Teacher educators’ cognitions during the implementation of an innovative pre-service English teaching programme in Chile

Loreto Alejandra Aliaga Salas

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The candidate confirms that the work submitted is her own and that appropriate credit has been given where reference has been made to the work of others.

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Dedication

To my grandmother Clemencia, mi abuelita, who always encouraged me to ‘go up, up, and beyond’.

Para mi abuelita Clemencia, quien me incentivó a ir siempre ‘para arriba, para arriba, para arriba’

Clemencia Soto Martínez (1913-2014)
Abstract

This thesis explores teacher educators’ cognitions in the context of a new five-year-long undergraduate English Language teaching programme at a private university in Chile. This programme is called Integrated Curriculum since its main principle is to teach all its curricular strands, i.e. integrated English language (IEL), methodology, education and school internships in an integrated fashion, enabling the content and teaching/learning processes of each strand to feed into and draw from the others. The Integrated Curriculum is inspired by the principles of critical pedagogy and social justice.

This case study followed a qualitative research design, within a critical theory paradigm. The data generation consisted of semi-structured interviews and classroom observations of four teacher educators teaching at the IEL strand. The IEL strand concentrates 60% of the teaching hours of the integrated curriculum, and most teacher educators work on this area. Interviews also included the programme leaders, and twenty-six student teachers.

The findings showed that teacher educators are very committed to the programme. However, the complex organisational system hinders their opportunities for reflection, on-going improvement, and addressing student-teachers’ teaching and learning needs. The programme leaders are aware of the difficulties that teacher educators face while implementing it. Student teachers seem to have a limited perspective of the integrated curriculum and appear to struggle to understand the innovative language teaching approach promoted by the IEL.

This study demonstrates that complex curriculum change takes time and resources. In this case, despite being well intended, the speed of the change, the lack of forward planning, and existing models to refer to, have limited the IC achievements. Findings suggest that changes in teacher education require a close connection with the school contexts to gauge the feasibility of the innovation in reality, to inform teacher educators and student teachers to teach and learn in mainly unchanged educational contexts.
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List of Abbreviations

AR : Action Research
BANA : Britain, Australasia, North America
CEFR : Common European Framework of Reference
CLT : Communicative Language Teaching
CALL : Computed Assisted Language Learning
CPD : Continuous Professional Development
EFL : English as a Foreign Language
FL : Foreign Language
EAP : English for Academic Purposes
ELT : English Language Teaching
EOD : English Opens Doors
DEMRE : Departamento de Evaluación, medición y registro académico (Department of Evaluation and academic register)
HE : Higher Education
IRB : Institutional Review Board
IC : Integrated Curriculum
IEL : Integrated English Language
LGE : Ley Orgánica Constitucional de Enseñanza (Constitutional Organic Law of Education)
LTE : Language Teacher Education
LOCE : Ley General de Educación (General Law of Education)
NQT : Newly Qualified Teachers
PPK : Personal Practical Knowledge
PARSNIP : Politics, Alcohol, Religion, Sex, Narcotics, Isms, and Pork
PPT : PowerPoint presentation
PRESET : Pre-service teacher education and training
PSU : Prueba de Selección Universitaria (University entrance test)
SIES : Servicio de Información de Educación Superior (Higher education information service)
SIMCE : Sistema de Medición de la Calidad de la Educación (Measurement system of quality of Education)
ST : Student Teacher
TBA : Task-Based Approach
TE : Teacher Educators
TEFL : Teaching of English as a Foreign Language
ToT : Teacher of Teachers
Part 1: Setting the research context

Part 1 is divided into three sub-sections. Chapter 1 and Chapter 2 introduce this research context, namely the Chilean English Language Teaching context, the Integrated Curriculum – the focus of this research. Chapter 3 reviews the literature on language teacher education and curriculum innovation. Chapter 4 describes the research methodology.
Chapter 1 General Introduction

‘Educational change depends on what teachers do and think - it’s as simple and as complex as that’ Fullan (2007, p.591)

1.1 Preface

I start this thesis quoting Fullan (2007) as it summarises the spirit of this research and the core concepts I will explore through the text: educational change and its complexity, and teachers’ cognitions inside and outside the classroom. Putting teachers at the centre is essential to conceive and understand the essence of any educational change, and of its relation with the local and global contexts. More importantly, I believe that change in teacher education is even more intricate, for its impact is exponentially higher. Teacher educators’ role becomes fundamental in mediating the objectives of change and their student teachers, who will take the change into the school classroom.

1.2 Who am I?

I see myself as a developing teacher educator. I became a teacher educator (henceforth TE) without expecting to be one. I was a school teacher and adult English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teacher, when I got a job offer to teach in a pre-service teacher education programme. Nobody told me what the difference between teaching English to teenagers/adults to teaching English to pre-service teachers was. I kept doing more or less the same as what I used to do in either context. When I look back, I do not remember thinking that I was teaching future teachers, nor did I see myself as a TE or a model. As time went by, I learned there were significant differences in teaching these different groups. Once I became a full time TE, I felt the need of not losing touch with my teaching practice at school. I supervised a teaching practicum, with no induction either, and I also taught a one-hour after-school workshop in a local school in Santiago. That kept me connected to reality from a first-person perspective. Once I moved to the UK, I have kept teaching at secondary schools, undergraduates, and adult ESOL. I see teaching as an essential part of my career, and my personal life. Hence, my passion and commitment for improving teacher education, and making TEs’ lives – including mine - more bearable, but most importantly, rewarding.

I also see myself as a developing researcher. I am interested in teacher education, teachers’ informed practices, curriculum development and change. My PhD journey has made me more aware of practicing teachers (educators)’ lack of information to inform their practices; henceforth, I hope to be able to advise programmes carrying out curriculum change processes from the enactors’ point of view. I am interested in
hearing and taking the voices of the enactors and receivers of change as a critical source of information. I enjoy working with and for teachers. I strongly believe in a context-based education with robust foundations in the local knowledge to support their learning.

1.3 The research rationale

My motivation to research the implementation of a new five-year-long pre-service English language teaching programme in Chile, namely the Integrated Curriculum (henceforth IC), first started when the IC was reaching the end of its first cycle of implementation. During this cycle, only a few attempts had been made to reflect on how things were going. I can recall two formal events: The programme external accreditation in 2012 (Comisión Nacional de Acreditación, 2012), and a TEs/staff retreat in late 2013 (Abrahams and Silva, 2016). Things were changing rapidly, for TEs were in a constant search for new strategies to meet the IC objectives and react to everyday issues. As an insider myself – both as designer and implementer – I too was not able to really see what was actually occurring, since I had limited time to do things outside my teaching and administrative responsibilities. Therefore, I became interested in analysing the curriculum change process thoroughly. I was aware that having worked and taught at the IC, I was not going to be able to take a full outsider perspective. However, by stepping out of the IC, I hoped I would have the time and resources to be able to see the wood for the trees.

I decided to focus my attention on teacher educators teaching in the Integrated English Language (IEL) strand, since it is the curricular strand that concentrates most TEs and the highest number of teaching hours in the curriculum. Most importantly, my interest in TEs, as explained by Fullan (2007)’s quote above, relies on the fact that they are the ones who implement change. How they make sense of the innovation influences the way the change is enacted and understood by the receivers, i.e. student teachers, and in their relation with the permanent staff, the designers/initiators of change.

To investigate the implementation, this research has four foci:

- TEs’ understandings of the IC,
- the integrated curriculum in the IEL classroom,
- the relation between the different actors in the planning and implementation decision making, and
- the influence of the Chilean educational context on the IC.

By reflecting on these areas, I intend to gain further knowledge into curriculum change processes from the perspective of the implementers and the receivers of change, set in the Chilean ELT context.
1.4 Key terms

These are the key terms that I will be referring to in this thesis:

- **Curriculum**: The philosophy, purposes, design and implementation of a whole programme (Graves, 1996, p.3).

- **Exit profile**: The expected outcomes of student-teachers on this PRESET when becoming teachers.

- **Integrated Curriculum**: The given name of this PRESET. The underpinning principle of the IC is ‘language is not simply a means of expression or communication: rather, it is a practice that constructs, and is constructed by, the ways language learners understand themselves, their social surroundings, their histories, and their possibilities for the future’ (Norton and Toohey (2014, p. 1) in Abrahams and Silva, 2016, p.144).

- **Module**: A unit of study that lasts one semester.

- **Pre-service teacher education and training** (PRESET): The formal education that student teachers receive to become teachers. In this research, the Integrated Curriculum is the PRESET.

- **Strand**: A group of modules under a similar discipline. In this research, Integrated English Language; Psychology, linguistics, and Teaching of English as a foreign language (TEFL) methodology; work experience, reflective workshops, and practicum; education and humanities.

- **Syllabus**: A plan that describes a module description, specifying the objectives, readings, activities, and assessment.

1.5 Thesis overview

In this thesis, I focus on teacher educators’ experiences as the implementers of a curriculum change that started in 2011, inside and outside the classroom, and in their relation with the curriculum designers and student teachers. This thesis is divided into three parts, organised in nine chapters. Part 1 outlines the research context, the literature and methodology. In Chapter 2 I start by discussing the context of this research, with an overview of the Chilean educational system, the Chilean ELT context, with a focus on pre-service teacher education.

In Chapter 3, I explore the relevant literature on pre-service teacher education and research on the Chilean ELT context. I offer a closer examination of language teacher cognitions, teacher change, and the change process. In Chapter 4, I present my research methodology. Here I explain my research rationale, the data generation instruments, adjustments and challenges during the data generation and analysis, and ethical considerations.
Part 2 introduces the research findings divided into three chapters. Chapter 5 documents teacher educators and the permanent staff's views of the integrated curriculum, the exit profile, and the limitations and suggestions for improvement. In Chapter 6, I present the teacher educators' reported and actual practices in the IEL classroom, and their reflection on their practices, and their revised reflection on suggestions for the IC improvement. In Chapter 7, I explore student teachers' experiences in the IC. I look into their views of the integrated curriculum, their language learning experience, and their suggestions for improvement.

In Part 3, I present the discussion of the findings in relation to the literature, focused on all the actors involved in the IC planning and implementation, reflections on teacher education and curriculum change, and the implications of curriculum change in an unchanged context (Chapter 8). In Chapter 9, I conclude with a summary of the findings, suggestions for further research, and a post-script with a current state of the curriculum implementation.
Chapter 2 Understanding the Chilean ELT context and the Integrated Curriculum

2.1 Introduction

This section introduces a framework of the Chilean education system, the English national curriculum, and the English Opens Doors (EOD) programme. Then, I explore the local context of this research by referring to the organization, the previous and the new curriculum, and conclude with the implementation issues that motivate this research.

2.2 The Chilean education system

The Chilean educational system is composed of primary, secondary and tertiary education. At school level, there are private, private-subsidised (partially government-funded) and state schools. Similarly, tertiary education is provided by public and private universities, institutes and technical centres. Higher education (HE) is not free at any level, which makes it restrictive for the low-income groups since Chile has the second highest level of income inequality of all OECD countries (OECD, 2017). The school system, unfortunately, is the origin of the current inequalities in education (UNESCO, 2012), for its fragmented structure and financial system. Although state-run schools are free-of-charge, their performance and resources are limited; hence, fee-paying schools tend to perform better in national and international high-stake examinations. Inequality reaches HE, as better-performing students reach higher scores on the university entry test, and perform better in their chosen degrees (Mateluna and Núñez, 2017). The current higher education reform has introduced waiving tuition fees to high performing students from low-income backgrounds, where the government pays their fees on selected HE institutions. Free HE adds up to the existing system of scholarships and loans (MINEDUC, 2017b).

2.3 The teaching of English in Chile

English has been taught in Chilean schools for over 150 years (Ortiz, 1994). In recent history, the 1998 educational reform impacted on English as a foreign language (EFL) since it was given an earlier start, i.e. moved from year 7 to year 5, and was made compulsory. Due to the Ministry of Education (MINEDUC) curriculum flexibility, most private and private-subsidised schools start English in year 1, so the reform mainly impacted on the public sector which still starts in year 5.
In the last two years, two reports have accounted for EFL teachers’ profiles in Chile. First, Vivanco (2016) indicates the number of people teaching at the school sector, summarised on Table 1:

**Table 1: Teachers of English at school level (Adapted from Vivanco (2016))**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>State</th>
<th>Private-subsidised</th>
<th>Private</th>
<th>Other</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>2132</td>
<td>2891</td>
<td>1053</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>6076</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>1321</td>
<td>1874</td>
<td>581</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>3898</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>3453</td>
<td>4765</td>
<td>1634</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>9974</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

MINEDUC (2015b) presents a more detailed profile of those teaching English countrywide as shown on Table 2:

**Table 2: Qualifications of English Language Teachers in Chile**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Qualified teachers</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primary teachers -specialising in English</td>
<td>1090</td>
<td>1093</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary English language teachers</td>
<td>5906</td>
<td>6036</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelors in English</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>0.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Translators (or similar)</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>0.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other English speaking professionals</td>
<td>375</td>
<td>4.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other professionals with no English proficiency</td>
<td>855</td>
<td>9.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not professionals</td>
<td>264</td>
<td>3.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grand Total</td>
<td>6996 (80%)</td>
<td>8709</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Both tables illustrate the wide range of people teaching English in Chile. Table 1 evidences that most teachers work on the private-subsidised system. Table 2 shows that about 80% of those teaching English are actually qualified EFL teachers. There is a wide variety of professionals teaching at school level, including a significant number of non-proficient English speakers teaching English. These numbers suggest that Chile still needs more well-prepared English language teachers to be in charge of the teaching of English, not to mention the provision of qualified teachers to teach in the primary sector.

Regarding teachers’ proficiency, the current *expected* level for English teachers is C1 since the implementation of the English teachers’ standards (see 2.5 and MINEDUC (2014a)). The latest national examination assessed 4282 volunteer teachers using the Cambridge Placement Test in 2012 and 2013. Outcomes, as detailed in Table 3, indicate that 58% teachers are within the B range, and only 30% are competent users (C1 or C2) (MINEDUC, 2014b).
Chile has a strong assessment culture where achievement in most curriculum subjects is measured once a year. SIMCE (Sistema de Medición de la Calidad de la Educación / Measurement system of quality of Education) is administered for most subjects (language, maths, history, sciences, among others), and since 2010, it has assessed English three times to the date. English SIMCE has been administered to year 11 (age 15-16) students in 2010, 2012, 2014, and results have been poor. Earlier 2017, the Ministry of Education decided to change English SIMCE to a sample test in some schools, scheduled for October 2017 and in 2020. Table 4 below shows the results of the three English SIMCE tests to date:

### Table 3: Cambridge Placement Test 2012-2013 (MINEDUC, 2014b)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>C2</th>
<th>C1</th>
<th>B2</th>
<th>B1</th>
<th>A2</th>
<th>A1</th>
<th>PRE-A1</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>261</td>
<td>1039</td>
<td>1558</td>
<td>926</td>
<td>359</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>4282</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.10%</td>
<td>24.26%</td>
<td>36.38%</td>
<td>21.63%</td>
<td>8.38%</td>
<td>2.76%</td>
<td>0.49%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Table 4, SIMCE has used two different international exams: TOEIC Bridge and an adapted PET (B1 equivalent) designed by Cambridge ESOL examinations. Despite the increase of the number of students passing, results show that there is an enormous gap between low and high income groups (Norteamericano, 2011; Educar Chile, 2011; Abrahams and Silva, 2017).

