in CLIL lessons

A variety of activities employed in CLIL lessons is mentioned by the teachers. These activities are depicted in figure four:



**Figure 4: Variety of activities within a CLIL lesson**

Figure four represents the variety and amount of activities employed by CLIL teachers. These activities are mentioned by six teachers (T1, T2, T3, T4, T5 and T8), while two teachers (T6 and T7) do not report of special activities for CLIL classes. This will be discussed further in section 6.6.3. T1 and T8 state that group activities are best suited for CLIL lessons. T8 argues that one has to offer students the opportunity to talk in English in small groups in order to lessen the anxiety they could experience (T8: lines 121-122). T1 also mentions that discussing projects with pupils in small groups works very well. He explains that while three to four pupils are working on a project, he walks around the classroom and discusses the projects with the students (T1: lines 85-86). He also argues that a teacher-centred approach is not suitable for CLIL lessons (T1: line 177). Moreover, he claims that repetitions are suitable for CLIL lessons.

T2 and T3 both like to watch videos and discuss them with the students. This method will be described in detail below (see section 5.6.1.). T5 states that his students frequently have to hold presentations during CLIL lessons, since this decreases his

preparation time and workload for a CLIL lesson. T2 and T4 both include a focus on vocabulary and argue that this has to be integrated in a CLIL lesson. Moreover, T4 attempts to include a high number of gap filling activities, as well as speaking activities. She states that she often has her students describe a visual input, such as a cartoon or a graph, since speaking is an integral part of CLIL lessons (T4: lines 218-220).

### 5.5.2. Balance of content and language

In balancing content and language, the teachers in the study favoured content. Only one teacher (T4) states that she thinks language is an important aspect of a CLIL lesson and also describes a CLIL lesson in Geography as more similar to an English lesson than a Geography lesson (T4: lines 120-121). In stark contrast to this, all the other teachers argue that the major focus should be on the content of the subjects. For example, T7 argues that the pupils should learn the content of the History lesson, and therefore, language learning plays only a minor part (T7: lines 145-146). T1 connects this issue to a general statement about the focus of the school and states the following:

ich bin der meinung dass wir eine technische schule sind die technische inhalte transportiert...wir haben zum glück einen schwerpunkt in gestalterischen fächern da kommt es zum glück nicht auf die sprache drauf an sondern auf den pinselstrich und das sind die hauptinhalte (T1: lines 291-294; *i am of the opinion that this is a technical school focusing on technical contents...luckily we have an emphasis on creative subjects where the brush of the stroke is more important than the language*)

All in all, with the exception of one teacher (T4), the CLIL lessons within this school are more content-driven than language driven, as will be discussed below (see 6.6.4.).

### 5.5.3. The atmosphere of CLIL lessons

The atmosphere of CLIL lessons is evaluated in divergent ways. Five teachers (T1, T2, T4, T5 and T6) state that the atmosphere does not differ from a regular lesson to a CLIL lesson. T1 claims that there is no change in atmosphere. He argues that it does not make a difference whether the project discussion is in English or in German, since within both languages group activities are conducted (T1: lines 322-325). T4 states that with classes who like CLIL, the atmosphere is very similar to regular lessons (T4: lines 106-107). T5 experiences this likewise, because he states that the atmosphere is similar only when the class likes CLIL (T5: lines 210-211).

T4, T7 and T8 all argue that the atmosphere is somehow different, even though it was difficult for them to describe it. T4 argues that with classes who do not like CLIL, the

atmosphere is different, since there is a lack of motivation. She states that it is difficult to motivate the students and that the responses from the pupils are often very limited (T4: lines 107-111). T8 also experiences that the atmosphere is different, and describes this contrast as follows. T8 states that a CLIL lesson is less ordered because the students have to do something themselves instead of listening to the teacher. This disorder is not experienced in a negative way, but is viewed as positive (T8: lines 248-251). She claims that there is much more happening in a CLIL lesson, which is the reason for increased activity. This change in atmosphere can be linked to the activities employed in CLIL lessons (as discussed in section 5.5.1. and 6.6.3.), since an increase in group works and speaking activities leads to a livelier classroom. T8, who observes this more active classroom also states that group work is essential for CLIL lessons.

#### **5.5.4. Forcing students to talk in English**

An important issue for many teachers is whether to insist on students to talk in English within a CLIL lesson or not. T6 and T7 are the only ones who force their pupils to talk in English throughout the lesson. T6 claims that the students' English is good enough for them to talk in English for an hour, while T7 states that she only does short CLIL sequences of roughly ten minutes in lessons, and argues that within this short time frame, everyone has to talk in English.

T1, T2, T3 and T8 all state that they do not force their pupils to talk in English. T1 argues that he does not want to insist on someone to speak English if he or she is experiencing difficulties with the language (T1: lines 224-223). T8 also states that they can fulfil the tasks of a CLIL lesson in German as well (T8: lines 127-128). T2 claims that he does not insist on students talking in English, since he himself would not be able to discuss some problems in English (T2: lines 243-244).

#### **5.5.5. Teachers' feelings about talking in English to the students**

Four teachers (T1, T2, T4 and T6) report that talking English in front of students is unproblematic for them. Two of these four teachers (T4 and T6) are English teachers, who are used to talking in English in front of students. While T1 states that this is not problematic, he qualifies this by saying that it works well when the students are willing to talk in English as well (T1: line 69). He also mentions that especially small talk is unproblematic.

While T5 expresses some insecurity by stating that he feels awkward when talking in English in front of the students (T5: line 107), he claims that he is not scared of it. The awkwardness of the situation is also experienced by T3 and T7, who both state that speaking English in front of pupils is problematic for them. T7 expresses her insecurities by stating that she feels highly insecure (T7: line 69), and T3 also claims that he feels inhibited and self-conscious when speaking English (T3: line 180). T2 has very mixed feelings regarding CLIL: on the one hand he states that talking in English is no problem for him, while on the other hand he claims that he feels uncomfortable and weird (T2: line 174). This discrepancy stems from the difference between talking in English in general, and teaching in English. These are two rather different ways of using a foreign language, while leads to the apparent contradiction.

Being confident while speaking in English could be linked to the perceived language competence of the teachers. T2, T3, T5 and T7 all reported having difficulties when talking English in front of students. Of these four teachers, three (T3, T5 and T7) also express doubt concerning their own language competence. This will be discussed in greater detail in chapter 5.6.2.

#### **5.5.6. Grading**

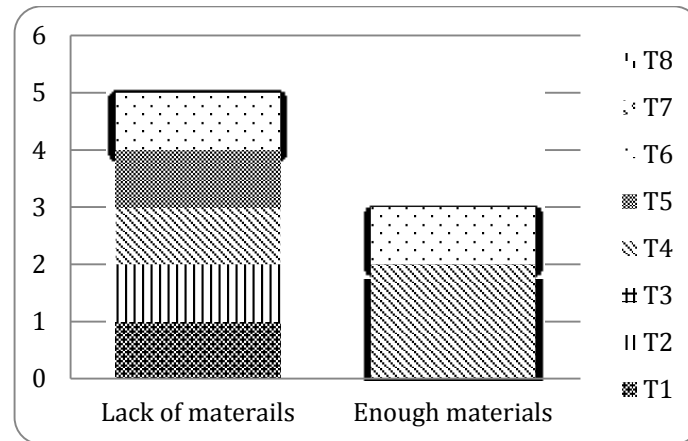
Five teachers (T1, T4, T6, T7, T8) do not view grading as problematic. They all state the grading is not problematic, mostly because the content is usually repeated in another lesson in German. She argues that due to frequent repetition, grading is not difficult at all, since most of the content is addressed in English and in German at some point. She also states that at a test, students can decide whether they want to answer the questions in English or in German (T4: lines 178-184). T6 states that grading is not problematic, since he conducts the whole test in German (T7: lines 122-123). T8 lets the students decide whether to answer questions in English or in German. If students answer in English, they get extra credit, but the level of English is not taken into account. For her, grading does not pose an issue as well (T8: lines 222-225).

One teacher (T5) expresses insecurity regarding grading, since he states that he remembers having heard teachers should offer the tests in English as well as in German, but does not seem sure about this (T5: lines 198-199). He reports that due to time constraints he cannot translate the tests to English, so his tests are in German, and he also questions how one can find the time to write tests in English (T5: lines 199-201).



### 5.5.7. Availability of materials

A lack of materials is identified by five teachers (T1, T2, T4, T5 and T6); however, two teachers (T4 and T6) argue that there are enough materials around. This is represented by figure five.



**Figure 5: Availability of materials**

As shown in figure five, five teachers experience a lack of material, while two other teachers claim that there are enough materials. It is interesting that those teachers who claim that there are enough materials (T4 and T6) identify a lack of materials at the same time. This contradiction can be explained when considering the fact that both T4 and T6 teach a general-education subject (Geography and History) and there is a larger amount of CLIL materials for these subjects than for technical subjects. T4 reports that there are numerous already prepared CLIL materials for her subject (T4: lines 138-139). While both teachers state that for their subject the availability of materials is unproblematic, they both express concern whether their colleagues teaching technical subjects find enough materials for their lessons. T4 and T7 are both convinced that CLIL lessons require different materials than normal lessons. They state that German materials cannot simply be translated, since the requirements are different.

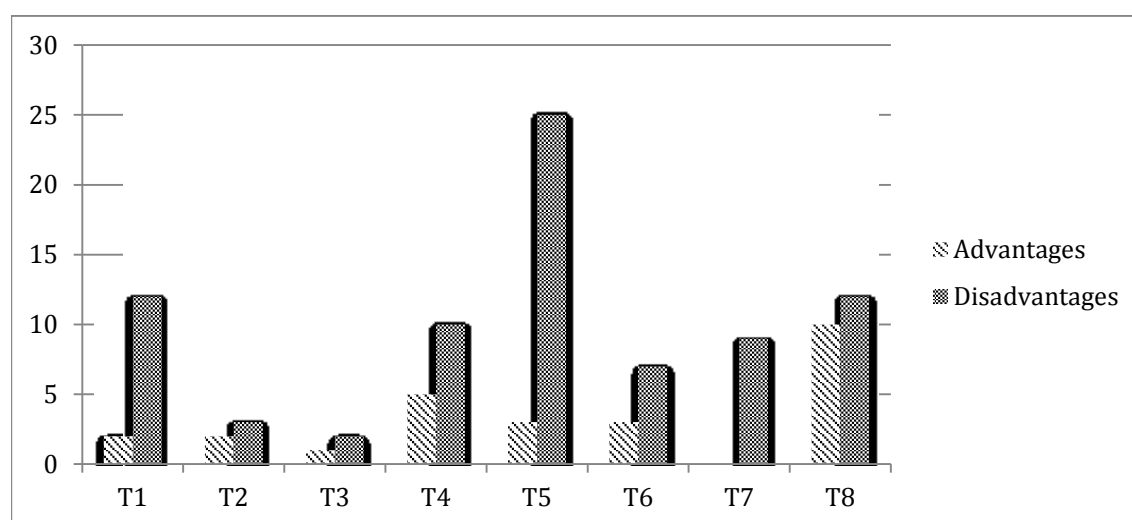
Not all teachers experience this shortage of materials as negative. For example both T1 and T2 argue that this is no problem, since students often bring their own materials (i.e. their projects) and these can be in German as well (T1: lines 239-243).