These high-stake examinations provide a clear picture of the proficiency situation in Chile. In HE and later at a professional level, it is normal to see people trying to learn
English to perform well at their studies and jobs. For pre-service English language teacher education, knowing English is not a requirement to be accepted at any PRESET in the country. These SIMCE results inform student teachers’ (STs) low proficiency when they start their teaching education, so all PRESETs have to teach English while teaching how to teach it.

All in all, results from both teachers and learners highlight the increasing need to provide more and better qualified English language teachers for schools to narrow the English proficiency the gap between the public and private sectors, and respond to Chile’s language proficiency goals to become a bilingual country by 2020 (MINEDUC, 2014c).

2.4 The English Opens Door Programme

In 2003, the Ministry of Education created the English Opens Doors (EOD) programme to ‘improve national economic competitiveness and promote equity by extending English language learning to all students in publicly funded schools’ (Matear, 2008, p.132). The EOD support school students’ learning, as well as pre-service and in-service teachers’ professional development (TESOL, 2006). The main objective of this government office is to:

improve the level of English for students between 5th grade and 12th grade throughout the Chilean public school system, through the definition of national standards to learn English, a professional development strategy for teachers, and the support to English language teachers in the school classroom (MINEDUC, 2004).

2.4.1 EOD support to schools

School teachers can apply to have native English speakers’ volunteers from a wide variety of countries and backgrounds to support students’ listening and speaking skills, and have a closer approach to English-speaking countries’ culture. School students can participate in winter and summer retreats, spelling, debate and public speaking contests (MINEDUC, 2015b).

All students from private-subsidised and state schools receive free textbooks. Although not dependent on the EOD programme, these textbooks are written by commissioned publishing houses through an open tender led by the Ministry of Education. The textbooks have been inspired by the Chilean context, including local traditions, costumes, celebrations, landmarks, and images that are relevant for the context. The textbook pack consists of student and teacher books, a workbook, audio and multimedia resources for the EFL teacher. Despite this large investment, there are
some criticisms of the textbooks. First, regional identity topics and reference to local traditions and celebrations are lacking (Pereira Palomo and Ramos Leiva, 2016). Being Chile a 5000 km long territory, with ten different climates ranging from desert to ice cap, textbooks fail to be cater relevant topics for the whole country. Secondly, there is a mismatch between the national curriculum and the textbook contents (Venegas, 2017). Venegas (2017) compared the national curriculum with the textbooks from year 5 to year 12. He concluded that only 30% of the contents – divided between grammar and vocabulary items, matched. Finally, teachers, as main users, criticise the lack of pertinence of expected and actual student proficiency, and lack of grammar exercises (Abrahams and Silva, 2017).

2.4.2 EOD support to pre- and in-service teachers

In addition to the original objectives, the EOD provide different types of support for pre- and in-service teacher education. For pre-service teacher education, STs can apply to spend a semester abroad in an English speaking country, fully funded by the government. In in-service teacher education, continuous professional development (CPD) is supported by both improving teachers’ proficiency levels, and taking methodology courses with national and international experts. Existing local English teacher networks in the whole country support and sustain in-service teachers’ CPD. For TEs, there are meetings with heads of departments, regional workshops, and until 2016, there were seminars with national and international experts as detailed in the next section.

2.4.3 The EOD Seminars

Starting in 2012, the EOD led a series of sixteen seminars with national and international experts targeting PRESET institutions and their TEs in collaboration with the British Council and the American Embassy. These seminars, held between three to six seminars a year, provided an opportunity for TEs’ professional development, networking and reflection.
The seminars were divided into four broad themes as shown in Figure 1:

![Figure 1: Series of ITE seminars (From Martin et al. (2016))](image)

Although the main focus of the EOD is at the school level and in-service teacher education, these series of seminars constituted a unique instance for TEs in different contexts to gather and collaborate as a community of practice (Wenger, 1998). According to the impact research done by Martin et al. (2016), the seminars became a space for sharing, understanding PRESET programmes and practices, and therefore, generate change in language teacher education (LTE).

The largest number of seminars took place in 2013, while the national teaching standards were being designed, where TEs raised some critical points about the implications that the standards were to have in PRESETs. Participants’ criticisms focused on the lack of participation of the different programmes had on the design, and that their comments had not been considered. Likewise, they felt that their individual PRESET contexts had not been contemplated in the discussion (Wedell, 2016; Martin et al., 2016). I refer to the standards in the next section.

### 2.5 National Teaching Standards

Published in 2014, the national teaching standards (MINEDUC, 2014a) inform the expected knowledge and skills that newly qualified teachers (NQT) should know and have upon graduation. Prior to the standards, the Ministry of Education designed progress maps (MINEDUC, 2009a; MINEDUC, 2009b), which aimed to support teachers by observing students’ learning.

The standards’ design and evaluation is summarised by Díaz Maggioli (2015) in five different categories:
• **Impulses**: Internal dissatisfaction. Economic change / competition.

• **Externalising potential**: Guiding philosophy. Goals (increased quality); Processes: assessment and certification.

• **Decision**: Theoretical.

• **Implementation**: Tiered: first the standards, then alignment of exit examination to standards, alignment of individual curricula to standards.

• **Internalisation**: Beginning to be internalised. At the process of evaluation.

(adapted from Díaz Maggioli, 2015, pp.14-15).

In these categories, Díaz Maggioli describes that the standards originated from PRESETs’ dissatisfaction with NQTs, and also the changes that were occurring at a national level regarding people’s proficiency levels. Therefore, the standards were to become the compass and determine the guidelines for NQTs. The decision making is theoretical, i.e. from what the literature reports as best practices. The implementation is tiered, which implies that the standards are the guidelines for the NQT examination, and then the PRESET curricula adapts to the standards. The internalisation of the standards, as they have been only recently put into practice is still ongoing, particularly regarding PRESET’s curricula adjustments. At the time of submitting this thesis, the Ministry of Education has not set a deadline for this purpose yet.

The current version of the standards reads as follows:

| Standard 1: | Understands the constitutive components of the English language and how they work, and applies this knowledge to the development of communication skills of his/her students in English. |
| Standard 2: | Understands the importance of the development of comprehension skills of oral, written and multimodal texts of his/her students, putting this knowledge into practice as a cornerstone in the learning and teaching process. |
| Standard 3: | Understands the importance of the development of productive skills of his/her students, putting this knowledge into practice as a cornerstone in the learning and teaching process. |
| Standard 4: | Understands the importance of the integrated development of the communication skills of his/her students, putting this knowledge into practice as a cornerstone in the learning and teaching process. |
| Standard 5: | Understands that assessment is a critical process in the teaching and learning, that allows to know students’ achievements in relation to the national curriculum, and introduce adjustments in the pedagogical practice. |
| Standard 6: | Communicates accurately and fluently in English at C1 level (CEFR). |
| Standard 7: | Knows theories of foreign language learning that allow him/her to select and apply the most effective methodological approaches and the pertinent teaching strategies for the teaching/learning process. |
### Standard 8: Designs, selects, or adapts physical or virtual resources, pertinent to the teaching and learning of English.

### Standard 9: Understands the importance of knowing and integrating the diversity of his/her own culture, the English speaking cultures, or others that can be accessed through English, to contextualise the teaching and learning of English.

### Standard 10: Acknowledges the importance of actively participating in continuous professional development opportunities and learning communities to improve his/her knowledge.

**Figure 2: National Teaching Standards (MINEDUC, 2014a, my translation)**

Figure 2 shows the national teaching standards. Standards 1 to 6 focus on the development of the receptive, oral and integrated skills, and the expected proficiency of a language teacher. Standards 7 and 8 relate to the teaching and learning of English, including material design and teaching approaches. Standards 9 and 10 focus on the integration of culture and the involvement in CPD and communities of practice.

With a NQT test, named INICIA, the Ministry of Education aims at assessing the knowledge of newly-qualified teachers within their first year of teaching. The standards, which have been developed for most of the curriculum subjects, determine the contents and skills that these teachers were to have. However, this assessment is not binding at the minute, i.e. a teacher who does not pass this test can still teach in the state and private sector. Criticism to this test has been raised by PRESETs since it is questionable that a 60-item multiple-choice test can determine ‘the complexity of the teaching, teachers’ decision making and their [NQTs’] language proficiency’ (Abrahams and Silva, 2017, p.117). More importantly, it is thought that this high-stake examination will turn PRESETs into exam-oriented teacher education institutions, where their NQT INICIA ranking will matter more than their classroom performance and their students’ learning.

When this thesis was being written, these standards were being revised, just before the presidential elections of November 2017. A new version is expected to be released during the first half of 2018. In light of the elections, as well, there is a series of educational reforms being discussed in parliament, aiming to become laws before the new government starts in March 2018. In the next section, I refer to some of the reforms and measures that have influenced ELT in Chile.

### 2.6 Educational reforms

Since 1998, there has been a series of educational reforms and new measures in Chile. From Ministry of Education led ones, to changes to the existing legislation as a result of student movements, there have been several modifications to the educational
system, the curriculum, and teacher education. In this section, I refer to those relevant to ELT and teacher education.

The Higher Educational Council granted the approval of a new national curriculum for primary (1996) and secondary (1998) education which were implemented progressively between 1997 and 2002 (Bellei et al., 2015). This reform updated the existing contents for all curricular subjects, yet kept the structure of primary (8 years) and secondary (4 years) education. Another measure was the school time increase to a full day regime (Cox, 2003; Martinic et al., 2008), which augmented the teaching hours by about 27%. These extra hours were intended to be used in extra-curricular activities, yet they mostly resulted in having more hours in those subjects assessed by high stake examinations. To illustrate what the full day regime implied, I draw on my personal experience teaching at a secondary school in Santiago. Secondary students started their days at 08.00 every day, and finished at 17.15 from Monday to Wednesday, 15.30 on Thursday, and at 13.00 on Friday. Teaching after lunch time was a real challenge because both students and teachers were exhausted, so there were issues of motivation and discipline (Martinic et al., 2008; Bellei et al., 2015).

One of the critical consequences of this reform was the expansion of for- and non-profit private-subsidised schools which decreased the state school enrolment, and teachers started receiving monetary incentives as a result of students' performance in high-stake examinations.

The early 2000s represented a time for adjustments to the 1998 reform, with different negotiations and adjustments from the right and left wings. The critical period started in 2006 with the secondary school student movement that managed to bring the attention to educational policies that nobody wanted to talk about (Bellei et al., 2015; Cox, 2003). Secondary students demanded quality education, strengthening state education, and ending funding to for-profit schools, and ending with school selection. The result of these demands is the change the constitutional education law to a new General Law of Education and the creation of a Quality Assurance system (Bellei et al., 2015). The General Law of Education put forward the state as a guarantor for quality education, modified the primary and secondary structure to equal six years in each, among other aspects. However, it did not consider teachers' conditions or training to respond to these new demands, nor did it contemplate schools' management competencies to deal with these new requirements. One of the consequences of the student movement impacted the state schools, since the
enrolment decreased, where the private-subsidised sector one increased, as shown in Figure 3:

![Figure 3: Student enrolment (adapted from MINEDUC (2017c))](image)

There is no clear data that explains the movement of students from state-run to private-subsidised schools illustrated in Figure 3 (Eyzaguirre, 2016). Student migration from school dependency suggests more segregation between the lowest and highest income groups (OECD, 2017), as only those with higher incomes are able to afford private-subsidised and the private sectors. Opposite to what happens in higher education, the school system does not offer loans for parents, and it depends on each private or private subsidised school if they offer scholarships or economic support to those who cannot afford them. Having a clear picture of what happens at schools informs what happens at admission at universities. For the purpose of this research, it helps to understand the background of those who will become teachers of English (see 2.8)

The current educational reform, which started in 2014, draws on some of the 2011 student movement demands. There are several foci. First, education is seen as a social right, so for-profit schools will no longer receive government funding. This has meant that many private-subsidised schools are now converting into private schools, and increasing their fees. This also leads that state-run schools aim at narrowing the large economic and academic school segregation (Bellei et al., 2015). Secondly, the reform intends to give Ministry of Education the management back from the local councils, as it used to be until the early 1980, yet the change of administration will not necessarily imply an improvement of the school quality and performance measured by SIMCE. Thirdly, student selection including academic reasons will be eliminated. This has developed into a sort of “raffle” system by schools, in which all applicants can be selected, and only those with siblings already studying at a school will have priority over other candidates. As the implementation of this system started recently (mid-2017 for 2018 admission), parents queued overnight to sign up their children on the
admission registers, so they could get a place at a particular school, as some implemented a ‘first come first served’ system (e.g. CNN-Chile (2017)). In teacher education, there is a law draft of a new in-service teaching career that focuses on CPD, which considers mentoring, and salary increase according to years of experience and performance (based on high-stake tests) (Avalos, 2015).

2.7 PRESET programmes in Chile

According to the Servicio de Información de Educación Superior (Higher education information service) - SIES (2016) report, there were 93 LTE programmes in Chile, administered by 40 universities and 2 professional institutes. Despite having a large provision of PRESETs in the country, most of them follow ‘an applied linguistics tradition’ (Barahona, 2014, p. 46) i.e. they have subject-specialists (language skills, grammar, phonetics), and pedagogical-knowledge courses, (methodology and education foundations) and some school-based teaching experience. Farias and Abrahams (2008) reveal that there is a divorce between the education and the discipline, with courses that are administered and taught by different departments that do not communicate between them, making PRESET curricula more fragmented, and distanced from the school context (Barahona, 2015; Abrahams and Silva, 2017).

Ormeño (2009) describes LTE programmes in Chile as training rather than development programmes. This means that the focus is on the instruction, i.e. knowledge and skills to teach (Barahona, 2015). Ormeño (2009) argues that universities believe that they expect their student teachers to develop as rounded professionals, so experts in the language (as users, teachers, and the language system), as well as knowers of the educational system. However, issues of face validity are raised, e.g. attaining a C1 proficiency level, and achieving high scores on newly qualified teachers’ examination. Therefore, both PRESETs and schools need to be able to respond to the Ministry of Education expectations, through performing to a high standard on these previously mentioned examinations.

In this section, I have talked about teacher education instead of teacher training. For the purpose of this thesis, I have adopted the concept of teacher education, since it embraces both the training and the development of teachers. The former focuses on the teaching of contents that can be assessed via different methods, whereas the later refers to the teacher-learner experiences and their reflective practices (Freeman, 2001, p.76). In the next section, I explore this thesis’ research context.
2.8 The research context

This research looks at a five-year PRESET programme in a private university in Santiago, Chile. The university started after the merge of three well-recognised research centres. Founded in 1997, this university has gained a space within both the public and private HE institutions. Among private universities, the Departamento de Evaluación, Medición y Registro Académico (DEMRE- Department of Evaluation and academic register) ranked this institution second for its academic quality, and third for its research quality, accreditation, and overall best private university in 2017.

The PRESET programme started in 2005 to respond to national needs for teachers of English in Chile, expressed by the Ministry of Education (see 2.2). In this section, I examine the PRESET organizational structure, its past and current curricula, its profiles, the Integrated English Language (IEL) strand, and the issues from its implementation.

2.8.1 Organizational structure

The PRESET organizational structure has three core levels as displayed in Figure 4, divided into permanent staff (three top tiers), TEs, (fourth tier), and STs (bottom two tiers).

![Figure 4: PRESET Organizational structure](image-url)
The first three tiers refer to the permanent staff. They are teacher educators with full or part time contracts, and they coordinate other teacher educators and curricular strands. Then, the fourth tier are part-time TEs who are non-tenured, hourly-paid for all subject areas. The last two tiers represent student teachers. They elect a student committee yearly, including an academic delegate who participates in the permanent staff meetings. Each year group, i.e. five, also chooses delegates to address issues to TEs and/or staff.

In Chile, the academic year runs from March to December, so the admission process starts in December and finishes in March, after the February summer break. From 2004 (for the 2005 start) to 2010 (for the 2011 start), the admission process was managed by the university admission office and the permanent staff of the PRESET. A minimum of 500 / 850 points at the Prueba de Selección Universitaria (PSU - University Entry Test) was the requisite to apply for the programme, but the final acceptance was decided through a personal interview with the permanent staff. In 2011 the university joined the national admission system, which is administered by DEMRE. This centralises the application to the 27 state-run and 12-private (out of 33) universities in the country. Since then, no personal interview is carried out, and admission depends on the average score obtained in the PSU exam. Since 2011, first-year cohorts have 100 student-teachers. In 2017, this programme was ranked third nationally, preceded by a private and a state-run universities. In the following subsections, I describe the first curriculum of this PRESET, followed by the new curriculum, which is where this research takes place.

2.8.2 The first curriculum design

The first curriculum of this PRESET was designed in 2004, and implemented from 2005 to 2010. The first cohort graduated in 2009, and the last one finished in 2014. The curriculum had forty-four modules, divided into two stages: the first two years focused on the teaching and learning of English, and foundational knowledge of education and philosophy; the next three years were divided into English language and culture, school-based internships, and pedagogical development (Barahona, 2015, p.87). It had modules on phonetics (one module); lexico-grammar (two modules), British and American culture and civilisation (one module each); and British (two modules), American (one module) and post-colonial literature (one module).

Its main features were twenty hours of English a week during the first two years (divided into ten lessons of 1.20h each), so STs could reach an advanced proficiency level (C1 CEFR). As of third year, the number of hours decreased to three lessons.
However, it replicated many of the features of existing curricula at other institutions, i.e. existing specialism modules remained largely separate and lecture based.

As a result of the review of the existing curriculum, the programme accreditation in 2009, and the graduation of the first cohort, the need to design a new curriculum was detected. The permanent staff was not fully satisfied with the results that the existing curriculum was given. The permanent staff realised that there was still something missing from their ideal LTE programme. For instance, language teaching, conceived as a complex yet unitary phenomenon, was still not seen as integrated by either TEs or student teachers, so each would concentrate on their own discipline and not connect it with the rest, where both theory and practice came together in service of learning (Abrahams and Silva, 2016). Consequently, the main reasons to justify the change are reflected in two areas: the strengthening of the teaching of integrated English language for meaningful learning and the improvement in students' communicative interaction, and the development of critical thinking, personal and professional autonomy.

### 2.8.3 New curriculum design

The new curriculum, named Integrated Curriculum (IC), started its design stage in 2010. It was conceived as a result of a joint project by six universities in the country (Abrahams and Farías, 2010), which got together to propose a curriculum that merged both advanced proficiency and teacher professional development. The project was inspired by the principles of integrated skills, content-based learning, critical pedagogy, communities of practice, teacher and student mobility, and network-based learning. It considered the TEs’ training to unpack the curriculum principles and TEs’ for its success.

At the institution in this study, the curriculum design was a process in which all the actors with any degree of involvement participated at different stages: the permanent staff, TEs, student teachers and alumni. The final design was produced by the permanent staff, considering the input of all actors. The IC implementation began in 2011, and has graduated three cohorts of teachers at the time this thesis was written.

The curriculum is called integrated because it intends to promote subject integration at a cross-curricular level, so not only modules within the same strand, but also from other strands being offered during the same semester. Cross-curricular integration is based on the fact that English language teachers work with other subject areas within a school community, and as a language teacher needs to know about different subject-areas that can be used as topics in the language classroom.

As in the previous curriculum, the IC is also divided into two stages: year 1 and 2, and
year 3 to 5, with a total of forty-six modules. There are four curricular strands:

- Integrated English Language
- Education and humanities
- Psychology, linguistics, and TEFL methodology
- School placements, reflective workshops and practicum.

In the first two years, student teachers have modules on humanities and education, e.g. History, Sociology, Philosophy, and Psychology, as part of the foundational modules. These are taught in Spanish and provide student teachers with a context of where they come from (history), where they are and what their role is in society (sociology) and how one can understand the world (philosophy). Additionally, there are four IEL modules with twenty hours a week.

From third to fifth year, the main strands are IEL, language, methodology, reflective workshops and school placements. Student teachers’ individual school experiences become a fundamental input for practically all modules at this stage, since they are expected to draw on their school contexts to reflect on and link with theory. The methodology strand intends to make an explicit link with school placements based on student teachers’ first teaching experiences reflecting on theory of skills and strategies, lesson planning and material design, and assessment for learning. There are five IEL modules, with five hours a week in third and fourth year, and three hours a week in fifth year.

2.8.4 The profiles

I have named this section ‘the profiles’, which are indicators, relevant at different stages of the programme, outlined by the permanent staff and TEs. They detail STs’ characteristics and expected development from their entry to their graduation at different points of time.

2.8.4.1 Entry profile

After several iterations, the permanent staff created an entry profile that describes how they perceive student teachers when upon arrival at the IC. Most student teachers have just finished school, are aged 17 or 18, and they come from state and private-subsidised schools, mainly. The entry profile reads as follows:

The student who is accepted on the pre-service English teacher education program at [the institution] tends to be highly motivated to learn and teach English, feel attracted by the idea of becoming a professional and identify with the mission and vision of our University. They expect to receive the correct answer to the questions and problems in relation to knowledge, information and opinions which,
according to staff, is reflected in a lack of inquisitive knowledge and are unable to build their own arguments to support, for example, a political stand. They tend to show lack of awareness of their identity and of self-esteem. Therefore, they avoid interaction in heterogeneous groups (lifestyles, beliefs, interests, special needs, etc.). Staff also observe that they lack study skills, autonomy, critical dispositions, responsibility and show a client-oriented disposition (Abrahams and Silva, 2016, p.148).

The entry profile poses challenges for staff and TEs to meet the IC objectives, which go beyond developing language and teaching skills. In fact, these characteristics require that members of the organization collaborate and be consistent with their classroom practices in all subjects, so that student teachers can achieve the skills needed to become the teacher described in the exit profile (see 2.8.4.3).

According to MINEDUC (2017a), the first-year dropout rate of this programme is 24.3% (national average of 23.7%). In order to support STs in their transition from school to university, STs have personal tutors during their first year. The tutoring groups started in 2010 to help STs to develop study and social skills. TE personal tutors are led by a psychologist, who assists tutors, and follows up STs who need further support.

2.8.4.2 Half-way profile

As part of the IC implementation revision, a half-way profile was devised to describe the expected achievements of student teachers upon completion of their second year, and in preparation for their first year of school placements in third year:

A student who begins the third year of the English Pedagogy programme at [the institution], is inquisitive about academic learning; able to raise questions and propose solutions from a critical perspective to complex issues emerging from their own reflection and from the classroom. This reflects as student with committed and well-founded opinions, with a clear sense of social participation and who is active in the English Pedagogy program. The student has developed professional attitudes of responsibility, autonomy and flexibility; and ethical attitudes of respect, justice and honesty. At the same time, the student is able to work in teams in a collaborative manner, with assertiveness and respect for diversity. In terms of their English language competence, the student who begins third year is able to demonstrate a higher intermediate level equivalent to CEFR B2 (Abrahams and Silva, 2016, p.145).

This profile delineates the desired characteristics of a developing pre-service language teacher, and that is in transit to achieve the goals expressed in the exit profile.
2.8.4.3 Current exit profile

The exit profile was agreed by staff and TEs in 2014, as part of the IC implementation revision. This profile is expected to be adopted by all staff and TEs and enacted through their practices with student teachers. It should also be evident in all curriculum documents such as module syllabi and assessment instruments:

A teacher of English graduated from [the institution] is a professional who seeks to permanently enrich the development of their thoughts from multiple perspectives in order to comprehend social dynamics present in school contexts, and to identify intervention needs for cultural transformation. In this pursuit, they offer creativity, advanced English language competence, both orally and in written form, and expert management of its teaching at the service of such transformation. In this way, they can generate significant social changes in the school context using the teaching of language as a tool to diminish inequity and educate critical citizens with self-esteem and dignity (Abrahams and Silva, 2016, p.146).

The exit profile emphasises the transformative dimension of teaching and the need for a full understanding of the school context to ‘reduce inequality’ and find opportunities for cultural transformation (Freire, 1972). IEL lessons are seen as the means for learners to achieve more equal and better opportunities to access the broader world, particularly in the Chilean context where there are such large differences between the public and private sectors (see 2.2). It also highlights the importance of developing learners’ citizenship and participation through language teaching. Finally, it determines the expected language proficiency level and methodological expertise to be achieved upon graduation.

In my view, the exit profile underpins the whole curriculum, transforming it into the IC compass. The IEL strand has a critical role in the IC, with TEs responsible for taking student teachers on a journey towards proficiency and the development of personal methodological models to be replicated in their school practices. In light of the exit profile as the framework where in the IC lies, I embark on researching TEs’ understandings of this curriculum and their actual practices to educate critical, change-agent English teachers. In the next section, I explore the IEL strand in more detail.

2.8.5 The Integrated English Language Strand

I have focused my research on the Integrated English strand because it is the most complex strand of the IC, and therefore full of tensions. Out of all the strands, here is where most teacher educators work, and it concentrates over 60% of the curriculum hours during the whole five years. In this section, I outline the planning and teacher organization and provision of this strand.
The IEL is divided into nine modules during nine semesters of the IC. In the first two years, all language skills are stimulated simultaneously and promoting task-based learning and assessment. From year 3, the IEL strand experienced the most significant changes, since specialist-subjects were merged into it, i.e. literature, lexical-grammar and phonetics.

2.8.5.1 IEL overview

The IEL transition over nine semesters has different number of hours per week and semester. All in all, student teachers are exposed to over 1000 hours during the course of five years, as illustrated in Figure 5:

![Figure 5: Level progression in IEL](image)

Figure 5 shows the expected transition from an A1/A2 level to a C1/C2 level in nine semesters. International exams, i.e. PET, KET, FCE and CAE, have been considered as indicators to assess that STs have achieved their level upon graduation, to comply with the Ministry of Education’s requirements. IEL hours have been distributed unevenly during these nine semesters, as shown in Figure 6:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year 1 to Year 2</th>
<th>Year 3 to Year 4</th>
<th>Year 5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IEL 1-4</td>
<td>IEL 5-8</td>
<td>IEL 9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 hours a week</td>
<td>10 hours a week</td>
<td>6 hours a week</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 sessions a week, divided into two sessions a day.</td>
<td>5 sessions a week, divided into three days.</td>
<td>3 sessions a week, divided into three days.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

![Figure 6: Number of hours in the IEL strand](image)

Figure 6 illustrates the IEL number of hours per week. During the first two years, there is a stronger provision to ensure that STs transit from an A1/A2 level to a B1/B2 which is the expected one to start going to schools. As of third year, most strands offer their modules in English, with the exception of psychology (although some of its assignments are submitted in English), so STs are still exposed to a large number of hours of English a week. In fifth year, the IEL hours are reduced, since STs are attending their practicums. Although there are fewer hours, all the modules are taught in English ensuring enough input and practice.
Having such large number of hours imply having a large team of English language teacher educators committed to teach STs. In the next section, I explore TEs’ teams and organization.

2.8.5.2 IEL Teacher educators

In Chile, generally speaking, HE institutions do not have the financial resources to pay for full time lecturers. Therefore, most part-time, non-tenured teachers at any educational level, are called taxi teachers (Pastrana, 2007), for they have different jobs and responsibilities in several locations to make a living. Most of the TEs working at the IC are part-time, and paid for 10 out of 12 months a year, since January and February are not teaching months due to the summer vacations.

The number of IEL teacher educators has varied over the years. Table 5 illustrates the number of TEs since the implementation of the IC:

Table 5: Number of teacher educators 2010-2016 (personal elaboration)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2nd Semester</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nº groups</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TEs from previous years</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>-2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New TEs</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TEs who left</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5 shows the number of TEs that has worked at the IEL from 2010 to 2016 based on the 2nd semester timetables, using 2010 as a reference from the previous curriculum. This table illustrates the high turnover of TEs along the years, despite having a similar number of teaching groups. When comparing 2012 and 2013, there is a large TEs’ turnover, similar to 2015 and 2016. Similarly, as of 2013, the number of TEs per semester decreases, and 2014 concentrates the largest number of TEs who leave, without considering the reasons why they left.

Becoming an IEL teacher educator follows a hiring process led by the IC permanent staff. After being shortlisted based on a CV selection, the application process consists of an interview with the IEL coordinator and head(s) of PRE SET and/or department. In the interview, they discuss TEs’ tasks and their time demands. TEs are asked to teach a demo-lesson with first year STs which is critical in the final selection.

With regards to TEs’ teaching hours, on average, a TE teaches between 13 and 20 hours a week, which is reflected in an average of seven to ten lessons (each session
= 80 minutes), besides planning time. TEs organise their work in teaching teams. Each team teaches two to three levels a week, and has between three and five TEs. For example, the team that teaches IEL 3 and IEL 7 is composed by three TEs, who work under a rotation system. To illustrate, I elaborated Table 6:

Table 6: TEs' sample timetable

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Monday</th>
<th>Tuesday</th>
<th>Wednesday</th>
<th>Thursday</th>
<th>Friday</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>IEL 7 (YEAR 4)</td>
<td>IEL 7</td>
<td>IEL 7</td>
<td>IEL 7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Group 1: TE3</td>
<td>Group 1: TE2</td>
<td>Group 1: TE2</td>
<td>Group 1: TE1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Group 2: TE1</td>
<td>Group 2: TE3</td>
<td>Group 2: TE3</td>
<td>Group 2: TE2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>IEL 7 (YEAR 4)</td>
<td>IEL 7</td>
<td>IEL 7</td>
<td>IEL 3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Group 1: TE3</td>
<td>Group 1: TE2</td>
<td>Group 1: TE2</td>
<td>Group 1: TE3</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Group 2: TE1</td>
<td>Group 2: TE3</td>
<td>Group 2: TE3</td>
<td>Group 2: TE1</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Group 3: TE2</td>
<td>Group 3: TE1</td>
<td>Group 3: TE1</td>
<td>Group 3: TE2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>IEL 3 (YEAR 2)</td>
<td>IEL 3</td>
<td>IEL 3</td>
<td>IEL 3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Group 1: TE1</td>
<td>Group 1: TE3</td>
<td>Group 1: TE3</td>
<td>Group 1: TE3</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Group 2: TE2</td>
<td>Group 2: TE1</td>
<td>Group 2: TE1</td>
<td>Group 2: TE2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>IEL 3 (YEAR 2)</td>
<td>IEL 3</td>
<td>IEL 3</td>
<td>IEL 3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Group 1: TE1</td>
<td>Group 1: TE3</td>
<td>Group 1: TE3</td>
<td>Group 1: TE3</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Group 2: TE2</td>
<td>Group 2: TE1</td>
<td>Group 2: TE1</td>
<td>Group 2: TE2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6 exemplifies the teacher rotation system at the IEL. These TEs teach 15 lessons a week. In dark grey, I have marked IEL 7. They have five sessions a week, divided between Monday, Wednesday and Friday. Each day, TEs teach a different group each day. Likewise, in IEL 3, in light grey, TEs teach ten lessons a week, two each day, rotating groups on a daily basis. In the next section, I refer to the practicalities that this system has in the daily IEL planning.