T5 and T6 both experience the lack of materials as problematic. T6 reports that there is a folder for materials, but that he does not use it and is not sure whether anyone else does, because most teachers do not even know about this folder (T6: lines 240-241). Since no other teacher mentioned this folder, it can be assumed that it is not used frequently. T4 also suggests a material pool for the school. She states that sharing

materials would be useful, but then argues that not everyone would like to share their materials and questions whether this would work in reality (T4: lines 193-196).

## 5.6 Advantages and Disadvantages of CLIL

A high number of advantages and disadvantages is mentioned by the teachers. The distribution of the benefits and downsides of CLIL can be seen in figure six.

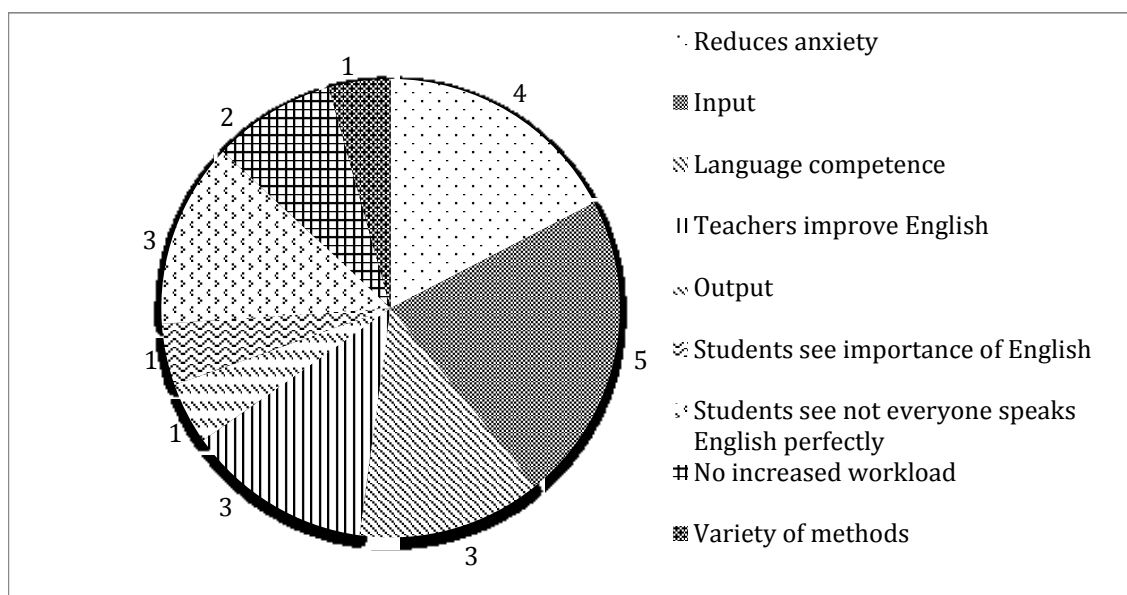


**Figure 6: Advantages and limitations of CLIL**

Figure six demonstrates that significantly more disadvantages than advantages are mentioned in the interviews. Except for T7, all teachers can identify both benefits and limitations to CLIL; however, the ratio leans strongly towards disadvantages. The following sections discuss the advantages and disadvantages proposed by the teachers in detail.

### 5.6.1. Advantages of CLIL

In the course of the interviews, a large number of benefits are proposed by the teachers. This is depicted in figure seven.



**Figure 7: Advantages of CLIL**

Figure seven shows a high number of different advantages proposed by the teachers. While *Variety of methods*, *Students see importance of English* and *Output* are only mentioned once, *No increased workload* is stated twice. *Students see not everyone speaks English perfectly*, *Teachers improve English* and *Language competence* are mentioned three times, followed by *Reduces anxiety* (proposed four times) and *Input* (mentioned five times). The following section will discuss the advantages in order of frequency.

- Reduction of language anxiety

One of the most frequently mentioned advantages of CLIL is that teachers assume it reduces language anxiety for the students. This is stated by three teachers (T1, T2 and T8). They all claim that CLIL helps reducing language anxiety (T1: lines 477-479; T2: lines 83-84; T8: lines 111-112; 125-126). T1 often mentions that students should lose the fear of picking up the phone when a person calls speaking English (T1: lines 565-566). The reduction of language anxiety is also proposed by T1 and T5 as an aim of CLIL, as discussed in section 5.2.2. They argue that CLIL should aid the students to lose the fear of speaking in English and help enhance their self-confidence concerning their language competence.

- Increase of input

Another benefit of CLIL three teachers report is the higher amount of input the students receive. T1, T4 and T8 all claim that the students will profit from the

increased input. T4, an English teacher, states that the pupils only have two hours a week of English lessons, which is not enough. She argues that the students need every extra input they can get (T4: lines 156-159).

- Raising awareness that not everyone is an expert

T4 and T8 also think it is beneficial for students to see that not everyone using English is an expert. T8 claims that it is helpful for the students to experience teachers making mistakes as well. She argues that the students will benefit from seeing the teachers continue with English despite their struggles and also seeing an improvement (T8: lines 111-113). Moreover, it brings awareness to the fact that English is very frequently spoken by non-native speakers, which helps them to grasp the concept of English as a lingua franca:

wenn ich ihnen sag aber das ist genau der punkt ihr macht auch fehler und spricht das auch nicht alle supertoll und ihr seid auch keine natives und ahm und draußen in der welt laufen auch nicht alles nur natives herum dann ist das schon klarer (T8: lines 358-361; *when i tell them that is exactly the point you make mistakes as well and do not speak perfectly and you are no native speakers and in the word there are not only native speakers then they understand*).

T4 postulates the same argument and foregrounds the teachers of technical subjects when stating that the pupils will realize that not everyone can speak English perfectly, especially technicians and engineers (T4: lines 147-148). Thus, while some teachers view the limited language competence of some teachers as a limitation to CLIL, others consider this to be an advantage, as will be discussed in section 6.6.

- Improvement of language competence

T5 and T8 mention that CLIL is beneficial for the students, because they can practice their English and every opportunity for the pupils to use English is valuable (T8: lines 417-418). T4 and T5 view the improvement of the students' language competence as an advantage of CLIL. T4 says that CLIL can only be an advantage for their language competence, while T5 is more critical. He argues that the language competence of pupils will only improve if CLIL lessons are conducted on a high level (T5: lines 93-94).

- Teachers improve English

Next to the students practicing English, T5 and T8 also mention that the teachers can practice and improve their English. T8 describes this as a personal benefit of teaching CLIL: the teachers themselves have an opportunity to practice their language competence (T8: lines 107-108; 125-126). T5 states that it is beneficial to practice English (T5: lines 71-73).

- No increased workload

Only one teacher (T6) views the workload of CLIL as beneficial; he states that CLIL lessons do not require a higher workload. This teacher is an English teacher, so apparently, the language does not form a barrier for him. Interestingly, the other English teacher who was interviewed reports a higher workload, so this aspect appears to be different from one teacher to the next. However, this can be explained due to the fact that T6 states that he does not change his style of teaching or the activities of CLIL lessons (see section 5.5.1.), but conducts the lessons similar to regular lessons, the only change being using English instead of German.

- Output plus language

T2 states that CLIL has the advantage of having the same output (content-wise) as normal lessons, but with the added benefit of practicing a language. He describes a CLIL lesson where they watched a youtube-tutorial about drawing cups, which was narrated by a native speaker. Afterwards, the teacher discussed unfamiliar vocabulary with the students and they then tried to narrate the content of the video in their own words while at the same time drawing the cup. He comes to the conclusion that although they took time to discuss language aspects, the output was the same as it would have been in a German lesson. He claims that the value of such lessons is higher than normal lessons due to the added practice of the English language (T2: lines 182-193).

- Raising awareness of the importance of English

T6 argues that CLIL helps students to acknowledge the importance of English, since they can see that English is important not only in context of English lessons, but also in the real world (T6: lines 166-167). This aspect is linked to section 5.6.1, when

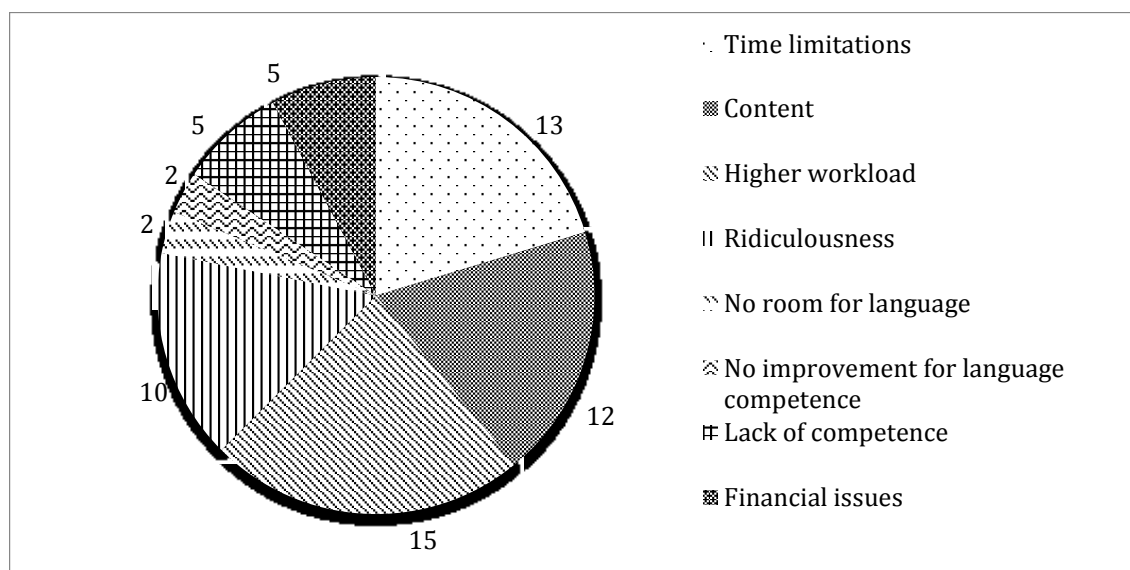
English as a lingua franca is discussed. The students experience that English is not only a language spoken by native speakers or language experts, but also used as a contact language between non-native speakers. This awareness, as well as the realisation that English can be highly importance in the working environment could lead to a rise in motivation on side of the students.