2.8.5.3 The IEL module underpinnings and structure

Broadly speaking, the IEL intends to follow Wiggins and McTighe (2005)’s backward design, since this model considers teachers as designers, and aims at scaffolding learning starting from expected achievement backwards. As Wiggins and McTighe put it:

An essential act of our [teaching] profession is the crafting of curriculum and learning experiences to meet specified purposes. We are also designers of assessments to diagnose student need to guide our teaching and to enable us,
our students, and others (parents and administrators) to determine whether we have achieved our goals (Wiggins and McTighe, 2005, p. 13).

Wiggins and McTighe empower teachers and students to make informed decisions for their learning in relation to their own and the institution’s expectations.

The IEL is inspired in a series of language teaching approaches: Content Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA), lexical approach, and task-based approach. The IEL aims at taking different topics into account as the framework for language learning, as it allows student teachers to see language as a whole entity and not as fragmented units (Brinton et al., 2003; Chamot and O’Malley, 1994), and hopefully to promote it likewise in their classrooms. There are two foci. On the one hand, the development of language proficiency and knowledge about the language by using the classroom readings for learning about the language, e.g. phonetics and lexico-grammar. On the other hand, the development of critical thinking skills through the discussion of the readings. Similarly, literary texts are linked to the unit topics through extensive reading. Reflection is promoted through monthly video-journal entries related to the unit topics.

The IEL syllabus is a template that includes the same sections across all levels detailed as follows:

- General information (module name, catalogue number, credits, pre-requisites, schedule, TEs’ contact details, weekly study time allocation)
- Module description
- Learning aims (divided by language skills; plus pronunciation, lexico grammar, literature, critical thinking, social skills, ICTs, pedagogical experiences).
- Teaching methodology
- Contents (presented by units/tasks/dates and materials)
- Assessment details (tasks, journal entries, written/oral tests, reading seminars)
- Attendance requirements
- Terms and conditions (attendance, deadlines, homework requirements, plagiarism)
- Teaching resources (list of websites/books of general reference)
- Weekly planning (activities, contents and deadlines – details of the readings per week)

As a template, TEs modify the content and weekly planning sections every semester, as a result of the planning system devised for the IEL. All the other sections remain the
same, or are slightly modified to respond to changes in the IEL and IC. In the next section, I speak about the planning process.

2.8.5.4 Planning

The IEL planning system is a cyclical process where the permanent staff, TEs and student teachers are involved. This cycle is illustrated in Figure 7:

Figure 7: IEL design, teaching and evaluation cycle

Figure 7 represents the IEL planning process during a semester, divided into seven stages. First, the IEL coordinator contacts student teacher representatives to suggest topics of their interest. Student teachers organise themselves through different channels of communication to decide on what topics they would like to learn at IEL. Second, the IEL coordinator, the TEs, and student teachers meet to listen to STs’ suggestions. Third, TEs make decisions on what topics they will include in the next semester modules. These topics may or may not be STs’ suggestions. Fourth, TEs start looking for readings that respond to the topics and objectives to compile a reading dossier. Fifth, with the readings, TEs design each unit based on a topic, e.g. language and power, and the assessment tasks. Sixth and seventh are iterative on a weekly basis during the course of the sixteen weeks of a semester. The former is TEs planning each week, and adjusting the planning based on the rotation and STs’ responses. The latter refers to the objectives assessment in light of STs’ responses. TEs modify topics (units), tasks (unit assessments) and materials (reading dossier) each semester as a result of the process described above.
2.8.5.5 Materials design and everyday teaching

In the IEL, there are two sets of materials: A reading dossier and PowerPoint presentations. On the one hand, the reading dossier is a compilation of a series of papers of different kinds, mostly academic papers and encyclopaedia entries that respond to each thematic unit. These papers are chosen by TEs in the process of planning, and underpin every day’s lessons. Each lesson is based on a reading assigned for that day. Each reading vary in extension (between fifteen to thirty pages in average).

On the other hand, PowerPoint presentations are designed and shared by all TEs. During the weekly rotation, each TE uses the same PowerPoint presentation the same day, at the same time, which means that if STs do not finish an activity, TEs have to communicate among themselves to be in the know about each group’s daily progress, and make the corresponding adjustments to the planning, i.e. the PowerPoint presentation. The PowerPoint template follows a pre-while-post structure, where different activities are prompted every day, depending on the lesson objective and the corresponding reading.

2.8.6 Issues arising from the implementation

After several semesters of implementation, numerous issues have been raised by TEs and STs which motivate this research. The IC entails a different approach of the teaching and learning process, i.e. the teaching system, the approach to language teaching, and the search for social justice. However, when the IC was designed there was not a clear idea of the implementation challenges for staff and TEs. Being the first PRESET in Chile to follow a model like this, there were no examples or materials to refer to and learn from. Therefore, the problems that emerged as a result of the implementation could not be predicted. The literature in curriculum change reports three main areas of struggle when implementing a change, which I develop in relation to the IC context below:

1. **Beliefs:** The permanent staff, teacher educators and student teachers have different visions of the IC and the exit profile. The staff, as leading actors of the implementation, understand the principles underlying the IC and how they should be unpacked by TEs in the different curriculum strands. TEs, on the other hand, try to adjust their beliefs to meet the IC goals. It seems that the permanent staff was not aware of the extent of the cultural shift (Wedell, 2003) TEs had to undergo to achieve the curriculum change objectives. TEs have not had a systematic induction or follow-up to ensure that they are thinking and doing what the IC aims at. Student teachers, likewise, mostly coming from state or private-subsided schools, find themselves struggling to understand and adjust to this new teaching approach, so changing their beliefs has become a challenge for TEs and the permanent staff.
2. **The practices:** TEs’ beliefs inform their classroom practices. TEs claim to agree with the IC values. However, their practices seem to be limited to a fixed lesson structure and planning which hinder their autonomy to respond to student learners’ emerging needs. In fact, one of the most critical issues is the high demand of time for lesson planning, i.e. adjusting the teaching from day to day, and extensive amounts of reading. Most TEs work exclusively at the IEL due to a large number of hours that pay well enough to make a living. This fact has implied that TEs spend more physical hours at the institution, not only working on the daily planning, but also doing tasks that go beyond the call of duty.

3. **Organizational learning:** The permanent staff depends on TEs’ good will and commitment to the programme to make it succeed. TEs spend most of their time outside the classroom lesson planning, doing administrative work and attending meetings. The permanent staff has had to learn to accommodate to this reality, trying to minimise the time TEs spend working outside their paid hours, for instance, by implementing an online planning and communication system through Google Docs and WhatsApp.

Another challenge is how the IC fits within the Chilean educational context. The IC teaching and learning vision mismatches with the school context’s teaching approach, despite the Ministry of Education attempts to make it more communicative. Language teaching at schools still follows a grammar-translation approach and having Spanish, Chile’s L1, as a means of communication. Consequently, STs have to learn to adjust their new vision of teaching and learning to an unchanged school system, while trying to do things differently inside their classrooms.

### 2.9 Conclusion

The IC represents a radical shift in Chilean LTE, which promotes a participative and inclusive agenda from a bottom-up design. However, the implementation has posed challenges for the TEs in their beliefs and classroom practices to meet the IC and its exit profile. Through this research, I intend to explore the IEL strand implementation from the TEs’ point of view, focusing on cognition and practices, since it is what they actually do that will determine the extent to which the IC is implemented as intended by the organization.

The first cycle of curriculum implementation finished in December 2015. In this research, I attempt to develop an increased understanding of participants’ cognitions and practices in the IEL, the Integrated Curriculum, and their relation to the Chilean educational context. Considering the experiences of TEs, the permanent staff, and student teachers, I hope to identify some of the ways in which this organization has needed to learn and change, which will be potentially useful for any other PRESET programmes planning curriculum change.
Chapter 3 Literature review

3.1 Introduction
In this section, I refer to the theoretical underpinnings of this research. I start by introducing the theoretical principles of the integrated curriculum. I then explore language teacher cognitions. Later I address some challenges and issues of educational change. Finally, I account for the research in the Chilean ELT context to situate this thesis.

3.2 The Integrated English Strand foundations
As mentioned in 2.8, the IC is a melange of different language teaching trends and educational philosophies. These are expected to underpin all modules materials and TEs’ practices. In this section, I explore the foundations of the IEL strand, as well as critical pedagogy as the underlying principle of the IC and the exit profile.

3.2.1 Backward design
The IEL strand uses backward design to plan each module’s units. Introduced by Wiggins and McTighe (2005), this curricular approach seeks for ‘clarity about desired learning outcomes’ (Wiggins and McTighe, 2011, p.7) and evidence that learning has occurred. To achieve this, planning is seen as a key tenet to achieve learning objectives. It is a three-stage planning process which states the expected performance and understanding to reach the learning goals. Lesson planning, then, responds to these tenets, so both teachers and learners see ‘content mastery as the means, not the end’ (Wiggins and McTighe, 2011, p.7), seeking to create more engaging and long-term learning.

Learners demonstrate their understanding when able to autonomously put their learning into practice in authentic performances, through a three-stage process: defining desired results, looking for evidence, and establishing a learning plan. To do so, Wiggins and McTighe (2011, pp.5-6) define six capacities for this: ‘to explain, interpret, apply, shift perspective, empathize, and self-assess’. In this process, teachers’ role is to facilitate learning by mediating learning objectives with the curriculum. Hence, teachers constantly have to revise and adjust the curriculum and their teaching practices to respond to learners’ needs.
This curricular approach implies a shift in how teachers conceptualise teaching and learning, as learning is put first, and teaching responds to it. This approach moves away from the textbooks and activities and focuses on the expected outputs. In other words, ‘appropriate teaching activities and content are derived from the results of learning’ (Richards, 2013, p.20). In language teaching, Richards (2013) cites the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) as a clear model of backward design. Its ‘can do’ statements set the learning goals for any language at its different stages of proficiency, and are understood worldwide.

Most teachers follow a central design, i.e. the planning starts by deciding on the activities first or following textbooks (Wiggins and McTighe, 2005), whereas a backward design addresses a view of learning and teaching. In this sense, Richards (2017) criticises backward design. On the one hand, it gives teachers too much freedom to enact the curriculum, when teachers do not necessarily have the resources, the training, or the skills to do so. On the other hand, in some contexts, backward design is test-oriented, where students are prompted to pass exams, and meet pre-determined standards, particularly in contexts where there is a great need of face validity and accountability of teaching practices.

Regardless of the curricular approach, it is teachers, and in this research context, teacher educators, who enact the curriculum. As Graves (2008, p.153) puts it, ‘what happens in classrooms is the core of curriculum. What happens in classrooms is the evolving relationship between teacher, learners, and subject matter’. I agree with Graves since it is from the TEs’ perspective that I support the core role that they play in unpacking the curriculum in the IEL classroom.

**3.2.2 Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL)**

CLIL has been promoted by the European Union to extend communicative skills in a second or more languages. Its underpinnings consist of teaching content subjects in the target language (in this research, EFL), where the language is the means to learn different topics. Students are motivated to learn languages in context, focusing on real-life situations, promoting fluency in different situations (Maljers et al., 2002; British Council, 2006).

CLIL’s double fold objective, i.e. developing language proficiency and mastering a subject matter, also intertwines with the development of critical thinking (Richards, 2013). Paran (2013), however, criticises the ideal balance between content and language, illustrated in Figure 8:
In Figure 8, Paran makes an analogy with Ellis (2003b) weak and strong Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). Paran's focus is on quadrants B and C, where ‘weak’ and ‘strong’ CLIL are located. Ellis cites Howatt (1984) to discuss weak and strong CLT. A weak CLT proposes to teach learners general notions of the language, e.g. duration and possibility, and functions, such as inviting and apologising (Ellis, 2003b, p.28). In weak CLIL, the focus is on language objectives; the content is not incidental, but focused on, and discussed through thematic units (Paran, 2013, pp.321-322).

A strong CLT concentrates on language acquired through communication. Strong CLIL provides learners ‘with opportunities to experience how language is used in communication’ (Ellis, 2003b, p. 28). In strong CLIL, the attention is put on the content objectives, where there is still a language focus, e.g. as in contexts where children are schooled in the target language (Paran, 2013, pp.321-322). In practical terms, a strong CLIL is enabled through communicative tasks in the classroom.

The design of a CLIL course considers content and language components, followed by the choice of instructional materials, and activities for delivering, reviewing, and assessment (Richards, 2013, p.13). In the design and implementation of CLIL, both content and language teachers collaborate, where the language teacher provides the linguistic explanations. Oral production is promoted by presentations either individually or in groups, where the language teacher focuses on accuracy and appropriateness (Muñoz, 2007, p.24). Muñoz suggests some considerations for the CLIL lesson:

1) second language instruction that is integrated with instruction in academic or other content matter is a more effective approach than methods that teach the second language in isolation;
2) second language instruction should provide opportunities for extended student discourse and promote interaction between participants in the classroom; and

3) second language instruction should include systematic attention to the language development of students (Muñoz, 2007, p.24).

My criticism of this balance proposed by Muñoz is that not all contexts will have a content and a language teacher, i.e. the content teacher may be teaching EFL, or the language teacher may be teaching content, which might not lead to the expected results of CLIL. In this regard, Paran (2013) points out that there is little research about how much language teachers know about the contents they are expected to teach in contexts where CLIL has been adopted.

Some of the advantages that CLIL has over traditional teaching is that, first, it provides input beyond the limits of the language class, i.e. the topics of discussion are broader and can be expanded to any area of knowledge. Second, the input that the learners receive is relevant and motivating (and can be negotiated with learners, too). Third, it motivates the process of meaning, as knowing the language is the means to understand any subject, e.g. history or science (Muñoz, 2007).

However, the main disadvantage of this approach is the form and meaning balance. The focus on form is not a defining characteristic of CLIL. The understanding that the large amount of input is not enough to guarantee accuracy. Any CLIL lesson should include some focus on form to reach accuracy. In fact, learners are more likely to focus on lexical items rather than other linguistic elements (Muñoz, 2007), particularly those which are more frequent and/or are similar to their L1.

Both Paran (2013) and Ball et al. (2015) refer to a comprehensive body of CLIL research, and the factors required to make CLIL successful. I have summarised these into students, teachers, and the context:

**Students**
- student selection
- working with high achievers / high L2 level
- offering extra language support for those students coming from disadvantaged backgrounds.

**Teachers**
- higher educational level of the teacher (subject specific requirements)
- teacher education itself
- teachers should be good users of the L2
- teachers’ pedagogy in the classroom integrating content and language
- strong literacy and cognitive skills.

**The context**

- higher academic literacy of the country
- private schooling
- students’ access to English outside the classroom.

(Adapted from Paran (2013); Ball et al. (2015))

This list of factors evidences the complexity of implementing CLIL in the classroom. The factors give a high responsibility to teachers enabling CLIL, not only about their professional capacity to teach, but also their previous subject and language knowledge, and literacy skills. Based on this list, those contexts where CLIL has been adopted without really thinking it through struggle to achieve the expected results. Put it simple, ‘if content and language are not integrated, it is not CLIL’ (Paran, 2013, p.320).

Since my focus is on teacher educators, my main concern is their readiness to teach content in their language lessons. In the Chilean context, ESP, for instance, is not a compulsory module in PRESET. Only a few universities offer ESP, and mostly as optional modules. Agreeing with Paran, I question how prepared TEs are to teach content in English, and to what extent they are trained to be able to teach CLIL in the classroom, so it does not become a ‘weak’ CLIL, as Paran puts it.

CLIL constitutes a strong foundation of the IEL strand, since the teaching of English is through content of a wide variety of subject areas, which aim at providing both strong foundations on a diversity of topics, and also developing STs’ proficiency and knowledge about the language.

### 3.2.3 Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA)

CALLA (Chamot and O’Malley, 1987; Chamot and O’Malley, 1994) enhances teaching different subjects in the target language to further language development through fostering a cognitive model of learning, so students become mentally active to be better learners. Through explicit teaching of learning strategies, students learn both language and content-areas. Language stems from the content, which is scaffolded and well-supported to achieve language knowledge and proficiency. The core difference with CLIL is that CALLA focuses on the development and learning of strategies to promote learning awareness. Chamot (2004, p.22) summarises the implementation of CALLA and the learning of these strategies into six recurrent stages:
1. **Preparation**: Teacher identifies students’ current learning strategies for familiar tasks.
2. **Presentation**: Teacher models, names, explains new strategy; asks students if and how they have used it.
3. **Practice**: Students practice new strategy; in subsequent strategy practice, teacher fades reminders to encourage independent strategy use.
4. **Self-evaluation**: Students evaluate their own strategy use immediately after practice.
5. **Expansion**: Students transfer strategies to new tasks, combine strategies into clusters, develop repertoire of preferred strategies.
6. **Assessment**: Teacher assesses students’ use of strategies and impact on performance.

These strategies call for students to self-monitor, cooperate with peers to solve problems and focus on their own learning. In my view, CALLA’s main advantage is that it develops learning awareness. Likewise, it empowers language students as they become aware of their own learning strategies through a variety of subjects and topics. CALLA is part of the underpinnings of the IEL strand, by developing awareness in STs that can be later translated into STs’ own practices in the classroom. CALLA’s disadvantage is that it requires a great deal of training for both teachers and students to learn about CALLA, and to implement it in the language classroom.

### 3.2.4 Lexical approach

Lexical approach looks at lexical items in two broad categories: referential meaning, i.e. relating to an external referent, not within the text; and pragmatic meaning, referring to language in use. It recognises lexical chunks in context instead of grammatical structures, as the primary means of language learning, and expanding on vocabulary with ready-made chunks (Lewis, 1993; O’keeffe et al., 2007; Lewis, 1997).

In practical terms, Lewis (1997) suggests some activities to develop learners’ lexical chains, e.g. intensive and extensive reading, and chunk-for-chunk L1 and L2 comparisons to raise language awareness. Guessing, noticing and recording language patterns and collocations, and working with dictionary and corpuses can widen learners’ scope to understand lexis. Similarly, repetition and recycling of activities are used to ensure that lexical items are still active after some time.

The lexical approach’s main advantage is that it provides a scaffolded learning process where students can identify frequent chunks in different types of spoken and written texts. By putting lexis at the centre, it aims at covering the most frequent words and phrases, and their meanings, uses, combinations, and patterns in the context in which
they occur (Willis and Willis, 2012). The lexical approach’s main disadvantage is that learning a large number of chunks can be overwhelming, therefore, difficult to be used in real-life contexts.

From the teachers’ perspective, Moudraia (2001) states that the lexical approach does not imply changing the existing teaching methodology radically. Instead, the change is on teachers’ mind set to teaching, as they need to encourage learners’ awareness of lexis in context. Hence, teachers themselves need to plan thoroughly what lexical items are brought to attention in relation to the overall planning and teaching of language.

In the IEL, the study of lexis is intended to be done in the analysis of texts that student teachers read. By situating them on a thematic unit, lexical sets can be built, so then they can be put into practice into the appropriate contexts.

### 3.2.5 Task-based approach (TBA)

Task-based approach promotes problem-solving through meaningful activities where learners’ expand on the language. Ahmadian (2012, p.380) draws on Ellis (2009) to define task as a

> meaning-focused pedagogic activity in which learners need to rely on their linguistic and non-linguistic resources in order to achieve a communicative outcome.

Different authors agree that the main objective of TBA is the communicative outcome. Willis (1996, p.23) describes tasks as activities ‘where the target language is used by the learner for a communicative purpose […] to achieve an outcome’. Similarly, Bygate et al. (2012) describe tasks as an opportunity for students to use the language, with a focus on meaning, to achieve a communicative outcome. Ellis (2000, 2003a) states that learners are encouraged and motivated to develop interactive and relevant tasks, where they are able to transfer what they have learned, paying attention to comprehensibility. Finally, Bygate (1999, p.34) points out that learned knowledge is used ‘across context and frames’; thus, expanding the language to multiple contexts.

TBA is closely connected to CLIL and communicative language teaching. In the CLIL context, a task is seen as goal-orientated, requires sequenced interaction among learners, and a work plan (Ball et al., 2015). As such, CLIL takes advantage of the structure of a task to provide more variety in the teaching and learning process. In relation to CLT, Ellis (2003b) uses the parallel of weak and strong CLT, but referring to task-supported language teaching and task-based language teaching. The former is a way to provide communicative practice for items that have been presented in a
traditional way. The latter considers a task as an enabler for learners by using the language in communication (Ellis, 2003b, p.28).

In regards to the types and structure of tasks in TBA, Bygate et al. (2012) distinguish between a pedagogical task and a target task. The former refers to activities done in an instructional setting to progress in their level. The latter denotes what learners should be able to accomplish outside the classroom, putting their learning into real practice. When describing the structure of TBA, Willis (1996) divides it into three stages: pre-, while, and post-task. In the pre-task stage, the teacher introduces the topic, activate learners’ schemata, and introduces new words for the task. The next stage, called task cycle, learners read or listen to a text. Then, they prepare a report to the class with their understanding, and present it. In the last stage, called language focus, specific language features are worked on, and students receive feedback. In Willis’ view, the language learning cycle varies from fluency to accuracy plus fluency, so if TBA is integrated to grammar and lexis, it should meet the fluency/accuracy balance.

Foster (1999) states that the main criticism of TBA is the tendency to focus on meaning rather than on form, which appears to lead learners to be more fluent yet inaccurate. In my view, TBA’s advantage is that it promotes CLT considering an ample number of activities, bringing the world inside the classroom and taking students’ interests and needs into account. The sequencing along a course could be considered a drawback, since it may not necessarily be coherent in terms of topics, activities, or scaffolding, as it occurs in the IEL. Another disadvantage is presented by Bygate et al. (2012), who mention the influence of time in planning a task. Having more pre-task planning time may mean more complexity and fluency, whereas lack of time could result in more accuracy.

TBA is one of the underpinnings of the IEL. The IEL lessons are strictly structured under the pre-while-post structure, and so is the end-of-unit assessment, which includes oral and written outcomes.

3.2.6 Critical pedagogy

Critical education and language education are closely related. In fact, language is defined not only as ‘an instrument of communication or even knowledge, but also an instrument of power’ (Bourdieu, 1977, p.5). In the ELT context, Fairclough (2001, p.244) states that language ‘can be decisive in determining whether existing orders of discourse, as well as more generally existing relations of power, are to be reproduced or transformed’, which reinforces language teachers’ role to raise awareness in students. Language, therefore, is a tool of power to understand the surrounding
context, at a local and global levels. Starting from the fact that language is not neutral, it becomes the means to comprehend a broader view of society, by talking about citizenship, democracy, and politics to meet the purpose of a wider, more open society, beyond merely proficiency levels (Starkey, 2005).

In LTE, TEs are responsible for bringing a broader view of the world into the classroom. Hawkins and Norton (2009) highlight the role that language teachers have when guiding students to comprehend the local and global context. In the same vein, Shulman (1986) asserts that a teacher is able to transform the content knowledge into accessible forms to reach students’ differences in ability and context, so language becomes accessible and meaningful. Taking both views together into the Chilean context, language teachers constitute the only explicit contact that many students have with English. Despite the fact that the media uses English widely, it does not mean that lay people actually understand the messages they receive due to a low or non-existent proficiency level.

Therefore, the language classroom becomes a space where teachers can foster reflection on critical local and global issues, so STs learn to do likewise in their own classrooms, i.e. transform language into a means to reflect on relevant issues for the local community. As Edge (2011, p.105) puts it, ‘and because this desire to live an aware life is the prerogative of any responsible citizen, it is equally available to the TESOL professional’. Edge calls for a responsible TESOL profession, which links citizenship to our career and our acts. These values need to be promoted and strengthened during pre- and in-service teacher education, so it is in TEs’ hands to have a stand on this. In fact, Edge expands saying that

it is not only our fundamental professional situation that is intensively political, so is our discourse about that situation (which comprises a reflective part of it) frequently ideologically motivated, shaped by adversarial position-taking and committed to persuasion (Edge, 2011, p.107).

However, it seems likely that many language teachers, or teachers in general, do not see their work as moral and are not supported in seeing their work as broadly moral, or even socio-political in essence (Crookes, 2015). Education is a transformational and political activity, which has an impact beyond content teaching and learning. Just being in the classroom is a political act, and cannot be disassociated from it. Each classroom constitutes a micro-society with internal rules, leaderships, and organization. However, not all teachers have the flexibility to speak about or deal with controversial topics. There are some institutions that set boundaries to teachers, starting from the topics that can be dealt with in the classroom, e.g. forbidding them to talk about Politics, Alcohol, Religion, Sex, Narcotics, Isms, and Pork (PARSNIP) (Gray, 2002). I think that dealing with PARSNIP topics may not make all teachers feel comfortable either, for
their own belief system may be setting the boundaries. Within the limits and constraints of a context, however, I believe that teachers can take subjects to a next level by promoting discussions that encourage students to think outside the box, particularly by asking ‘why’ questions (Hanks, 2017a). By deeply questioning, teachers can incite their learners not to take things for granted, and this is the starting point of resistance and change.

In the classroom, Freire (1970) speaks about the banking concept of education, where learners are recipients of ‘deposits’, which prevents them from developing critical consciousness of the world, and hence, limits their capacity of transforming the world. Freire advocates teachers to trust their students and their capacities to build a partnership for the transformation of the world. He calls for a problem-posing education, which strives for the ‘emergence of consciousness and critical intervention in reality’ (Freire, 1970, p.62 italics in original). Students, then, become critical interveners of their own world, and the world, being constantly challenged to intervene their contexts, and learning new and emerging understandings from their experiences. Trusting, however, could be a tricky challenge. Sometimes it may be easier just to have students who are happy to be spoon-fed and do not question what the teacher says, or the events in the local and global contexts. Trusting implies taking both students and teachers outside their comfort zone, and be ready to adjust their beliefs for the ‘unknown’. In the words of Candlin and Crichton (2013),

> trust is built when the speakers have agreed on the purpose of communication, the actions that they need to take and the intentions that they need to get across when they talk (Candlin and Crichton, 2013, pp. 79-80).

Through this collaborative enterprise, learners and teachers embark on a permanent dialogue, with agreed and negotiated objectives, and where both parties concur on a common goal. The transformation, then, cannot be achieved if there is not a personal transformation first. In this transformative process, Freire invites men and women to a process of becoming ‘as unfinished, uncompleted beings in and with a likewise unfinished reality’ (Candlin and Crichton, 2013, p.65), for education is and should be an ongoing activity. Freire calls both student teachers and teacher educators to be committed to permanent development and reflection in connection to one’s individual and wider contexts.

English as a curriculum subject becomes the means to achieve that transformation. Through English, teachers bring the world to the classroom, and help students to make sense of it. English constitutes the means in which we construct and strengthen relations with our students, among teachers, the community and the world. In my own teaching experience at schools, some of my learners were reluctant to learn English. They would argue that they would never travel, would not need it on their professional
careers in the future, or it was the language of imperialism. If I saw these students again, I would quote Candlin and Crichton (2013) who state that

learning to communicate in another language is not only a matter of becoming a better and more autonomous language learner; it has to do with making the link between learning and the achievement of access to rights and goods, to social and economic advantages (Candlin and Crichton, 2013, p. 83).

My own experience makes me reflect on how I have learned to be a critical teacher, and embed this criticality in my own practices, particularly in teacher education. The IC is inspired by critical pedagogy, strongly influenced by Freirean views of the world, for it seeks social justice and reduce inequality through the teaching of English. In order to do so, TEs carry the responsibility of promoting this transformation in the classroom, through their practices and in the relationships built among their peers and student teachers. Hence, teacher cognitions and practices become relevant when undergoing educational change.

In this subsection, I have explored the underpinning principles of the Integrated English language strand. This melange of language teaching approaches makes the IEL a complex module for understanding and enabling it. Critical pedagogy is the backbone of the IEL strand, and the IC as a whole, which urges the development of a different, or renewed ‘self’ in service of this transformative classroom.

3.3 Being a teacher educator

In this section, I examine the literature concerning teacher education considering its purpose, followed by professional and personal qualities that unfold in the (language) classroom. I believe that being a teacher educator in a changing context is challenging. It is not only being knowledgeable to teach (future) teachers, but also it implies understanding, knowing, and believing in the change.

The literature about teacher education mainly focuses on becoming a teacher, i.e. PRESET, or in teacher development (INSET). In this section, I discuss the process of becoming a teacher of teachers (ToT) (e.g. Malderez and Wedell, 2007; Díaz Maggioli, 2012; Edge, 2011), their roles, and expected knowledge and practices.

In general terms, Johnson (2015, p.516) alludes to teacher education as a way to ‘enable teachers to overcome their everyday notions of what it means to be a teacher, how to teach, and how to support student learning’. According to Johnson, teacher educators establish a sense of how teachers are experiencing what they are doing or learning (Johnson, 2015). From an INSET perspective, Johnson elaborates on the role
that TEs have to unpack teachers’ experiences from their teaching role, highlighting the importance of learning from both their students’ and their own learning.

Díaz Maggioli (2012) argues that a teacher of teachers goes beyond teaching a language. In this process Díaz Maggioli calls for student teachers to know ‘their students, the curriculum, the school, the educational system, and the community’, and gives a purpose for their teaching activity by promoting ‘equitable learning opportunities for all learners by using highly sophisticated methods, techniques, and procedures’ (Díaz Maggioli, 2012, p.7). Similarly, Freeman (2004) describes the challenges of educating language teachers. He believes that preparing language teachers is not simply a matter of learning knowledge and skills, it is also becoming educators who contribute deliberately and critically to the discourses and practices that constitute schools and society (Freeman, 2004, p.191).

Both Díaz Maggioli and Freeman agree that the responsibilities of a TE are not only language learning, but aiding the development of a critical person that understands the surrounding context, i.e. the immediate one as the school, as well as the society. Therefore, TEs are accountable for understanding the local and national context and bringing different perspectives for their unpacking in their classrooms, as argued on 3.2.6.

Edge addresses TEs’ duty as ‘eye-openers’ in the transit of student teachers becoming teachers by talking about power relations in the field, by raising awareness of the

the significance of the unequal distribution of power in our work, as it resonates through issues of language acquisition, language policy, course design, methodology, teacher employment, and wherever else one looks (Edge, 2011, p.146).

Edge supports the empowerment of student teachers in their academic careers to understand how the field works, as it can sometimes be fierce. One example is the adjusting journey of newly qualified teachers entering the unchanged school system, where there is usually little or no support to help endure this transition (Farrell, 2003; Mann and Tang, 2012; Hayes et al., 2013; Romero, 2017). This point may be relevant in contexts that are resistant to change, and where there are strong forces leading to certain positions that limit teachers’ scope of actions, e.g. at a single school level, or at a Ministry of Education or teacher association one.