- Variety of methods

Only one teacher (T8) views the variety of methods as an advantage of CLIL. She describes that she learned numerous new teaching methods at CLIL seminars and is very happy to use them. At the same time she states that she hopes to increase her usage of a variety of methods, since so far this is limited due to time limitations.

### 5.6.2. Disadvantages of CLIL

This section reports the disadvantages of CLIL as perceived by the teachers who participated in this study, shown in figure eight.



**Figure 8: Disadvantages of CLIL**

Figure eight demonstrates the distribution of the disadvantages mentioned by the participants of this study. Similar to the advantages, the disadvantages are presented according to frequency of being stated by the teachers.

- Increased workload

The most frequently mentioned disadvantage of CLIL is the higher workload teachers associate with CLIL. All teachers except for T6 report a higher workload, especially regarding preparation time. One English teacher (T4) states that the higher workload stems from helping colleagues with their preparation (T4: lines 173-176). Another teacher (T5) states that he always has to study new vocabulary for the CLIL lesson, which adds to the workload (T5: lines 150-151).

- Time pressure

Another issue concerning CLIL is time. Five teachers (T1, T4, T4, T7, T8) feel that there is not enough time for CLIL to work effectively. T8 describes CLIL as extremely time-consuming and T1 states that he misses the time which is lost because of CLIL (T1: line 388). Moreover, T4, T6 and T8 report their experience that they are slower at conveying content. T4 reports that she repeats the material of every CLIL lesson in the next lesson in German. Due to a high amount of repetition, she states that she is slower when teaching CLIL (T4: lines 151-154). However, while T4 classifies this as a disadvantage of CLIL, this could also be an advantage, since the high amount of repetition could be beneficial for the students' learning process. Also T5 states that in order for the students to benefit from CLIL lessons, he would have to do everything twice (T5: line 165). The use of the conjunctive leads to the impression that he does not repeat everything, which then leads to the assumption that some students might not grasp the entire content of the lessons.

- Concerns about the content

Students not understanding the content of the lessons is a common concern shared by four teachers. T1, T4, T5 and T8 report of their problems to communicate the content. T1 says that it is more difficult to convey content in English (T1: lines 78-79). T4, T6 and T8 fear that especially technical contents might overburden students. T6 claims that complex topics cannot be dealt with in CLIL lessons (T6: lines 188).

Another concern regarding the content was expressed by T5, who reported of a situation where after a CLIL unit about stairs, the students knew the technical terms in English, but did not know them in German (T5: lines 158-163). He claims that he has observed this repeatedly and describes it as absurd.

- Fear of appearing ridiculous

T5 also expresses concerns about teachers appearing ridiculous when teaching CLIL. This worry is expressed nine times during the interview, but is only shared by one other teacher (T3). For T5, the fear of appearing ridiculous is linked to a lack of language competence. He claims that when a teacher is forced to use English but does not have a sufficient language competence, he or she will appear ridiculous (T5: lines 94-97). He argues that authority nowadays is linked to competence (T5: lines 117-119), so when a teacher shows a lack of competence, his authority is undermined (T5: lines 97-99). This is then described as degrading for teachers: "ich finde das wirklich entwürdigend" (T5: lines 272-273; *i think this really is degrading*). The term degrading encompasses the strong anxiety this teacher experiences and the negativity connected with CLIL.

- Financial aspects

Another issue for T5 is money, since he reports that teachers are underpaid and the higher workload due to CLIL is not reflected in the payment (T5: lines 50-53). He states that especially the preparation time is not mirrored in the payment and argues that, as far as the financial aspect is concerned, if CLIL-lessons were not obligatory, he would be stupid to teach CLIL lessons (T5: line 99). This indicates the frustration this teacher experiences in regards to CLIL.

- Lack of language competence

Four teachers (T2, T4, T5 and T6) regard the lack of language competence amongst teachers as a disadvantage. T5 claims that German-speaking teachers are not able to use English correctly, and expresses concern regarding wrong grammar usage (T5: lines 210-212). He expresses his worry about how other teachers can handle CLIL if their command of English is very low. Two of the four teachers who share this concern are teachers of technical subjects (T2, T5) and are very critical of their own language competence. However, with regards to this topic, mostly the concern about the language competence of their colleagues is expressed. The other teachers are English teachers (T4 and T6) who state that the lack of language competence of their colleagues is a disadvantage of CLIL (T4: lines 166-167; T6: lines 197-199).



- No improvement of the language competence

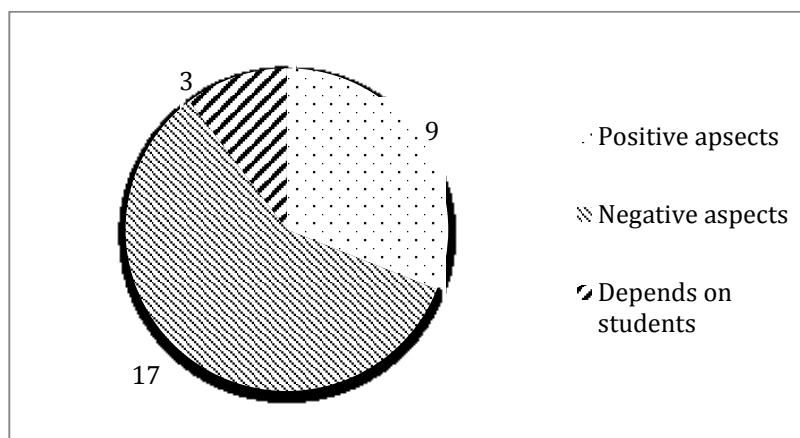
Another concern addresses the benefits of CLIL for the students. Two teachers (T2, T6) express doubt whether CLIL is beneficial for the language competence of students and both come to the conclusion that the language competence of the students will not improve (T2: line 123; T6: lines 181-183).

- No room for language

One teacher (T1) addresses the role of a foreign language in the classroom. He claims that the foreign language is not appropriate within content lessons and argues that there is no room for this language and language learning in general within content lessons (T1: lines 182-183).

### 5.7. The students and CLIL

The students are an integral part of every CLIL lesson. Therefore, the teachers are asked to express their view on how they believe students cope with CLIL. The answers are highly diverse and can be grouped into three groups: *positive aspects related to CLIL*, *negative aspects*, and the fact that *individual students react differently to CLIL*. This is demonstrated by figure nine.



**Figure 9: The influence of CLIL on the students**

Overall, a higher number of negative aspects than positive ones are proposed by the teachers, as can be seen by figure nine. The numbers indicate the frequency with which either a positive aspect (nine times), a negative aspect (17 times) or an instance where the individuality of the students is foregrounded (three times) is mentioned.

### 5.7.1. Positive aspects

The teachers identify various positive aspects connected to CLIL. Four teachers (T3, T4, T5 and T8) think that CLIL is fun for some students. T4 states that some classes like CLIL and are looking forward to it. Moreover, they view CLIL as a welcome change from everyday school life (T4: lines 206-207). T5 also receives positive feedback from the pupils and reports that the students say that CLIL is fun for them (T5: line 89).

T3 observes that the students have a high command of the English language and ascribes this to the use of the internet (T3: lines 249-250). T1 observes that students are not afraid to use English within CLIL lessons. Moreover, this teacher also observes that the students do not experience difficulties conducting small talk in English (T1: lines 347-348).

T1 also considers it beneficial for the students that the teachers of CLIL are not native speakers. He argues that it is easier for students to speak English if the teacher does not speak English perfectly (T1: lines 394-395). One observation is that those students who are better in English participate actively within CLIL lessons (T1: lines 94-95). Thus, it can be hypothesised that pupils who excel in English but might not be that good in the content subject could be encouraged to participate more.

### 5.7.2. Negative aspects

While it is beneficial if students who are good in English participate actively, as described above, both T1 and T2 also observe that at the same time, students who are not proficient in English do not participate as much within CLIL lessons as in regular lessons. T2 claims that there are some students who withdraw entirely during CLIL lessons (T2: line 201). T1 shares a similar observation. He states that especially during group work, it is easy for weak students to withdraw, and that as a teacher one has to be very careful to prevent this (T1: lines 116-119).

A frequent concern is that CLIL might be too difficult for the students. This view is shared by T1, T6 and T7. T1 states that third year students do not have a high enough level of competence in English to understand technical subjects in English (T1: lines 179-180).

Moreover, four teachers (T4, T6, T7 and T8) think many students view CLIL as exhausting and tedious. T4 states that the feedback she receives from the students is that they think CLIL is exhausting (T4: lines 230-231). This opinion is shared by T6, T7 and

T8, who all report that students experience CLIL as tiring. T1 also thinks that the students feel the time pressure teachers are under (T1: lines 598-599).

T4 and T8 both observe that it is weird for the students when someone talks in English who is not comfortable with it (T4: lines 223-224; T8: lines 363-368). Also, T4 states that some students are annoyed if the English teacher conducts a CLIL lesson. She claims that pupils appear to be rather annoyed to have another 'English lesson' again. (T4: lines 64-65).

### **5.7.3. Individuality of students**

T4 and T8 both emphasise that the success of CLIL depends on the individual students. T4 states that if the students have a high competence of English, CLIL works well, but if they struggle with the language, it is added pressure (T4: lines 70-74). She also states that only a part of the student recognizes the importance of English and view CLIL as a challenge. T8 claims that those students who dare to try use the language and have sufficient language competence profit from CLIL. However, for those who already struggle with school in general, CLIL is another difficulty they have to tackle (T8: lines 142-145).