Knowing the context where STs come from and will work becomes more critical. Freeman (2002) advocates a more ‘context-sensitive’ teacher education, quoting Bax
(1997), so student teachers’ education reflects their ‘teaching concerns and contexts’ (Freeman, 2002, p.10). Not only referring and dealing with individual classroom contexts becomes meaningful, but also the sociocultural environments, as Johnson (2015) puts it, are crucial to understand, establish and navigate ‘social values in which teaching practices are embedded’ (Johnson, 2015, p.519). In fact, Johnson promotes TEs’ pedagogical content knowledge as a result of the ‘interconnectedness of content, context, students, and pedagogical purpose’ (ibid.).

In this knowing of students and their background, one cannot disaggregate the teaching role from both learners and TEs’ personal dimension. Teaching is a highly personal activity and experience, which often transcends the classroom or school boundaries. Johnson (2015) states that formal teacher education sometimes forgets the personal dimension of teaching in formal contexts, where teacher educators and learners engage both cognitively and emotionally in this process. Having worked at both school and HE contexts, I believe that developing a more human relation in pre-service teacher education is a model of the kind of teachers I would like my own STs to become, in addition to being excellent English language teachers.

In the relations that TEs built with their student (teachers), TEs’ role is to make knowledge accessible to student teachers to achieve significant learning. As such, I see learning as a cornerstone, as teacher education that focuses on content coverage only is meaningless if there is not any uptake by students. Johnson (2015) comments that TEs’ role as experts in the field is to make ‘the content of their instruction relevant and accessible to students’ (Johnson, 2015, p.518). TEs, as (hopefully) skilled practitioners, are to make learning intentional where the content is explicitly related to a known (by the students), and relevant (for their learning and context) goal.

In this teaching and learning pendulum, TEs have to transform pre- and in-service teachers’ teaching and learning experiences into renovated ones. It is not replicating what they have seen as learners or teachers, or both. Student teachers expect to engage in practices that are supported by theory, so then they can develop and therefore enact their own practices that leads to contextually appropriate language learning (Johnson, 2015). There is a strain, however, that puts these ideal practices at stake. Clarke (2013) speaks about the tensions of ‘mundane of the teaching and the moral imperatives of theory and philosophy’ (Clarke, 2013, p.288). These pressures are reflected, for example, on inflexible curricula and assessment practices that hinder teachers’ action to create and sustain the conditions for innovative and well-informed practices.

On the relation of teacher education and the schools, this research situates on pre-service teacher education, from the perspective of teacher educators. Student
teachers will mostly work at primary and secondary schools, so I believe it is important to reflect on the role that schools play in teacher education. Freeman questions how teachers’ learning is mediated by the school contexts: ‘How can these contexts be orchestrated to support the learning of new teachers and the transformation of experienced practitioners?’ (Freeman, 2002, p.12).

I interpret Freeman’s question from two points of view. First, I consider the school as a space for learning: it is a context to be understood and embraced, as well as a space where to put one’s learning in practice, and reshape it to the emerging needs of students. However, there is increasing research that evidences the gap between schools and universities (e.g. Barahona (2017) in the Chilean context), so there is still work to be done to create university-school partnerships to encourage collaboration between them. By doing so, TEs’ would increase and update their knowledge of the context where student teachers are from and will be teaching to anchor their practices to reality.

Second, TEs’ own managing of their learning. In addition to knowing the context, TEs have to be constantly updating their own teaching practices, be acquainted with the local research and the professional community. Put simply, Malderez and Wedell (2007) give the responsibility to teacher educators for their own learning: ‘if ToTs are going to be managing other people’s professional learning, they need to be capable managers of their own’ (Malderez and Wedell, 2007, p.103).

Taking these ideas further, learning and knowledge are closely related. Díaz Maggioli argues that:

   education and development are two sides of the same coin; one is concerned with teachers’ appropriation and mastery of knowledge, skills, and dispositions, and the other with the skilful use of those elements to sustain quality teaching, which may result in quality learning (Díaz Maggioli, 2012, p.14).

In teacher education, Díaz Maggioli explores the knowledge dimension that ToTs have to have to achieve their goals. As mentioned earlier, it is not only their knowledge but how to put that knowledge in service of teaching, and most importantly, learning, so there are concrete opportunities for learning to happen. TEs’ practices have to engage in the ‘construction and enactment of a repertoire of relevant professional, personal and collective knowledge and experiences of and about teaching and learning’ (Díaz Maggioli, 2012, p.25). Teaching is a collective experience, and so is learning, where one’s understandings are dependent on ourselves and on the interaction with others (Breen et al., 2001; Hanks, 2017a). Therefore, teachers’ work depends on and interacts with multiple people, e.g. other teaching staff, support staff, learners, and stakeholders, to construct learning on a regular basis.
In an ideal context, TEs have (hopefully) relevant teaching experience in the context where STs will perform, as well as sound professional development opportunities where TEs have been able to keep up-to-date with the research in the field both globally and locally. I say hopefully as Chilean TEs’ CPD is non-regulated (Montenegro Maggio, 2016). In this context, there is an assumption that TEs have a ‘deep conceptual understanding of the project matter content they are expected to teach’ (Johnson, 2015, p.519). Likewise, Mann (2005) draws on Bailey & Willet (2004) to invite teachers to ‘engage with issues that are similar to the ones our students are going to be dealing with in their own classes’ (Bailey & Willet, 2004, p.23 in Mann, 2005, p.107). In the teaching education context in Chile, with academic freedom and without a specific TE profile, Johnson’s and Mann’s suppositions are entirely up to each teacher education institution. To my knowledge, there is no official record of past or existing CPD for TEs, or how often/how/why/where TEs pursue CPD to improve, update, and be acquainted with the school context.

In light of TEs’ learning, Edge (2011) perceives TEs as intellectuals, arguing that

the teacher educator as intellectual steps back from situated, professional thought/action praxis in order to see beyond it, while remaining ready to re-engage with that praxis, nourished with hopefully enhanced insight or overview (Edge, 2011, p.100).

In Edge’s perspective, TEs are able to look outside the box, problematize educational practices, and contribute with new insights. Likewise, Freeman (2002) considers that ‘teacher learning remains constant: namely, to find or establish meaning in their work’ (Freeman, 2002, p.11). Both Edge and Freeman suggest that teacher learning is permanent and it is an embedded requirement for and in service of their practices. It gives coherence and significance to their practices, and agrees with TEs’ own demands and expectations from their learners.

Malderez and Wedell (2007) unpack their understanding of teacher knowledge in the context of teaching teachers by referring to knowing about, knowing how and knowing to, which I have summarised in Table 7:
Table 7: Knowing about, knowing how, knowing to (adapted from Malderez and Wedell, 2007, p.19)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Knowing about</th>
<th>Knowing how</th>
<th>Knowing to</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Their subject, the aims and role of the subject within the wider curriculum</td>
<td>• Use strategies to support pupils and their own learning</td>
<td>• Intuitively and instantaneously use what they know (whether it is a knowing about or knowing how type of knowledge) at just the right moment, and in just the right way to support the learning of their particular learners, in their classroom.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• How the subject is learnt, the existence of strategies to support learning</td>
<td>• Notice important features of classroom and organizations</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• The school and its policies, accepted norms and procedures within the education system</td>
<td>• Promote conditions which support the learning process</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Strategies for managing their own ongoing professional development, the existence of professional organizations and support networks, and journals in their subject area.</td>
<td>• Assess learning</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Relate to students, other professionals, parents and colleagues</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Fulfil other professional obligations</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Access and use new ideas and/or theories to think, plan and/or assess</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These three dimensions of knowledge inform each other. ‘Knowing about’ includes the discipline and the curriculum, theories of learning and teaching, the school context, and managing teachers’ professional development and engagement with the professional community. ‘Knowing how’ has a more classroom-oriented dimension, since it focuses on the learning and assessment in relation to the theory, responding to the context requirements, and the professional context. The most important type of knowledge is ‘knowing to’, as it is the on-the-spot, concrete type of knowledge which responds to the immediate, context-responsive decision-making and action that addresses learning. In Malderez and Wedell (2007)’s words:

The development of knowing to, complex open skills, and noticing, on which the ability to re-view (see again) and reflect depends, all require or can benefit from access to real teaching contexts (Malderez and Wedell, 2007, p.37, italics in original).

Malderez and Wedell (2007) emphasise the practical dimension of the teaching development. It is in real, concrete actions that these three types of knowledge are built and improved, focusing on reflection and revisiting one’s practices at the service of their own and of those learning.
The way in which teachers put their knowledge at the disposal of their learners is also important. Johnson (2015) argues that disciplinary knowledge is not the same as knowledge used to teach language, or learners’ knowledge use to learn the language. It is the teachers’ duty to make knowledge accessible and meaningful for learners (student teachers), so then student teachers can make sense of it, and be able to teach this knowledge to their own students.

3.3.1 Who are teacher educators?

As there is no specific training to become a TE in the Chilean context, it relies on TEs and their institutions to determine the needs for professional development. Díaz Maggioli (2012, p.7) concludes that teacher educators are professionals that are ‘well-grounded in their area of expertise and who can use their knowledge, skills, and dispositions to adapt to the changes the profession presents’. By reflecting and drawing on their teaching and learning practices, TEs are malleable to the needs of their context and their learners.

However, as Davis and Worley (1979) warn that one ‘cannot assume that every good EFL teacher will necessarily become a good teacher trainer’ (Davis and Worley, 1979, p.82). They discuss the risks that in-house training may have on new teacher trainers, since they may develop an ‘incestuous ‘house-style’ with all its concomitant rigidity’ (ibid.). They describe in-house training by resembling an apprenticeship of observation (Lortie, 1975), where teachers shadow other teacher trainers, and progressively assume more responsibilities in the training, which appears to be very similar to what happens at the IC, despite the teaching experience that newcomer TEs bring into the programme.

With regard to personal and professional development, Richards and Farrell (2005) list a wide number of areas of attention, which are extended to both TEs and the institutions offering teacher education courses, summarised below:

- **Subject-matter knowledge**: TESOL knowledge, which includes lexico-grammar, phonology, assessment, SLA, curriculum.
- **Pedagogical expertise**: the mastery of the areas of teaching in different context and to diverse types of learners.
- **Self-awareness**: teachers’ own perception of strengths and weakness, and of their values.
- **Understanding of learners**: learners’ learning styles, problems and difficulties, making content more accessible.
- **Understanding of curriculum and materials**: knowledge of the curriculum and its alternatives, as well as designing and using diverse teaching materials.
• **Career advancement**: knowledge and expertise for promotion, including mentoring and supervisory skills.
• **Enhanced levels of student learning**: increase learners’ achievements, as this is also related to face validity of the institution and its teachers.

(Adapted from Richards and Farrell, 2005, pp.9-11)

Richard and Farrell’s list suggests that TEs need to know about, how, and to, as Malderez and Wedell (2007) pose it, an extensive number of areas, outlining a very comprehensive profile of who a TE should be like.

All in all, teacher educators play a critical role in education. Being a TE is situated in a power position, for the transformative nature that the role entails. TEs’ work is multiplied exponentially as student teachers who learn from TEs, will eventually replicate or imitate what they learn at the university in multiple settings. TEs bring together ideological and material aspects of a society that aims at separating power and knowledge (Giroux, 1988). In this respect, teacher educators play a complex and aspirational role: empower student teachers to become transformative intellectuals, that make a difference in their own teaching contexts, at the university and, upon graduation, their future students.

### 3.3.2 Language for language teacher education

I have so far spoken about teacher educators, in a way that, to some extent, could be at times translated into other subject areas. However, being a language teacher educator poses a slightly different profile. According to Trappes-Lomax (2002) there are three areas in which language unveils in LTE. He refers to three different worlds: the real, the classroom, and the LTE world, where language takes three modes: use, acquisition, and objectification, as detailed on Table 8 below:
Table 8: Worlds and modes: Language in LTE (Trappes-Lomax, 2002, p.4)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mode of experience/ action</th>
<th>Real world</th>
<th>Classroom world</th>
<th>LTE world</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **Language use**          | • Language in thinking  
                            • Language in communication  
                            • Language variation by user and use  
                            • Reflective language  
                            • Transactional classroom discourse  
                            (classroom management, task organisation, etc.)  
                            • 'Conversational' classroom discourse  
                            • Lecture / seminar / tutorial discourse  
                            • Supervisory discourse  
                            • Other study activities (e.g. reading / writing) |
| **Language acquisition**  | • L1 acquisition  
                            • Untutored / 'natural' L2/Foreign Language (FL) acquisition  
                            • L2/FL teaching/learning  
                            • Learner input/output  
                            • Trainees' language improvement / maintenance  
                            • Gaining understanding of how languages are learnt/taught |
| **Language objectification** | • Instinctive noticing  
                                • Language play and commentary  
                                • Reflective language  
                                • Linguistic research and description  
                                • The 'subject' (e.g. EFL)  
                                • Cross-linguistic and cross-cultural factors  
                                • Focus on form, raising awareness of features of the system and use (metacognition)  
                                • Pedagogical description (syllabus, materials, textbooks, reference resources, etc.)  
                                • Knowledge about language in general  
                                • Knowledge about the target FL and (in some contexts) learners L1  
                                • Awareness of features of own output  
                                • Awareness of features of learner output  
                                • Awareness of features of classroom interaction |

In Table 8, the three worlds – real, classroom and LTE - permanently interact and depend on each other. Use is mostly taken for granted since it is reflected in the teaching of language, in teaching how to teach, and in becoming part of the professional world. Acquisition looks at how the language is learnt and for opportunities of language improvement. It considers both personal and professional development of the language. Last, objectification refers to the development of language awareness, for personal and professional purposes. It implies noticing, intervening, and acting, and developing metacognition – for both teachers and learners (Trappes-Lomax, 2002).

Working in LTE implies being aware of the political and social implications of one's choices in a specific context, and reflecting that awareness in one's practices (Smyth,
1987). Smyth comments that LTE curricula sometimes neglects the design of context-sensitive programmes for the development of language awareness, which therefore affects how STs understand the world around them, and their future practices.

Regarding language teaching in LTE, Trappes-Lomax (2002) suggests teaching

both communicative proficiency and consciousness of language, without these being played off against each other as mutually exclusive goals (Trappes-Lomax, 2002, p. 3 italics in original).

According to the quote above, proficiency and awareness cannot be disassociated, but are a unit that lead to the same objective. Therefore, the visions of teaching grammar exclusively, or not promoting conscious metacognition in LTE are not possible. Finding the balance, however, may seem to be tricky. Wright (2002) discusses that language TEs are involved in language teaching, (leading to language learning) as a group and not as two separate elements.

Wright (2002) suggests that developing language awareness for language teachers increases their ‘sensitivity to language’ (Wright, 2002, p.115), for example by identifying errors or features of texts that leads to a language learning activity. Similarly, developing a good basis of the language components (lexis, grammar) can inform the planning and design of activities for language learning. Wright (2002) posits that knowing about the language components gives teachers the tools to plan activities and address issues emerging in the classroom. In practical terms, developing language awareness implies having data to be drawn on, such as teaching materials and language learners’ samples. It also implies talking among participants to enable learning, without rushing but scaffolding it, as the process goes along supported by expert knowledge (Wright, 2002, pp.27-28).

But what is that expert knowledge in LTE? Widdowson (2002) poses that ‘experience in the object language is not the same as expertise in the language subject’ (Widdowson, 2002, p.68). The expert knowledge dimension is set in the local context, which is located in specific contextual realities. Widdowson (2002) explains that

knowing English the subject involves recognising its foreignness, how it is foreign in different ways for different groups of students, and how the language has to be localised so that it can key in with their reality, and can be progressively appropriated and authenticated. A teacher’s knowledge of the language subject means knowledge about the language, and how it can be managed to make it learnable (Widdowson, 2002, p.80, italics in original).
Widdowson’s quote explains the knowledge dimension thoroughly. I endorse it, for the relevance of the understanding of where language emerges from is crucial in LTE, for the purposes of teaching it, and most importantly, its learning.

In this section I have briefly reviewed the profile of teacher educators, addressing different dimensions of knowledge and awareness of the context. Understanding how a language teacher becomes a language teacher educator and what their role is in LTE is critical for this research for they constitute the focus of my attention.

3.4 Teacher cognition

Teacher cognition has rapidly become a research area. In the last 30 years, there has been a breadth of research which explores different areas of teachers’ minds and decision-making. This section delves into different research traditions and concepts related to cognitions, the relation between cognition and practices, and cognitions and the community.


Li (2017, p.13) argues that studying teacher cognition has become pivotal to understand ‘perceptions and decisions, teaching and learning, the dynamics of the classroom, effective pedagogy and teacher learning’. Likewise, outside the classroom, teacher cognition influences ‘the way teachers plan their lessons, the decisions they make in the teaching process and what kind of learning they promote in the classroom’ (ibid.). Researching teacher cognition provides an understanding of teaching and learning from the teachers’ perspectives in relation to the whole educational process.

Borg (2015) states that teacher cognition research today has a particular interest in understanding teacher knowledge and teacher education to support teacher learning. However, I identified scarce research of teacher cognition and curriculum change, as this research proposes. In this regard, Li (2017) suggests that research in this area can develop practical pedagogical principles that service a particular context, inform the feasibility and adoption of pedagogical innovations.
Burns et al. (2015, p.589) examine four different ontological generations on teacher cognition research, shown in Table 9:

**Table 9: Ontological generations in teacher cognition research (Adapted from Burns et al. (2015))**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ontological generation</th>
<th>Conceptual unit of study</th>
<th>Prevailing research methodologies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Social [1995 ff]</td>
<td>Meaning and explanations, situated in social contexts.</td>
<td>Qualitative, introspective methods such as diary studies and in-depth interviews.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sociohistorical [2000 ff]</td>
<td>Thinking as a function of place and time, through interaction and negotiation with social and historical contexts.</td>
<td>Qualitative, interviews and narrative inquiry. Researcher positioning is important, and often the research process consists of co-constructed researcher–participant dialogue.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Complex, chaotic systems [2010 ff]</td>
<td>Dynamic, emergent systems that involve the interaction of multiple interconnected elements.</td>
<td>Qualitative, interviews, diary studies, analysis of interactions. Research includes analysis of social, cultural, historical and political factors.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Burns et al. (2015, p.589)’s analysis in Table 9 illustrates how teacher cognition research has changed over the years and how the understandings of the concept have varied. Burns et al. (2015) differ from Borg (2015, pp.41-45)’s account of teacher cognition. The former focuses on ontological generations, i.e. how the authors have understood and labelled research published within a timeframe, whereas the latter considers cognition-related terms and their definitions. Borg acknowledges that some terms have been defined identically, and different terms have been used to describe similar notions, which illustrate a complex state of affairs with regard to how research refers to teacher cognition.

In a state-of-the art article, Kubanyiova and Feryok (2015) identify two strands of teacher cognition research. On the one hand, teacher cognition, usually beliefs or knowledge, about different areas of teachers’ work. On the other hand, the relationship between cognitions and practices. They state that having an open scope to cognition research has suggested that teachers’ inner lives influence teacher learning, their practices, and more importantly, their students’ experience. In LTE, teacher cognition cannot be separated from STs’ learning process, particularly when TEs’ actions will
hopefully shape STs’ own learning and future practices. In fact, Li (2017, p.20) suggests that many researchers

explore ways to correct or influence pre-service teachers’ cognition on the basis of an assumption that pre-service teachers have misconception or wrong cognition before they start the teacher education.

What Li describes appears to be a deficit model, i.e. a reaction to a lack of understanding. What Li advises is one of the premises of the IC as an innovative project. As seen in 2.8.4.1, the entry profile delineates what the institution perceives as pre-entry characteristics of student teachers, and the assumption is that by educating them in the IC, student teachers will become the teacher described in the exit profile, which underlies changing beliefs.

Borg (2015) extensively discusses the belief-practice mismatch. He compiled a large number of existing research on teacher beliefs and actual practices. The recurrent concerns are related to:

- Cognitions of novice and experience teachers about specific aspects and the origins of those beliefs
- Congruence of cognitions and the students’ and the curricula and educational systems
- Relation between cognitions and actual practices
- Internal and external situational factors underpinning instructional practices, which mediate and shape teachers’ cognitions
- Characteristics of experts teachers’ cognitions and practices compared to those with less experience
- Development of teachers’ cognitions and practices over time

(adapted from Borg (2015, pp.125-126))

The discussion of the congruence between beliefs and practices is extensive, and it is related to multiple reasons, which go beyond teacher education. Developing teacher awareness about (in)congruences seems to be more relevant, since teacher cognitions influence the decision-making about teaching and learning, particularly in the context of curriculum change, as it is proposed in this research. Understanding teachers’ beliefs lead teachers to move from the ‘how’ to the ‘why’ (Freeman, 2006), to help them unpack their actions’ decision-making inside and outside the classroom. It is understanding the classroom events from an individual and collective level, to any extent, by bringing all both learners and teachers together for mutual development (Allwright and Hanks, 2008).
One way to identify the (mis)match of beliefs and practices are classroom observations. Eraut (2009) argues that observations allow to see to what extent reported cognitions are adapted to a particular context and transformed to every new situation faced. Howard (2010), however, refers to Labov (1972)’s observer’s paradox to warn about the limitations that observations can bring up to, for the presence of an observer ‘affects the very behaviour that is being observed’ (Howard, 2010, p.85). Allwright and Bailey (1991) suggest that by repeating observations, teachers being observed will eventually get used to the presence of an observer, so their practice will be natural.

I have so far referred to teachers as individual practitioners, yet their work is usually performed with other peers. Teachers share an identity with common challenges, learning from and with each other (Wenger et al., 2011). In the IC, teachers’ work is usually mostly collective outside the classroom, yet, as Borg (2006a) argues, TEs are ultimately the decision-makers determining in-classroom events. Regarding classroom practices, Breen et al. (2001, p. 489) indicate that teachers ‘as a group’ (italics in original) may show similar teaching practices based on shared principles, particularly if they share similar training backgrounds, which result in akin practices. However, Breen (2006) considers that ‘what may presently constitute ‘best practice’ is characterized by contradictions within the interventions themselves’ (Breen, 2006, p.205), responding to the beliefs-practice mismatch. These similar practices throws some light in understanding TEs’ work outside and inside the classroom in relation to their beliefs in the IEL context.

What is at play is how teachers inform their decision-making in the classroom. Quoting Atkinson and Claxton (2008), Breen (2006) examines that

intuitive practice typifies teachers’ immediate classroom decision making: their tacit knowledge that is evident in practice. This can be contrasted with the rational or analytical thinking that teachers may engage in when planning for classroom work and with the reflective thinking which entails learning from experiences that are inevitably contextualized within the teachers’ local circumstances (Breen, 2006, p.213 italics in original).

In this discussion, Breen refers to the balance of the local circumstances, and the type of thinking behind the immediate classroom decision-making. Classroom practices are the result of multiple factors that emerge in real time, which may not actually respond to what has been planned thoroughly, but more like teachers’ ‘gut instinct’, with no reflective thinking underpinning one’s actions. Although somehow idealistic, Breen (2006) proposes that the decision-making emerges as a result of ‘critically questioning their consensual beliefs, values and practices (ibid., p.221), where there is critical
evaluation among the colleagues to focus their attention on meaningful and sustainable actions.

In light of the social interaction in which teacher cognitions emerge and evolve, Burns et al. (2015, p.585) refer to teaching as a public and private activity. The combination of public and private experiences implies working with an ‘other’, by co-teaching, designing materials, and/or sharing the planning. The public activity includes classroom actions, routines, interactions, and behaviours, which are publicly accessible through observation (including video and audio recordings). The private one considers private mental work—planning, evaluating, reacting, deciding, which remain invisible to outsiders and beyond the reach of researchers. Although this latter dimension remains fairly personal, the actions emerging as a consequence of the private activity are reflected into the public sphere.

Teachers’ community of practices does not only discuss the planning and implementing the curriculum, but also reflect. Collective reflection is seen by Richards and Farrell (2011) as an opportunity since teachers can theorise their practices as they apply theory on them, and vice-versa, i.e. they can ponder on their experiences to look for meaning through classroom events. Mann and Walsh (2017) suggest dialogic reflection, for ‘it allows potentially richer articulation and analysis’ (Mann and Walsh, 2017, p.39), through the collaborative discussion with another colleague. Dialogic reflection aims at talking about the issues emerging in the classroom, to articulate understandings and experience in relation with the context – within and outside the classroom.

By situating cognitions in the classroom, where students and teachers collaborate, invites practitioners to ‘construct classroom-oriented theories of practice’, so they ‘generate location-specific, classroom-oriented innovative practices’ (Kumaravadivelu, 1994, p.29), so empowered teachers are needed to respond to their learners’ needs. However, the classroom as a collaborative space cannot only conceive teachers as the only actors. The collaboration between learners and teachers is encouraged, where both work ‘together to deepen understandings of the issues’ (Hanks, 2017a, p.8), and where learners are equally responsible for this process in a critical manner (Freire, 1970).

Johnson (2015) posits that teachers’ acting in the classroom is informed by their teacher education programmes and the school context where they work. These views define how teachers perceive themselves, their students, and the teaching and learning process. Their practices evidence what they are trying to achieve through them: ‘quality and character of the interactions, TEs’ own learning while teaching, and how this learning shapes their own learners’ learning environment’ (Johnson, 2010,
I interpret Johnson (2015) from the influence of teacher education in in-service teacher practices, and teachers’ own expectations of their practices in the real classroom. Teacher education influences on teachers’ practices is undeniable, for better or for worse. In the Chilean context, every single language teacher education programme serves the purpose of teaching English and teaching education, so they become the space where STs are modelled how to teach, and refine their teaching practices to be put in practice in the school classroom. In this regard, Johnson’s expectations on teacher practices may sound a bit idealistic, as some teachers may just want to thrive in the school classroom, and do not consider the quality of the interactions, nor their own learning, but just their learners.

Moving on into teachers talking about their cognitions, Kubanyiova and Feryok (2015, p.438-439) explain that teachers narrow their description to their struggles and motivations to a particular purpose and audience. In fact, what they decide to tell and how they tell it is limited by the context, hence, they filter ‘what they can, should, or even must be told about their selves, their students, and their teaching world’ (Kubanyiova and Feryok, 2015, p.439). This means that accessing what researchers need to find out about their cognitions is limited to their openness to the researchers, how comfortable and confident they feel to really express what they feel, think, and need to say (Borg, 2015). The role of the researcher is then to safeguard that space of trust built with teachers to ensure that teachers’ voices and experiences are heard, and that teachers just do not feel ‘utilised’ for research purposes.

In this section, I have explored the concept of teacher cognition considering the classroom as the setting where cognitions unfold, and social interaction as the main reason for cognitions to change. There is scarce literature that reports on teacher educators’ cognitions in the context of curriculum change. Borg (2015) states that there is much work needed to explore teachers’ cognitive change and behavioural change, bearing in mind that one does not imply the other, as teachers ‘may adopt and display particular behaviours without any accompanying change in their cognitions’ (Borg, 2015, p.326), e.g. in classroom observations. The next section explores the concept of change, considering the process of change, the perspective of teachers, and organizational learning.

### 3.5 Change

Nowadays, the word change is used in a diversity of contexts without really unpacking what the implications of a change project are. Some politicians use change as part of their campaigns without considering the feasibility of their proposals in a given context. Likewise, as in the Chilean context, the timespan between one change project and the other is very short, so not enough time is contemplated for projects to mature, let
people involved learn, or decide on adjustments to be put in place. At a national level, since the presidential term lasts four years with no immediate re-election, reforms that are in the design or early implementation stages do not always reach their end because project managers change, or projects are drastically modified.

To start with, it is important to clarify some conceptual differences between innovation and change. On the one hand, innovation has been defined by Hyland and Wong (2013, p.2) as ‘an idea, practice, or object perceived as new by an individual or other unit of adoption’, and as a process that ‘implies some deliberation and consciousness’ (op. cit.). Murray and Christison (2012, p.61) pose that ‘[innovation] results from deliberate efforts that are perceived as new, that are intended to bring about improvements, and that have the potential for diffusion’. In other words, innovation is the newness that can bring improvement to a context, and can be disseminated to others.

Change, on the other hand, is defined as the outcome of innovation. In Hyland and Wong (2013)’s words, ‘innovation, in other words, does not always mean change, or at least the kind of change that might have been intended’, whereas Murray and Christison (2012, p.61) define change as ‘predictable and inevitable, resulting in an alteration in the status quo but not necessarily in improvements’. Fullan (2007, p.23) formulates that ‘real change, whether desired or not, represents a serious personal and collective experience characterized by ambivalence and uncertainty’. Put differently, innovation could have unexpected results, may or may not bring improvements, and is usually surrounded by uncertainty.

With regard to contexts of change, the literature agrees that contexts cannot be fully described or compared (Hyland and Wong, 2013; Wedell and Malderez, 2013; Kennedy, 2013). Contexts show individual domains and characteristics that cannot be translated into a different one, so what is known about each setting will vary depending on what and how it is being looked at, and who looks at it. Despite the impossibility of fully describing a context, one can still learn from the experiences of others. Change does not necessarily need to start from scratch, as similarities between contexts can always be found, and therefore can help to inform other change projects.

In the next section, I explore educational change from different perspectives. I first start with the stages of curriculum change. I then continue with teacher change, to conclude with organizational change as a result of innovation.
3.5.1 The stages of educational change

The literature refers to the process of educational change from different perspectives that I attempt to address in this section. No matter what model one follows, it is almost impossible to capture the ‘the complexity of change, its messiness and its unpredictability’ (Kennedy, 2013, p.15). Starting from this premise, change is never unfolded the way it was conceptualised in written form, as it fully depends on the way the enablers interpret it (Fullan, 2007).

Change cannot be viewed as a single event, or a short-term process. Wedell (2009) states that successful educational change takes a long time, considering, e.g. students’ learning, changing people’s beliefs, the relations among colleagues, professional behaviours, receiving support to face the ‘newness’, among others. Wedell describes some features of educational change:

- It depends on people’s interpretation and actions to determine change success
- It is a medium to very long-term process
- It needs to be separated from politics
- It implies great personal and professional demands
- It can make people feel professionally or personally unconfident
- It requires the investment of a great deal of time and effort by large numbers of individuals
- People are more likely to make the effort if they see that the new practices have (or are likely to have) positive outcomes.

(Adapted from Wedell, 2009, p.20)

Based on the list above, most factors articulate the complexity of change with ‘people’. The ‘people’ feature cannot be separated from change. In the context of teacher education – only within a PRESET, at a glance, I think of teacher educators themselves, student teachers, the PRESET managers, university authorities (e.g. dean, president), school teachers acting as mentors, and school pupils learning with school teachers.

Regarding how change takes place, Fullan (2007, p.65) refers to curriculum change in three stages, i.e.

- Initiation: process which precedes the decision of change;
- Implementation: first experiences of the change in practice; and
- Institutionalization: the innovation sustainability.