### **5.8. Suggestions for improvement**

When asked for suggestions for improvement, five different ideas emerged. T6 and T8 argue that in order to improve the students' language competence, it would be more helpful to have more English lessons or smaller groups in the lessons instead of CLIL. T1 also suggests encouraging students to stay abroad for a week or completing an internship in an English-speaking country. He argues that this would probably have to be organised by the school and claims that it would be more effective than CLIL (T1: lines 204-206).

T8 states that the students need to be informed better about CLIL. She is under the impression that a high number of pupils experience CLIL as a form of entertainment and states that information about CLIL and its aims would be helpful (T8: lines 382-383).

One teacher (T1) thinks that native speakers would be helpful for CLIL to be more successful (T1: lines 391-392). However, immediately afterwards he states that the level of native speakers might be too difficult for the students, which leads him to the conclusion that it might be beneficial for the pupils to be taught by non-native speakers.

T7 thinks that having more time would increase the success of CLIL (T7: line 158). This teacher also reports a high workload and much added preparation time, which can be very stressful.

T4 mentions financial aspects as a possibility of increasing the success of CLIL. It is argued that the prospect of earning more money could be helpful; however, immediately afterwards it is stated that this will probably not be very efficient (T4: lines 187-189). These suggestions will be discussed in greater detail in section 6.5.

## **5.9. The influence of beliefs**

The way teachers judge their own beliefs is highly interesting for this paper, because beliefs are in the centre of this study. Thus, the following section will focus on the teachers' own evaluation of their beliefs about CLIL on a meta-level. It will be discussed whether the teachers think that these beliefs are subject to change. Moreover, the perceived influence these beliefs have on students will be considered.

### **5.9.1. Teachers' judgement of their beliefs**

The teachers judge their own beliefs on a meta-level very differently. T1, T2, T3 and T4 all describe their attitude towards CLIL as neutral. For example, T3 states that he thinks CLIL is slightly successful and at least not harmful (T3: lines 259-260). However, he is not overly positive about his concept, as are T1, T2 and T4, who all consider themselves neutral.

T5 and T8 both classify themselves as CLIL advocates. T8 expresses a positive attitude towards CLIL throughout the interview, while T5 focuses on the disadvantages and limitations of CLIL and appears rather critical of CLIL. However, here he describes himself as viewing CLIL positively. He compares his view to that of his colleagues and concludes that in contrast to them, his opinion of CLIL is positive (T5: lines 233-234). In the case of T5, his behaviour and statements during the interview does not coincide with his own estimation of his belief. This is highly interesting, since a discrepancy between action and beliefs can be observed. This will be discussed in detail in section 6. 6.8.

T6 and T7 consider their attitude towards CLIL as sceptical. T7 She argues that she has a rather negative attitude towards CLIL, because she thinks that English should be taught by English teachers instead of everyone (T7: lines 166-167). T6 argues that the lack of language competence of many teachers hinders the success of CLIL and claims

that more English lessons or smaller groups would be more beneficial for the students than CLIL (T7: lines 205-209).

### **5.9.2. Change of beliefs**

Regarding whether beliefs are subject to change or not, the opinions of teachers differ. T6 and T7 both estimate that their beliefs have not changed so far and will not change, while T4, T5 and T8 argue that beliefs change constantly and are shaped by experiences. For example, T4 reports that the negative attitude of students has changed her opinion of CLIL as well (T4: lines 230-232). This stability and changeability of beliefs is discussed in chapter 6.6.8.

### **5.9.3. The influence of beliefs on students**

Teachers' views concerning the influence of their beliefs on their pupils is very different. T6 and T7 both think that their beliefs have no influence on their students. T6 states that he does not think his attitude will influence his pupils at all (T6: line 234). On the other hand, T1 and T8 both argue that this influence is enormous. T1 claims that children and teenagers are a mirror of one self, and thus, teachers have an enormous influence on his students (T1: lines 400-401). T8 also thinks similarly. She argues that teachers in general have a huge impact on their students, and therefore, her opinion of CLIL will influence her students (T8: lines 346-347).

## **6. Discussion of findings**

The aim of this study is to investigate teachers' beliefs towards CLIL, as proposed by the research question. Several sub-questions, as presented in the introduction, are articulated:

- 1) What do teachers believe that CLIL is?
- 2) Which aims of CLIL can teachers identify?
- 3) How do teachers believe their students cope with CLIL?
- 4) What do teachers view as the advantages and disadvantages of CLIL?
- 5) How can the implementation of CLIL be improved?

This section discusses the results presented in the previous section and establishes a connection to the research questions and relevant theoretical work. First, the research

questions are answered in order of appearance. Then, several other issues, which arose during the interviews, are discussed. One of the advantages of qualitative research, as mentioned in section 4.1, and described by Dörnyei as the “explanatory nature” of qualitative research (Dörnyei 2007: 39) is that not only the research questions are examined, but various issues not covered through the research questions are discussed. These are discussed in the last section of the discussion.

### 6.1. What is CLIL

One of the research interests of this study is to find out what teachers believe the concept of CLIL is and what it entails. It is highly interesting that only three teachers answered the question on what CLIL is. Two teachers include methodological and didactical elements in their description of CLIL, which corresponds to the description of CLIL by Coyle, Hood and Marsh (2010: 12). CLIL is described as a “dual-focused educational approach in which an **additional language** is used for the learning and teaching of both content *and* language” (Coyle, Hood & Marsh 2010: 1; original emphasis). However, it has to be acknowledged that CLIL is an “umbrella term” (Dalton-Puffer, Nikula & Smit 2010: 2), and various different approaches can be found under its name. Therefore, it is not surprising that the teachers express some degree of confusion or insecurities.

One teacher describes CLIL as an inefficient compromise decreed by the ministry, which is in itself rather a critique of Austrian CLIL policies than a description of CLIL. However, it is highly interesting that the teacher chooses this description instead of not answering the question at all or of repeating what he learned what CLIL should be.

T1 and T3 both already expressed insecurities when asked to participate in the study. Both mentioned that they might be the wrong people to interview since they argue that they do not know much about CLIL and have too little experience. Interestingly, both of them teach CLIL, thus ideally should be informed about this topic. This indicates a lack of information and self-confidence in relation to this topic. T3 also wanted to be interviewed together with another teacher, which can be interpreted as insecurity concerning this topic.

All in all, a lack of knowledge about CLIL as a concept can be observed with the majority of the teachers. Out of the four teachers who have already participated in a CLIL seminar, three answered this question, while all of those who have not yet attended a

seminar did not answer. This indicates that participating in a seminar enlarges the knowledge about a topic and enhances the confidence related to this topic as well.

## 6.2. Aims of CLIL

Another field of interest of this study, as proposed by research question number two, is which aims of CLIL teachers can identify. Five different categories of aims have been described by the teachers participating in this study. These categories are *Improvement of the language competence*, *Reduction of language anxiety*, *Trying out something new*, *Raising awareness of the importance of English* and *Image improvement*. When comparing these categories to the aims proposed by Eurydice (2006) and the 4Cs by Coyle (1999), a strong resemblance can be discovered. Eurydice focuses on socio-economic, educational, linguistic and social-cultural aspects (Eurydice 2006: 22), while Coyle includes cognition, content, communication and culture (Coyle 1999: 53f).

First, a comparison to Coyle's 4Cs is attempted. The aspect of communication corresponds to *Improvement of the language competence* and *Reduction of language anxiety*, since both aspects aim at an improvement of communication. Moreover, it can be argued that also the cultural aspect is included in the aims proposed by the teachers, since the importance of CLIL for raising awareness for the importance of English is mentioned. While the connection between these two aspects is not obvious, raising awareness for the importance of English includes the recognition of English as a lingua franca and its implications. This does not refer explicitly to the cultural aspect in Coyle's sense, but nevertheless adds to the awareness of a relevant cultural aspect. Additionally, cognition, while not referred to it explicitly, is included, when one teacher emphasised the aspect of *trying out something new*. Cognition is stimulated when new experiences are made and the status quo of learning is changed and challenged. The only 'C' not included in the aims of CLIL is content, which can be explained when looking at the balance of language and content (this will be discussed in detail below, see section 6.6.4). For all teachers, content learning is clearly foregrounded. Thus, including learning content as an aim of CLIL might be self-evident for the teachers, which can be the reason for it not being mentioned in this context. Another explanation for content not being mentioned could be that the teachers believe they can teach content better in regular lessons, and therefore do not consider content teaching as an aim for CLIL.

Secondly, the aims proposed by the participants of the study are compared to the aims promoted by Eurydice. Again, a high correlation between the aims can be observed.

Similarly to Coyle's 4Cs', the linguistic aspect is mentioned as the *Improvement of the language competence* and *Reduction of language anxiety*. In addition, the socio-cultural aspect promoted by Eurydice is included as well, as *raising awareness for the importance of English*. Within Eurydice, the socio-economic advantage of CLIL is mentioned, which should increase the students' chances on the job market and prepare "pupils for life in a more internationalised society" (Eurydice 2006: 22). This aspect is covered by the consideration of *Image improvement*. One teacher argues that CLIL not only improves the image of the school, but also increases the competitive ability for students on the job market. The last aim mentioned by Eurydice is an improvement on educational aspects. While at first this aspect appears not to be covered by the aims mentioned by the teachers of this study, a close look at the definition of this aim is helpful. According to Eurydice, the educational aspect aims at "subject-related knowledge and learning ability, stimulating the assimilation of subject matter by means of a different and innovative approach (educational objectives)". Thus, the innovative approach correlates to *trying out something new*.

It is highly interesting that nearly all aims mentioned by Eurydice and Coyle are mentioned by the teachers who participated in this study. This shows that concerning the aims of CLIL, there is a consensus between theoretical approaches and publications and the aims of actual CLIL teachers.

### 6.3. The students

A major research interest of this study is the way teachers believe that CLIL influences the students and how the pupils cope with this approach, as asked by research question number three. Overall, the participants in the study judge the influence CLIL has on the students negatively. The main concern about the pupils is that CLIL might be too challenging for them and that they might be overstrained by the high workload. This view is shared by researchers, for example Maljers et al., who argue that a lack of language competence on side of the students can "form a barrier to understanding and learning" (Maljers et al. 2007: 21), or Klimova, who considers this as a factor which could hinder the success of CLIL (Klimova 2012: 573).

On the other hand, a high number of teachers believe that the language competence of many students is sufficient, and view CLIL as fun for the students. The fun aspect of CLIL is also mentioned by Mehisto et al., who describe "learning through



CLIL to be fun and challenging” (Mehisto et al. 2008: 21) for the students. However, this is limited to “certain students” (Mehisto et al. 2008: 21), so the individuality of students is emphasised.

Only two teachers (T4 and T8) argue that the success of CLIL depends on the individual students. It is stated that the pupils react very differently to CLIL, often correlating with their language competence. Thus, students with a good command of the English language view CLIL more positively than those who already struggle with the language.

#### 6.4. Advantages and disadvantages of CLIL

Research question four focuses on the advantages and disadvantages teachers postulate in relation to CLIL. First, the advantages associated with CLIL will be discussed, followed by the disadvantages. The advantages mentioned by the teachers of the study are numerous. These advantages include a *reduction of language anxiety, increased input and output, raising awareness that not everyone is an expert of English, improvement of language competence, no increased workload, raising awareness of the importance of English and a variety of methods*. Some of these correspond to the advantages of CLIL mentioned by various researchers. For example, a reduction of anxiety is also reported by Dalton-Puffer and Smit (2007: 9), Klimova (2012: 573) and Dalton-Puffer et al. (2008: 74).

The improvement of language competence is also proposed as an advantage, as observed by a high number of researchers (Muñoz 2015; Dale & Tanner 2012: 12, Pladevall-Ballester 2015: 56; Ioannou Georgiou 2012: 501, Klimova 2012: 573).

Next to the language competence, a variety of methods is also identified as an advantage of CLIL, as proposed by Klimova (2012: 573) and Çekrezi (2011: 3822f).

The aspect of teachers improving their own language competence is also reported by Dalton-Puffer (2008: 79) and Hüttner, Dalton-Puffer and Smit (2013: 276). It is emphasised that this view is only expressed by content teachers and not English teachers (Hüttner, Dalton-Puffer & Smit 2013: 276), which is in accordance with the findings of this study.

Some advantages which are proposed by researchers, such as the aspect of CLIL being fun for the teachers (Dalton-Puffer et al. 2008: 84f) are not mentioned by the participants of this study. Similarly, an improvement of communication skills (Dale &

Tanner 2012: 11; Klimova 2012: 573; Temirova & Westall 2014: 217) and the empowerment CLIL can entail for students (Nikula 2010: 105) is not stated explicitly. However, better language skills, as mentioned by the teachers of this study, can also include improved communication skills. Also, the reduction of language anxiety can lead to a feeling of empowerment for the students.

A rise of authenticity due to the language being used purposefully, as reported by Dalton-Puffer and Smit (2007: 8), Ioannou Georgiou (2012: 495), Bruton (2013: 590) and Çekrezi (2011: 3822) is not reported directly. However, since CLIL prepares students for using English in their future working life, the increase in authenticity is implied.

Another interesting aspect is motivation. While numerous researchers argue that CLIL leads to a rise in motivation for many students (Coyle, Hood & Marsh 2010: 11; Pladevall-Ballester 2015: 56; Mehisto, Marsh & Frigols 2008: 21; Dale & Tanner 2012: 11; Çekrezi 2011: 3822), this is not mentioned by the teachers of this study. While the study by Dalton-Puffer et al. reports mixed results regarding motivation (2008: 71), the majority of participants identified a rise in motivation in the long term. Within the study of this paper, rather a lack of motivation on the part of the students is observed by T4, T7 and T8. Here, the factor of voluntariness can play an important part. Until recently, most CLIL programmes were based on voluntariness and schools and teachers could decide whether to conduct CLIL lessons. Also, students could decide whether they wanted to attend a school with a CLIL strand, which would then also be their own choice. Now, teachers as well as students are obliged to participate in CLIL lessons and this could lead to a decline of motivation on both sides. This is also observed by Coyle, Hood and Marsh (2010: 11) who argue that the motivation in students only rises if they participate in CLIL voluntarily.

The teachers proposed a higher number of disadvantages than advantages, as discussed in section 5.6. The disadvantages mentioned are an *increased workload, time pressure, concerns regarding the content, the fear of appearing ridiculous, financial aspects, a lack of language competence* and *concerns about colleagues*.

One interesting aspect is that one teacher claims that CLIL does not improve the language competence of their students. This observation is shared by the participants of the 2008 study by Dalton-Puffer et al., who report that only a minimal improvement can be observed (Dalton-Puffer et al. 200:73). Interestingly, three other teachers (T4, T5 and T8) argue that the improvement of language competence of the pupils is an advantage of CLIL. Thus, within this context, the beliefs of teachers are diverse.

The teachers view their own lack of language competence as a disadvantage of CLIL. Various researchers (Coyle, Hood & Marsh 2010: 14; Dalton-Puffer, Nikula & Smit 2010: 1, Klimova 2012: 573) argue that language competence or lack thereof is a major factor influencing the success of CLIL. Also teachers in Dalton-Puffer et al.'s study express doubts regarding their language competence (Dalton-Puffer et al. 2008: 80).

A major concern for the participants of this study is whether students learn the content knowledge equally well within CLIL lessons. This is in contrast to the findings of Dalton-Puffer et al., where the majority of participants do not believe that content learning is affected negatively by CLIL (Dalton-Puffer 2008: 73). Interestingly, a high number of researchers (Mehisto, Marsh & Frigols 2008: 20; Ruiz de Zarobe 2015: 53) report that content learning can advance through CLIL lessons. While these findings are somewhat controversial, it has been argued that at least CLIL does not prevent content learning (Dalton-Puffer 2011: 188f). In numerous studies (Mehisto, Marsh & Frigols 2008: 20; Ruiz de Zarobe 2015: 53) it was observed that CLIL students either outperform non-CLIL students or that there is no significant difference in content-knowledge.

Some of the disadvantages proposed by the participants of the study, for example financial aspects, time limitations or a higher workload, can be ascribed to a "lack of institutional support" (Pladevall-Ballester 2015: 56; Klimova 2012: 574; Gierlinger 2007: 81). The higher workload was also reported by the participants of the 2008 study (Dalton-Puffer et al. 2008: 85). These limitations amount to more than half of the overall disadvantages. If the higher workload were acknowledged and rewarded, some teachers would develop a more positive attitude towards CLIL. One way of appreciating the increased work CLIL teachers have would be to appoint more 'credits' to CLIL lessons, so that teachers have to conduct fewer lessons overall, which would also solve the issue of time limitations. However, it is highly unlikely for this to happen.

## **6.5. Suggestions for improvement**

As represented by research question number five, one focus of this study is the suggestions for improvement the teachers propose. Interestingly, three of the eight teachers interviewed for this study do not articulate ideas for improvement of CLIL, but focus on activities and changes which could take place instead of CLIL. Two of them claim that more English lessons and smaller groups within those lessons would be more beneficial than CLIL. Another teacher proposes going abroad or completing an internship

instead of CLIL. It could be hypothesised that the teachers who propose ideas which intend to replace CLIL have a rather negative attitude towards it. However, this does not prove to be true, since only one of these teachers estimates himself sceptical towards CLIL, while the others judge themselves as positive and neutral respectively.

The other teachers recommend some aspects to improve CLIL. Two of the suggestions (more time and financial support) are clearly linked to external factors, which is also identified by various researchers as an important factor influencing the success of CLIL (Klimova 2012: 573f; Mehisto et al. 2008: 22).

The use of native speakers is suggested by one teacher. This idea is shared by the European Commission, who claims that the “introduction of CLIL approaches into an institution can be facilitated by the presence of trained teachers who are native speakers of the vehicular language” (European Commission Communication 2003: 8). However, the teacher then argues that the fact that non-natives teach CLIL can be an advantage as well, since the language level of a native speaker could be too challenging for the students. Moreover, it can be argued that the lack of availability of native speakers helps to raise awareness that not everybody speaks English perfectly, as discussed in section 5.6.1.

One teacher proposes the idea that students should be better informed about CLIL and its aims. This could be very helpful, and further research focusing on learners’ beliefs and knowledge about CLIL is recommended.

## **6.6 Issues associated with CLIL**

Several different issues arose during the interviews, which appeared important for the participants of the study. These will be discussed in the following sections. These issues are not stated explicitly in the research questions, but have an influence on the overall question of what beliefs teachers have towards CLIL.

### **6.6.1. Language competence of the teachers**

A high number of researchers view the language competence of teachers as a key competence for the success of CLIL (Coyle, Hood & Marsh 2010: 14; Dalton-Puffer, Nikula & Smit 2010: 1; Klimova 2012: 574). Dalton-Puffer, Nikula and Smit (2010: 1) and Klimova (2012: 573) argue that a lack of language competence can lead to a high number of problems. Eurydice (2006: 44) states that CLIL teachers should ideally be

native speakers of the foreign language, have studied the language and also taken a CLIL course and a language test before teaching CLIL. Ioannou Georgiou also argues that a “[l]ack of training as well as inadequate competence in the CLIL language have been identified as factors that have led to the failure of CLIL programmes” (Ioannou Georgiou 2012: 500). Thus, the importance of a high language competence can be considered as a salient factor for the success of CLIL.

Nevertheless, these requirements prove to be highly unrealistic when comparing the idealised description with the situation at the secondary technical college in Lower Austria. Only four teachers express either concern or doubt about their language competence, while most teachers say they feel both. The two language teachers of English (T4 and T6) both are content with their command of English, which is not surprising. T7 expresses a high amount of doubt throughout the interview. During the interview, T1, T2, T3 and T5 mention both confidence in and doubt about their language competence. It can be concluded that the language competence of the teachers is highly varied. Also, it has to be considered that not the actual language competence was examined, but only the teachers’ own estimation concerning their language competence. Evidently, the actual language competence can differ from the evaluation of the teachers, since some people might judge their level of English as higher or lower than it actually is.

In the pilot phase, the students claim that the lack of language competence of the teachers is a major issue. They argue that CLIL is absurd or counterproductive if the teachers do not have a good command of the English language. In accordance to the observation of the students, numerous teachers identify insufficient competency in English as a disadvantage of CLIL. These teachers argue that low competency in English leads to inhibition and problems for teachers when they have to speak English to the pupils.

When comparing the estimated language competence of the teachers with their view on the importance of CLIL, no connection can be observed. In other words, the language competence of the teachers does not mirror their attitude towards the importance of the English language. The teachers who are rather inconsistent in judging their own language competence, expressing both content and doubt, also state that English is highly important while at the same time questioning its importance for their pupils. Only two teachers (T4 and T8) both are content with their language competence and argue that English will be highly important, while two other teachers (T6 and T7) assert something different. T6 has an excellent command of English, but believes that the

language will not play an important part in the future career of his students. While T7 is highly insecure about her language competence, she emphasises the importance of the role of English for her pupils.

#### **6.6.2. Cooperation between teachers**

Theoretically, the cooperation between teachers should increase due to the implementation of CLIL. It is argued that especially content experts and language experts have to work together more closely (Mehisto, Marsh & Frigols 2008: 22). At the technical secondary college, an increased cooperation is observed by five teachers (T1, T2, T4, T5 and T7). Some teachers report that the cooperation is especially strong after attending a seminar together with other teachers. However, it is argued that the intensity of cooperation is frequently lost throughout the school year. T4 and T8 both argue that due to the high workload during the year, often the cooperation between teachers is neglected. T1 ascribes this to external factors as well. Other teachers (T6 and T7) believe that the cooperation will develop throughout the years, since CLIL is a relatively new approach at this school and is not yet recognised by all teachers as a specific concept which has to be discussed. It is not common yet to discuss issues related to CLIL with other teachers, because other aspects, such as the new curriculum, are considered as more urgent.

One example of successful cooperation is between T6 and T7 (both teach Geography and History as a CLIL subject). T7 expresses her doubts regarding her language competence and reports that the language is a barrier for her. T6 frequently shares his teaching materials with her, which helps T7 very much.

#### **6.6.3. Activities in the CLIL lesson**

Llinares & Pastrana (2013: 89) argue that CLIL lessons should include a high number of student-centred activities, which involve interaction. Six teachers (T1, T2, T3, T4, T5 and T8) of this study report a variety of activities they like to employ during CLIL lessons. These include group work, presentations, gap-filling activities, focus on vocabulary, speaking activities, the use of videos and repetition. The two teachers who do not report using such activities in CLIL lessons are T6 and T7. T6 argues that he conducts CLIL lessons similarly to regular lessons and does not include such activities. Since T6 frequently shares his materials with T7, who then bases her lessons on his materials, it is evident why T7 does not include a high number of such activities as well.

When comparing these activities to the requirement of student-centred activities involving interaction, it is evident that some fulfil both requirements, while others lack one or the other. Group work as well as speaking activities both focus on the student and require interaction between the students. Presentations and gap-filling activities both are student-centred, but usually do not enhance interaction. However, these activities can also be conducted interactively, for example if presentations are followed by a discussion, or if gap-filling exercises require the students to talk to each other. The focus on vocabulary, repetition and the use of videos are not per se interactive student-centred activities, but can also be turned into useful CLIL activities. T1 summarizes this aspect when stating that all activities which are not entirely teacher-focused can be appropriate activities for a CLIL lesson.

One of the teachers (T5) postulates *trying out something new* as one of the aims of CLIL. He argues that CLIL offers the opportunity to loosen up and conduct the lessons differently from regular lessons. This can be linked to the variety of activities of CLIL lessons, since the teachers try different methods and activities and therefore the lessons are changed and diversified.

#### **6.6.4. Balance of content and language**

CLIL is supposed to be a “dual focused educational approach” (Coyle, Hood & Marsh 2010: 1) with an equal focus on both content and language. However, also researchers emphasise that one or the other is usually foregrounded, since it would be impossible to achieve an entirely balanced lesson (Mehisto, Marsh & Frigols 2008: 21).

Within this study, the majority of the teachers emphasise a clear focus on the content, and express strong opinions about this aspect. These strongly formed opinions could be interpreted as defensive and could stem from a fear of their own subject being less important than English. This aspect is also mentioned by Dalton-Puffer et al., who report the concern that teachers of technical subjects could oppose to the increased emphasis of English (Dalton-Puffer et al. 2008: 81). Hüttner, Dalton-Puffer and Smit (2013: 278) report that the CLIL teachers were surprised by this aspect, since they do not consider language learning curricular aims as a part of CLIL. Another explanation for the foregrounding of content is that the teachers are aware of their lack of language competence and therefore focus on content teaching instead of language learning. Only one teacher (T4) identifies language-learning goals as part of her CLIL lessons and states that CLIL lessons have a closer similarity to language learning lessons than content

lessons. However, it has to be kept in mind that this teacher is an English teacher, which could be the reason for the focus on language learning.

This observation corresponds to the findings by Nikula (2015: 24) or Dalton-Puffer, Nikula and Smit (2010: 2), who argue that within Europe, most CLIL programmes are more content-driven than language-driven.

#### **6.6.5. Materials**

Regarding materials for CLIL lessons, a high number of researchers identify a lack of appropriate CLIL materials (Pladevall-Ballester 2015: 57; Ioannou Georgiou 2012: 500; Klimova 2012: 573; Gierlinger 2007: 81; Somers & Surmont 2011: 114; Cenoz, Genese & Gorter 2014: 253). This observation is shared by the majority of the teachers in this study. However, two teachers argue that there are enough materials around. These were T4 and T6, who both teach a general education subjects. While they claim that there are enough materials for their subjects, they also express concern regarding the materials for technical subjects, because they believe that there is a lack of materials for those subjects.

Another interesting factor is the evaluation of the reported lack of materials. Only two teachers (T5 and T6) view this lack as problematic, while others (T1 and T2) argue that although the lack exists, it is not problematic for them.

Two teachers emphasise the need for different materials than for regular lessons. T4 argues that pools, where teachers can exchange materials, would be helpful; however others are sceptical. T8, for example, argues that while materials from other teachers can be a helpful starting point, she needs to adapt them for her own needs. The need for adaptations is also reported in a study by Dalton-Puffer et al. (2008: 30). T5 reported that he spends a large amount of money on English books in order to obtain materials and identifies this as a problematic aspect.

T2, T3 and T7 all argue that the internet provides a high number of materials, which facilitates the preparation for CLIL lessons. The importance of the internet as a source for materials is also observed by Dalton-Puffer et al. (2008: 29).

#### **6.6.6. The influence of seminars**

This section will discuss whether the participation in CLIL seminars has any influence on arguments and statements proposed by the teachers. Four of the teachers (T2, T4, T5 and T8) have already participated in a seminar related to CLIL, while the other four have not (T1, T3, T6, T7). Three of those teachers who have not been to a seminar yet have a



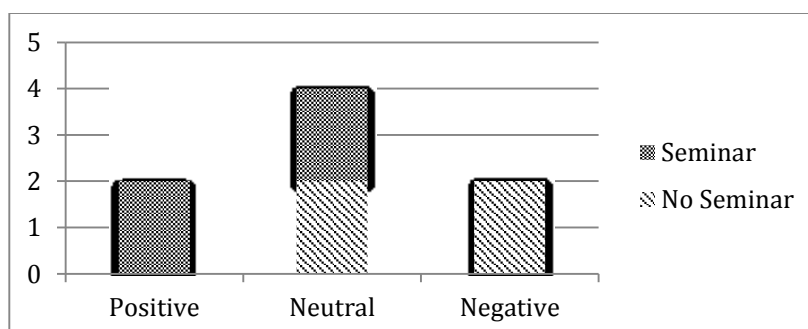
prospective seminar scheduled, while the other teacher (T7) states that she would probably profit from participating, but due to personal reasons has not yet had time to take part in one. Of the four teachers who participated in a seminar, two state that it was highly helpful and informative, while one teacher (T2) argues that the seminar was rather unnecessary. One teacher (T4) has a neutral attitude towards the seminar and thought it neither brilliant nor unnecessary.

The fact that the teachers who already participated in a seminar are able to describe what CLIL is leads to the hypothesis that they might have a more detailed knowledge of CLIL and also about its aims. Thus, it was investigated whether there is a contingency between the variety of aims proposed by the teachers and their involvement in a seminar. No such correlation could be observed, since T1 and T6 proposed the highest number of aims, although neither has attended a seminar yet. T3, T4 and T7 did not identify any aims at all, and T2, T5 and T8 all proposed some. Thus, no clear pattern can be identified.

Also the evaluation of the effects CLIL has on the students proves no major differences, since teachers from either group propose both negative and positive influences. However, only two teachers present a more nuanced view, namely that students react very differently to CLIL. These two teachers (T4 and T8) both attended seminars.

Moreover, no correlation between participating in a seminar and the variety of advantages and disadvantages proposed can be identified. Nevertheless, teachers who attended a seminar proposed a higher number of both advantages and disadvantages. Thus, it can be argued that the participation in seminars raises awareness for advantages and disadvantages.

The teachers who participated in seminars evaluate their own attitude towards CLIL slightly more positively than the teachers who have not attended a seminar yet, as demonstrated by figure ten.



**Figure 10: The influence of seminars on the attitude towards CLIL**

Figure ten shows that all those who consider themselves positive attended a seminar, while all who evaluate their attitude as negative towards CLIL did not.

Interestingly, both teachers who consider their own attitude as negative (T6, T7) state that throughout the lesson, they force their students to speak English throughout the whole lesson. However, it is argued that it is more hindering than helpful to force the students to speak English for the entire time (Dalton-Puffer et al. 2008: 154). It is proposed that the major aim should be multilingualism instead of English only (Dalton-Puffer et al. 2008: 154). It can be argued that both T6 and T7 are not aware of this aim and feel pressured to conduct the lesson entirely in English. This could add to the frustration they experience. Attending a seminar could be helpful in this regard in order to learn that the goal of CLIL is not to conduct an entire lesson in English.

All in all, it can be observed that the participation in seminars does not seem to fundamentally change the beliefs or opinions of teachers and have a limited influence. However, it can be argued that they allow for a more nuanced view of this topic, a slightly more positive attitude and an increase in the knowledge about the topic. Nevertheless, it has to be acknowledged that only the utterances of eight teachers are discussed within this paper, so no generalizations can be drawn.

#### **6.6.7. The obligation of teaching CLIL**

An important aspect of this study is the obligation to teach CLIL, which was implemented in Austrian secondary technical colleges in 2011 (Rechtsvorschrift der Höheren technischen und gewerblichen Lehranstalten: Zusatz IIId). This compulsion is considered as troublesome by five teachers, three of which even describe this factor as highly problematic. Only two teachers argue that the obligation is necessary for implementing an approach such as CLIL. There are several issues linked to this compulsion, which will be discussed below.

One aspect connected to the obligation is the lack of language competence of the teachers, which teachers, students and researchers (Dalton-Puffer & Smit 2010; Klimova 2012) consider as highly problematic. It can be assumed that if CLIL were not obligatory, only teachers who are confident with their language competence and who feel comfortable speaking English to the students would conduct CLIL lessons. Additionally, the fear of appearing ridiculous, as articulated by two teachers, would not exist. However, it can be assumed that if CLIL were voluntary, only a small number of teachers would teach CLIL lessons.

Another issue is the concern some teachers express about their students. Some teachers are worried that CLIL might be too difficult for their students, but have to conduct CLIL lessons anyway. Moreover, while some studies propose a rise in motivation (Coyle, Hood & Marsh 2010: 11; Pladevall-Ballester 2015: 56; Mehisto, Marsh & Frigols 2008: 21; Dale & Tanner 2012: 11; Çekrezi 2011: 3822), this cannot or only partially be observed in this study. This could be influenced by the obligation to teach CLIL, since also students cannot chose anymore whether they want to participate in a CLIL strand.

It is highly interesting that while five teachers view the obligation as problematic, none of them proposes making CLIL voluntary when asked for suggestions for improvement. A reason for this could be that they consider the obligation as a fact which cannot be changed.

#### **6.6.8. Issues concerning beliefs**

The following section discusses several issues connected to beliefs, such as the question whether beliefs are subject to change, the connection to meta-beliefs and the consistency or inconsistency of beliefs.

Researchers have discussed the stability or changeability of beliefs, with some arguing that beliefs are stable (Peacock 2001; Urmston 2003), while others claim that they change frequently (MacDonald, Badger & White 2001; Mattheoudakis 2007; Busch 2010; Hosenfeld 2006). This disagreement is mirrored in the answers of the participants of this study. Two teachers claim that beliefs are not subject to change, while three other teachers argue that beliefs change frequently. Interestingly, the two teachers who argue that beliefs are stable, as suggested Peacock (2001) and Urmston (2003), are also convinced that their beliefs and attitudes do not influence their students. The three teachers who state that their beliefs change constantly emphasise the shaping influence of experience (Hosenfeld 2006 [2003]: 39). One teacher (T4) also reports that her students changed her beliefs about CLIL in accordance to Kalaja and Barcelos (2013: 286), as described in section 5.9.2.

With some teachers, a consistency between their arguments and their estimation of their own beliefs on a meta level could be observed, while others are inconsistent. It is highly interesting to compare the proposed advantages and disadvantages to the way the teachers judge their own beliefs. This section does not attempt to prove those estimations wrong, but only to point out discrepancies and contradictions. As described in section

5.9.1, T5 and T8 consider themselves positive towards CLIL, while T6 and T7 express a sceptical attitude. T1, T2, T3 and T4 estimate their attitude towards CLIL as neutral.

The most striking cases concerning this topic are T7, T8 and T5. T7 and T8 both are consistent with their meta-beliefs. Throughout the interview, T7 concentrates on the negative aspects of CLIL; she proposes a high number of disadvantages and cannot name any advantages this concept offers. She then also reflects on her beliefs and describes her attitude toward CLIL as rather sceptical. T8 is similarly consistent with her meta-belief, but on the positive side. She articulates numerous advantages, and while she also mentions many disadvantages, she remains positive throughout the interview. She considers her attitude as positive towards CLIL, which is consistent with her statements during the interview.

T5, on the other hand, proposes a strikingly high number of disadvantages and focuses on the negative aspects of CLIL, as discussed in section 5.6.2. He only proposes three advantages, but the highest number of disadvantages (25 in total) and considers himself as having a positive attitude towards CLIL. This appears somewhat paradoxical, but there are explanations for this phenomenon. First of all, the frequency of the instances T5 mentioned advantages or disadvantages was counted. It is possible that the few advantages are more important to him than the high number of disadvantages, since this graph only indicates the quantity, not the quality of the instances. Secondly, a high number of disadvantages T5 mentions are related to external factors and could be changed if the infrastructure and organisation of CLIL were different. Thus, his estimation of his attitude as positive might express that while he views the circumstances as problematic, he approves of the concept of CLIL. Moreover, he describes himself as rather positive in comparison to his colleagues. This could indicate that while his attitude is not very positive, it is still more positive than that of his colleagues.

Inconsistency can also be observed on a smaller scale. Some teachers propose one argument, but later in the interview claim the opposite. This discrepancy has been described by Kalaja, who argues that contradictory beliefs can exist at the same time (Kalaja 2006 [2003]: 105). For example, T2 claims talking in English is not problematic for him, but later reports that it is uncomfortable for him. Moreover, T3 states that he is content with his language competence, while at the same time expressing his concern about his lack of proficiency. T8 argues that the obligation to teach CLIL is highly problematic and causes a large amount of problems, but also claims that it is necessary

for CLIL to be obligatory. Thus, it can be observed that some teachers appear to have contradictory beliefs about certain issues of CLIL.

A highly interesting issue is the aspect of beliefs being created during the process of articulation (Kramsch 2006 [2003]: 111). During the interviews, numerous beliefs are articulated and, according to Kramsch, constructed at the same time. Thus, the interviews might raise awareness of various issues and create and shape beliefs. It would be interesting to observe whether the interviews influence and change their beliefs and actions in connection to CLIL. However, this cannot be discussed in detail, since a long-term study would be necessary to investigate this issue.

### **6.7. Summary of discussion**

In conclusion, CLIL is a rather controversial topic amongst the participants of this study. There appears to exist some amount of insecurities and confusion regarding the concept of CLIL and what it entails. The aims proposed by the teachers of this study correspond in most instances to the aims proposed by researchers and language policy documents. Within this study, several concerns regarding how students cope with this concept are expressed. The participants identify a large number of both advantages and disadvantages relating to CLIL. Many disadvantages are linked to external factors, for example a lack of materials or of institutional support. The teachers also propose several suggestions for improvement, for example informing the students about the concept of CLIL. One major issue for most teachers is the lack of language competence of teachers, which is problematic for both teachers and students. Also, it is reported that the cooperation between teachers could be improved, although in one case it already works. Most teachers include a variety of activities in their CLIL lessons. In general, the CLIL lessons are more content-driven than language-driven, which also corresponds to the findings of researchers. The analysis of attendance of seminars gives indication that it can be beneficial for the teachers; however, the findings are not entirely straightforward on this topic. Numerous problematic areas related to CLIL can be linked to the obligation of CLIL, for example the language competence of the teachers. Several issues regarding beliefs are discussed, such as the connection to meta-beliefs, which proves to be highly diverse between the teachers.

## 7. Conclusion

The purpose of this paper is to investigate teachers' beliefs regarding CLIL in a secondary technical college in Lower Austria. The study focuses on eight interviews with CLIL teachers. It can be concluded that teachers' beliefs regarding CLIL are highly diverse and complex and depend strongly on the individual teachers.

First, this paper offered a theoretical background on CLIL. This background helped to establish several issues concerning CLIL. One of these issues is that CLIL is not a single method, but an umbrella term that incorporates numerous different varieties. Moreover, it was established that the obligation to teach CLIL, as it exists in secondary technical colleges in Austria, is rather unusual within the European context, and therefore a lack of research investigating this factor could be identified.

Secondly, the paper drew attention to the importance of beliefs and described their characteristics. These characteristics enhance the understanding of teachers' beliefs. It was shown that beliefs are highly complex and intricate. The importance of beliefs for teaching as well as for implementing a new approach, such as CLIL, was emphasised.

Investigating teachers' beliefs towards a new approach which is implemented is highly important due to the influence beliefs have on teaching and learning. It can be argued that teachers' beliefs are an integral part of any educational situation and can influence the success or failure of newly implemented approaches.

The findings demonstrate that the beliefs held by the teachers of this school are highly diverse and complex. Some aspects, such as their beliefs about the aims of CLIL, correspond to theory, while other issues, for example the notion of what CLIL is or the perception of motivation, are contradictory.

It is also highly interesting to observe that some of the advantages and disadvantages the teachers mention correspond to those mentioned by nearly all of the other teachers, while others do not, depending on the personal vantage point. For example, some teachers argue that one advantage of CLIL is that the teacher improves his/her language competence, while this does not occur to others.

One major problem which could be identified concerns the language competence of the teachers. While the actual language competence was not evaluated, numerous teachers expressed doubt regarding their own competence. Moreover, this aspect was identified as a main disadvantage of CLIL by the teachers, and it is linked to a high

number of other issues. For example, the increased workload could be reduced if the teachers had a better command of the language. This could be achieved if only teachers who are proficient in English conduct CLIL lessons. Also, several of the insecurities expressed during the interviews could disappear if the teachers were more confident of their own language competence. Additionally, the fear of appearing ridiculous is clearly linked to doubts concerning one's language competence.

Another main issue is the obligation to teach CLIL, since numerous problems arise from it. The aspect of teachers' language competence discussed above would not be problematic if teachers could decide whether they want to teach CLIL or not. Moreover, other issues, such as motivation and the atmosphere of CLIL lessons, appear to be influenced by this obligation. While studies report a higher motivation in CLIL-students (Coyle, Hood & Marsh 2010: 11; Pladevall-Ballester 2015: 56; Mehisto, Marsh & Frigols 2008: 21; Dale & Tanner 2012: 11; Çekrezi 2011: 3822), this could not be observed with the teachers of this school. Thus, it can be argued that the obligation hinders an increase in motivation.

External factors proved to be the most problematic aspect for CLIL teachers. Numerous disadvantages named by the teachers are linked to or caused by external factors, such as the lacking support from the school, the non-existent acknowledgement for a higher workload, only minimal financial rewards as well as a lack of materials. These factors could be changed relatively easily, and this would lead to an increase in the motivation to teach CLIL and make the whole approach more successful.

It has to be acknowledged that the small sample size of this study does not allow for generalization, and further research could focus on several problematic aspects pointed out by this study. This further research could focus on several problematic aspects pointed out by this study, such as the role of external factors, the language competence of teachers or the importance of seminars for the success of CLIL. It is highly important to not only explore teachers' beliefs, but also to consider the beliefs of other stakeholders of CLIL, such as headmasters and students. It is suggested to utilize quantitative methods and mixed methods for investigating this topic in order to obtain a representative sample which also allows for generalizations.

In conclusion, CLIL appears to be a promising approach, which nevertheless also entails numerous problems and issues to be considered. It would be helpful for the external factors to be altered, since it would be a pity for such an interesting and innovative approach to be less successful due to external reasons.





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## 9 Appendix

### 9.1 Interview Leitfaden

#### Cluster 1: Hintergrund-Informationen

- Welche Fächer unterrichten Sie?
- Wie lang unterrichten Sie schon?
- Wie sind Sie zum Unterrichten gekommen? (Haben Sie Lehramt studiert oder kommen Sie sozusagen „aus der Praxis“?)
  - Wenn „aus der Praxis“: Was haben Sie vor dem Unterrichten gemacht? Haben Sie dort Englisch gebraucht?
- Was ist Ihre Muttersprache? Sprechen Sie auch andere Sprachen (welche)? Wofür verwenden Sie sie?
- Wofür verwenden Sie Englisch? Wie würden Sie ihre Englischkenntnisse einschätzen? Gibt es Bereiche die besonders gut/ verbesserungswürdig sind?

#### Cluster 2: Was ist CLIL?

- Was bedeutet CLIL für Sie/ Was verstehen Sie unter CLIL?
- Was würden Sie als die Ziele von CLIL sehen?
- Wie haben Sie CLIL kennen gelernt?
- Wie haben Sie erfahren, dass CLIL jetzt in einem bestimmten Ausmaß verpflichtend ist?

#### Cluster 3: CLIL an der Schule

- Seit wann gibt es CLIL (bzw. Englisch als Arbeitssprache) an der Schule?
- Seit wann unterrichten Sie CLIL?
- Wie oft unterrichten Sie CLIL?
- Wie wird die Aufteilung von CLIL Stunden gehandelt? (Machen alle gleich viel oder gibt es ein paar KollegInnen, die alles übernehmen?)
- Haben Sie das Gefühl dass es Gegenstände gibt die für CLIL besser geeignet sind/ die besonders beliebt sind?
- Haben Sie mit ähnlichen Konzepten schon Erfahrungen gesammelt? (andere Namen z.B. EaA, DLP, Biligualer Unterricht...)
- Haben Sie CLIL (oder ähnliches) selbst als SchülerIn erlebt?

#### Cluster 4: Die Rolle der SchülerInnen

- Wie glauben Sie finden die SchülerInnen CLIL?
- Glauben Sie, dass es für ihre SchülerInnen wichtig ist, gut Englisch zu können (z.B. im Beruf)?

- Glauben Sie, dass es für alle SchülerInnen gleich gut geeignet ist (auch Muttersprache/ akademische Leistungen)? Profitieren manche weniger/ mehr davon?
- Glauben Sie, dass es für alle Themen gleich gut geeignet ist?

#### **Cluster 5: Vorbereitung auf CLIL**

- Fühlen Sie sich gut vorbereitet auf CLIL?
- Haben Sie irgendwelche Kurse als Vorbereitung gemacht? Haben Sie vor, welche zu machen?
- Wie sieht es mit Materialien aus? Gibt es genug (CLIL Bibliothek)?
- Brauchen Sie mehr Vorbereitungszeit? Ist es mehr Arbeit?
- Fühlen Sie sich sicher, Englisch vor Ihren SchülerInnen zu sprechen?
- Falls überhaupt, welche Unterstützung gibt es von Seiten der Schule?

#### **Cluster 6: CLIL-Stunden**

- Wie ist die Atmosphäre in einer CLIL-Stunde?
- Verändert CLIL die Art und Weise, wie Sie unterrichten? Wie? (Verändern Sie ihre didaktischen Methoden?)
- Wie läuft es mit dem Benoten? (Prüfen Sie in Englisch oder Deutsch?)
- Wie funktioniert die Zusammenarbeit mit anderen Lehrern? (Gibt es eine Zusammenarbeit mit anderen Lehrern? Wie schaut diese Zusammenarbeit aus? Team-teaching?)
- Hat sich Ihre Einstellung zu CLIL im Laufe der Zeit verändert?
- Sprechen Sie/die SchülerInnen während CLIL Deutsch? Wie gehen Sie damit um?
- Konzentrieren Sie sich mehr auf Inhalt oder Sprache?

#### **Cluster 7: Einstellungen zu CLIL**

- Wie finden Sie CLIL?
- Würden Sie es auch machen, ohne dass es verpflichtend ist? Haben Sie es davor schon gemacht?
- Was sehen Sie als Vorteile?
- Was sehen Sie als Nachteile?
- Gibt es irgendwas, dass CLIL effektiver/ besser machen würde?
- Gibt es irgendwas, dass den Erfolg von CLIL hindert?
- Glauben Sie, dass Ihre persönliche Einstellung zu CLIL ihre SchülerInnen/ ihren Unterricht beeinflusst?

Haben Sie noch irgendwelche Fragen/ Kommentare? Gibt es irgendetwas, wo Sie meinen dass ich das hätte fragen sollen, aber es noch nicht getan habe?

## 9.2 Codes

Number	Code
<b>1</b>	<b>language competence of teachers</b>
1.1	doubt concerning language competence
1.2	content with language competence
<b>2</b>	<b>teachers' estimation of their beliefs</b>
2.1	positive
2.2	neutral
2.3	sceptical
<b>3</b>	<b>estimation of influence of teachers' own beliefs</b>
3.1	influential
3.2	not influential
<b>4</b>	<b>advantages of CLIL</b>
4.1	reduces anxiety
4.2	increased input
4.3	variety of methods
4.4	teachers improve English themselves
4.5	raises awareness for the importance of English
4.6	no higher workload
4.7	increased output
4.8	students can practice English
4.9	improvement of language competence
<b>5</b>	<b>disadvantages of CLIL</b>
5.1	financial issues
5.2	concerns about content learning
5.3	higher workload
5.4	concerns about colleagues
5.5	fear of appearing ridiculous
5.6	lack of language competence
5.7	no improvement of language competence
<b>6</b>	<b>beliefs about students</b>
6.1	positive aspects
6.2	negative aspects
<b>7</b>	<b>atmosphere of CLIL lessons</b>

7.1	same atmosphere
7.2	different atmosphere
<b>8</b>	<b>materials</b>
8.1	lack of materials
8.2	no lack of materials
<b>9</b>	<b>grading</b>
9.1	problematic
9.2	not problematic
<b>10</b>	<b>importance of English</b>
10.1	important
10.2	not important
<b>11</b>	<b>activities used in CLIL lessons</b>
<b>12</b>	<b>cooperation between teachers</b>
12.1	cooperation increased
12.2	cooperation stayed the same
12.3	cooperation is lost during school year
12.4	cooperation needs to develop
<b>13</b>	<b>talking in front of students</b>
13.1	problematic
13.2	not problematic
<b>14</b>	<b>aims of CLIL</b>
14.1	increased output
14.2	reduces anxiety
14.3	not increase language competence
14.4	conduct lessons differently
14.5	raising awareness for the importance of English
14.6	image improvement
<b>15</b>	<b>suggestions for improvement</b>
15.1	native speakers
15.2	inform students
15.3	improving financial rewards
15.4	more time for teaching CLIL
15.5	doing something else instead

### 9.3. Abstract (English)

Content and language integrated learning (CLIL) is an approach to teaching widely used throughout Europe and beyond. Within this approach, content lessons are taught through a foreign language, utilizing pedagogies of language teaching. Since 2011, this approach is now obligatory for teachers of secondary technical colleges and it is argued that this obligation influences the success of this approach. Teachers' beliefs are a highly influential factor in implementing such an approach; therefore this diploma thesis examines the beliefs of teachers towards CLIL.

Within this diploma thesis, interviews with eight teachers of a secondary technical college in lower Austria were conducted in order to study their beliefs about CLIL. It was observed that their beliefs are complex and highly diverse. However, some important issues could be identified. The major disadvantages associated with this approach are linked to external factors and could be changed via more institutional support. Moreover, one factor which proved problematic for most teachers of this study is the lack of language competence, which is connected to several other perceived disadvantages. Numerous issues are linked to the obligation of teaching CLIL, such as motivation, language competence or the atmosphere of CLIL lessons. On the other hand, also various advantages of CLIL could be identified by the participants of this study, for example a reduction of language anxiety and an improvement of the language competence.

This paper recommends further research to identify more issues concerning the obligation of CLIL, with a focus on learners' and teachers' beliefs. It is suggested that external factors, especially institutional support, should be changed in order to make CLIL more successful.

#### 9.4. Zusammenfassung (Deutsch)

Content and language integrated learning (CLIL) ist eine Lehrmethode, die in Europa und darüber hinaus weit verbreitet ist. In diesem Konzept wird Fachunterricht durch eine Fremdsprache durchgeführt, wobei pädagogische Ansätze von Fremdsprachenunterricht verwendet werden. Seit 2011 ist CLIL in einem gewissen Ausmaß verpflichtend für Lehrer in HTLs (Höhere Technische Lehranstalten). Es wird angenommen, dass diese Verpflichtung den Erfolg von CLIL beeinflusst. Die Einstellungen von LehrerInnen sind ein sehr einflussreicher Faktor bei der Implementierung solcher Konzepte, weshalb die Hauptfragestellung dieser Studie die Meinungen und Einstellungen von LehrerInnen gegenüber CLIL betrifft.

In dieser Diplomarbeit wurden Interviews mit acht LehrerInnen einer HTL in Niederösterreich durchgeführt, um ihre Einstellungen zu CLIL zu untersuchen. Es konnte beobachtet werden, dass die Einstellungen und Meinungen sehr komplex und unterschiedlich sind, wobei einige wichtige Problembereiche identifiziert werden konnten. Der Großteil der Nachteile, die LehrerInnen mit diesem Konzept assoziieren, sind von externen Faktoren abhängig und könnten durch mehr institutionelle Unterstützung verändert werden. Ein Faktor, der für viele LehrerInnen problematisch ist, ist ein Mangel an Sprachkompetenz, der mit vielen anderen Nachteilen verknüpft ist. Viele Problemfelder sind mit der Verpflichtung, CLIL zu unterrichten, verbunden, wie zum Beispiel Motivation, Sprachkompetenz oder die Atmosphäre während der CLIL-Stunden. Andererseits konnten auch zahlreiche Vorteile von CLIL von den Teilnehmern der Studie identifizieren werden, wie zum Beispiel eine Verringerung der Angst, Englisch zu sprechen oder eine Verbesserung der Sprachkompetenz.

Diese Diplomarbeit empfiehlt weitere Forschung in diesem Feld, um mögliche weitere Problematiken dieser Verpflichtung zu identifizieren. Dabei sollten die Einstellungen von SchülerInnen und LehrerInnen im Zentrum stehen. Es wird empfohlen, externe Faktoren, besonders die institutionelle Unterstützung, zu verändern, um CLIL erfolgreicher zu machen.