These change stages are not linear, but rather cyclical and recursive, for they inform and depend on each other. This artificial division aids the understanding of each stage,
and their underpinning processes. Curriculum change requires a high degree of coordination, training, and willingness to adaptation. In the next section, I describe curriculum change stages.

3.5.1.1 Initiation of change

This stage, also called mobilization or adoption, details the process that leads to decide that a change is needed. The initiation stage establishes those responsible to initiate the change, i.e. determine the need of change, by making a needs analysis, and communicate with those (possible) affected by the change at any capacity. The decision making can be done by a single person or by a broader mandate (Fullan, 2007). Regardless of how it starts, Fullan details some factors that need to be considered when initiating change. First, the access to information by those affected by change, from pupils to parents, from administrative staff to governing officers. It depends on the extent of the change, how the information is available, in what capacity, and how accessible it is to those reaching and/or requiring it.

Second, the advocacy for change refers to those behind change, and lead it, either management or teacher staff. In the case of teachers’ advocacy, it requires some extent of support, particularly when there are more than one teacher involved due to time limitations, which hinder teacher-led innovation. Regardless, teachers are the leaders of change in their individual classrooms on a daily basis. However, successful classroom teacher-led change may not spread to other classrooms due to the lack of information, resources, resistance or time.

Third, the role of the community is crucial in the initiation of change. Fullan (2007) states that the community can play different roles, from putting pressure to initiate change to support, resist or be apathetic towards change. Fourth, the reaction to new policies and funds determine how organizations act towards new governmental decisions, which may or may not be related to the interests of educational organizations. Hence, the adoption of change can be decided when it is not necessary to change beliefs, or where the self-image of the institution is involved.

Regardless of the reasons behind change, Murray and Christison (2012, p.63) quote Stoler (2009)’s zone of innovation to describe the practicalities of a change project. They list a series of aspects to consider when deciding on change, enumerated below:

- compatibility: whether the innovation is sufficiently compatible with current practice
- complexity: whether the innovation is neither completely simple nor too complex
• explicitness: whether adopters are clear about exactly what the innovation involves
• flexibility: whether the innovation is sufficiently flexible for some variation in implementation to be possible
• originality: whether the innovation is not so novel that adopters do not understand it
• visibility: whether the innovation will increase the visibility of the organization positively.

These six factors underpin the thinking behind a change process. They consider the different actors that take part in change without mentioning them explicitly. Moreover, this framework assembles the feasibility and sustainability of change, drawing on the existing resources, adaptability of the actors, the accessibility of the information to those involved, and the face validity that the change implies outside an institution.

Looking at curriculum change, Wedell (2003, p.445) suggests that the design process has to consider the extent of cultural shift implied by the view of education in order to decide on the type of support to be provided to TEs and how long for (see 3.5.2). Freeman (2013, p.127) argues that the thinking behind change processes needs to be done by those doing the work, i.e. teachers and students. He describes teachers in this role, as the ‘implementational vehicle for the new activity and behaviour’. Particularly, each actor involved in the initiation stage has to be able to contribute, consider resources and the implications for each person involved before and during the implementation (Wedell, 2009). However, as mentioned earlier, no matter how much planning there is, there will be modifications and adjustments to the hoped-for changes as a result of the implementation, and shown in different manners, e.g. resistance to change, lack of resources, and staff turnover (hence the need to re-educate new comers).

3.5.1.2 Implementation

The classroom is the central space where innovation takes place: ultimately change needs to reach learners and their learning. Graves (2008, p.153) states that ‘what happens in classrooms is the core of curriculum. What happens in classrooms is the evolving relationship between teacher, learners and subject matter’. The classroom congregates both teachers and learners in the enactment of the curriculum, and where, ideally, they work together, empowered, to achieve the desired goals. Likewise, Borg (2006b, p.13) cites Elbaz (1981) asserting that ‘teachers pay a central autonomous role in shaping curricula, rather than a cog in the educational machine’. That said, the role that the implementers of change is critical, for them to make sense of it, and to reconceptualise their beliefs on teaching and learning, to ensure that they understand it in a similar way. Initiators, ideally, become allies with teachers in the
change process. Once implementation has started, they have to monitor how teachers are making sense of it (Wedell and Malderez, 2013), which is easier said than done. For example, Kiely and Rea-Dickins (2005) report on teachers showing change of strategies to respond to an evaluation, yet still maintaining the beliefs they originally adhered to.

Change will not be successful nor will it prevail in time if there is not a constant need of negotiation where all individuals meet and discuss their interests (Fullan, 1994). Constant dialogue among all participants becomes fundamental as the process goes by to inform decisions and adjustments. Wenger (1998) points out that people who do not participate in producing a product that they are expected to use will interpret it according to their own beliefs, understanding and needs. During the implementation stage, the implementers put their interpretations of the change in place. As Freeman (2013, p.131) puts it, ‘people do what makes sense to them’.

Teachers are almost always the ones enabling change, and they are influenced by the actions of other actors involved in change, to different extents. For example, Wedell (2009) mentions local educational leaders, institutional leaders, teacher educators, colleagues, learners, parents and the wider community as actors that play roles in the implementation process. Their roles, to different degrees, shape teachers’ experience of change. I would like to concentrate on the role of teacher educators as part of those who influence teachers’ experience of change. Wedell (2009, p.30) considers that TEs are responsible for providing teachers with formal and informal opportunities to develop the understandings and abilities needed to begin to try out new practices in their classroom. Their own understanding of the changes of what they imply for teachers’ practices, together with their professional understanding of how teachers’ learn, will critically influence the value of the support they are able to give.

In the case of TEs experiencing change, the role of TEs teaching future teachers changes as they need to be making sense of the newness, while putting the change in place with student teachers. Henceforth, they are learning about change while implementing it, becoming, somehow, into a trial and error process, whose results are to be observed in the work of student teachers in school classrooms.

The implementation stage is seen as a public performance and backstaging by Waters and Vilches (2013). They believe that the public appearance of change seems to be a well-thought through planning. On the other hand, the backstaging perspective involves the work behind the scenes of change. In their words, backstaging consists of:
the politicking, the wheeler-dealing, the fixing and negotiating, the coalition building and trade-off - which typically cannot be openly discussed in the organization without damaging individual credibility or the legitimacy of the change attempt. (Waters and Vilches, 2013, p.59).

Waters and Vilches’ description of what takes place ‘behind the scenes’ seems to be like a ‘dirty job’ to achieve a major goal, i.e. how the give and take of negotiations to achieve change unfolds. It seems to me that decision-making at this stage is carried out by those with more power positions that try to persuade lower-powered people to keep the trustworthiness of the change in the external world.

In turn, Fullan (2007) refers to the implementation as a variable: ‘if the change is a potentially good one, success (…) will depend on the degree and quality of change in the actual practice’ (Fullan, 2007, p. 85). The degree and quality of change depend on the new materials, teaching (and learning) practices, and beliefs (both teacher and students). The variables involved in the implementation of change are several. The characteristics of change, i.e. need, clarity, complexity, and quality, constitute essential factors for change to success. Fullan (2007) states that those involved in change need to perceive that both the needs are meaningful, and that the actions to meet that need are tangible. Likewise, the clarity about the goals and means constitute a critical issue, particularly for those implementing it.

Teachers implementing change may not necessarily understand why the change is needed, what the newness is about, and how they are expected to put change in practice. It is not about prescribing change, for it causes anxiety, frustration, and resistance, but understanding the complexity of change. Complexity is defined as ‘the difficulty and extent of change required of the individuals responsible for implementation’ (Fullan, 2007, p.90). In this regard, complexity unveils as skills, beliefs, teaching (and learning) strategies, and materials. According to Fullan, small changes may not make a big difference, but more complex changes give a sense of bigger accomplishment, although they demand more effort, and in case of failure, that can cause frustration.

I partially disagree with Fullan, for I believe that small changes, or small adjustments in daily teachers’ lives can actually make a significant difference in their quality of life. I do not think that change needs to be enormous. I believe that smaller, yet meaningful changes, although unnoticed externally, can provide a better quality of life to teachers, and therefore, learners. Quality of life, as understood by Gieve and Miller (2006b), is co-constructed between teachers and learners in specific contexts to have a deeper understanding of the classroom as a space that is part of our lives. Quality of classroom life, in the words of Allwright (2006) matters because it
is itself the most important matter, both for the long-term mental health of humanity (and the mental health of the language teacher!), and for the sake of encouraging people to be lifelong learners, rather than people resentful of having to spend years of their lives as ‘captive’ learners, and therefore put off further learning for life (Allwright, 2006, p.15).

The quality of life in the classroom, then, influences people’s attitudes to change, learning, development, and humanness to make it a space to share, embrace, and care for.

On the quality and practicality of change, which refer to the nature of the change, decision makers should look at the conditions for adopting change before its implementation, e.g. if there are new materials, or if training is needed. However, when the timeline between the initiation and the implementation stages is too short, there is little time to plan for and provide the conditions for change to happen, as it occurred in the IC.

Planning and providing the conditions for change to happen are deeply connected to the current situation of the context where change is to be implemented. Wedell (2009) calls for change that matches the local realities, which implies learning about:

- Teachers’ current practices
- Class sizes
- Resources and teaching materials
- Demands of high-stake assessment
- Provision of teacher development personnel and opportunities
- Awareness of, and a positive attitude to, new practices on the part of the wider society in the area (parents)
- Money

(Wedell, 2009, pp.31-32)

According to Wedell above, learning about what the current state of affairs and resources of the local context has to include the perspectives of all the actors involved in the educational change. Moreover, the role, actions, knowledge, and beliefs of teachers, once again, need to be revised and taken into account in the decision making. In this regard, Wedell (op. cit.) highlights some of the areas in which teachers’ involvement embraces change, in a recursive way:

- Developing an understanding of classroom practice: what change means and why change is worth introducing
- Introducing new practices considering teachers’ current level of understanding.
Trying out new practices with in the classroom
Learning what happens when doing so: feedback from learners, colleagues, mentors.

(Wedell, 2009, p.32)

Teachers’ follow up and support when implementing change is critical at this stage, yet again, it is easier said than done. Not every institution that implements change has the physical, or economic resources to support teachers outside the classroom, to learn about their previous/expected knowledge about the change and the classroom practices, and offering/receiving feedback. This recursive cycle could be repeated several times until teachers are confident about what they are doing. Hence looking at classroom practices, and the backstaging stage, as Waters and Vilches (2013), call it, is important to inform the way that change unfolds, the nature of the support needed, and to justify adjustments to the change.

3.5.1.3 Institutionalisation

This last stage is also called continuation or routinization, and refers when the change is no longer seen as new, but it has become part of the routine, and it has been (somehow) accepted by the different people involved in the process. Projects that reach this stage have rarely followed their original plan, as multiple adjustments have needed to be put in place during the previous stages (Wedell, 2009).

Reaching this stage is itself another decision. Those who initiated and implemented change need to determine if the change has become part of the existing structure (budget, materials, policies) and routine of a programme, and if it has provided training and commitment to those enacting it (including newcomers) (Fullan, 2007). In this transition, the implementers are encouraged to increase their responsibilities until they reach the ownership of their projects (Waters and Vilches, 2013, p.62). Most importantly, this stage is where the meaning of change – cognitive and affective - is found. Fullan (2007, pp.104-105 italics in original) asserts:

*Individuals working in interaction with others* who have to develop new meaning, and these individuals and groups are insignificant parts of a gigantic, loosely organized, complex, messy social system that contains myriad different subjective worlds.

The success of change depends on the combination of all the factors mentioned in this section, where all the change actors and their circumstances within their local and global context are unified (again easier said than done). Change is indeed possible. It is not looking for ‘the silver bullet’ (Fullan, 2007, p.125), but understanding one’s context, being critical of the past and present experiences to inform whether change is
feasible, realistic and timely on each individual circumstances, and in conjunction with all those involved.

Unfortunately, change projects have a great deal of ‘expectation’ to happen, simply because they are on paper, or there are allocated resources. Change is not a miracle, and as I have reviewed in this section, the aspirations for change depend on an intricate network of factors. Similarly, change is not a one-size-fit-all situation, which means that ‘borrowing’ change projects from one country, school, or classroom does not mean that it will work in another location. Fullan (2007, p.5) calls this borrowing the ‘adoption era’. I am aware that this thesis aims to inform about one particular change project in a PRESET programme, and my learning and suggestions may not be translated in all contexts, but my hope is that my contribution to the field provides insights to those contemplating radical change in PRESET contexts, with a particular focus on teacher educators as the implementers of change.

3.5.2 Teacher change

Teachers, as enactors of change, play a fundamental role when implementing innovation. I cannot conceive the implementation of change without teachers or students. On the contrary, teachers are the cornerstone to any decision-making in the classroom. Teacher change, henceforth, is critical to understand how change takes place and it is unpacked as part of the process of change. Below, I draw on some areas which influence teacher change, and have been developed in this chapter (adapted from Murray and Christison (2012)):

- **Teacher language awareness:** The importance of teachers’ knowledge of and about the language, and how they are learned to inform their teaching, considering teachers’ language proficiency, understanding language systems, and managing language learning.
- **Knowledge about language:** Teachers’ knowledge about the forms and functions of language systems: syntax, morphology, phonology, pragmatics and semantics (Murray and Christison, 2012, p.62). Teachers’ metalanguage aids them to understand both theirs and their learners’ linguistic processes.
- **Pedagogical expertise:** Development of pedagogical expertise is a sophisticated and complex endeavour that is cognitive in nature and develops from one’s practice (Murray and Christison, 2012, p.68).
- **Subject matter expertise:** In contexts where there is content integration, e.g. CLIL, teaching contents through English is a challenging task for teachers. Therefore, teachers either have to develop an expertise on the content area, or collaborate with content teachers.
Taking this list into the perspective of policy makers or initiators, the expectations that they have about English language teachers are high and challenging. In addition to implementing change, teacher educators often need to lead their actions to respond to external measurements as standards or high-stake examinations, which may not necessarily be aligned with the change being implemented. Therefore, teacher educators find themselves at a crossroad trying to respond to their own beliefs, their local educational context, and the wider (city, country, world) contexts that surround them.

Teachers are rarely involved in decisions or policy. Educational change is usually top-down and it does not consult the ones who enable those changes. As such, Fullan (2007) argues that teachers are in the midst of a difficult scenario since they usually do not have a clear space of participation nor an active voice. In this setting, Wedell (2009) outlines that teacher change may involve new teaching approaches and materials involving learners in discussion and interaction, as it is intended in the IC, and developing a new classroom atmosphere where learners feel encouraged to make contributions. Yet this is not an easy task. Wedell (2009, p.34) suggests that teachers ‘will probably only be able to see the reform goals through the lenses of their existing beliefs and understandings’; thus, their cognitions need to be acknowledged and by policy-makers to inform decisions.

However, some teachers prefer to stay in their comfort zone by resisting innovation when they do not seem to agree with it for various reasons. Borg (2006b, p.77) states that teachers prefer to ‘stick to known materials and familiar teaching approaches’, even if there are new materials or techniques are promoted. Breen (2006) states that there are four areas in which teachers’ work is being challenged:

- The knowledge we may apply: knowledge of the subject/ knowing how to teach the subject.
- The ways we may teach: how pedagogic knowledge is being adjusted to deal with uncertainties in the context.
- Our accountability: adapting to new measures of education, including the ‘re-skilling’ of experienced teachers. It is more important to respond to benchmarks than the interpersonal sensitive aims of education.
- Working conditions: contractual insecurity of language teachers, having to undertake more than one job.

(Adapted from Breen (2006))

All these reasons also constitute areas of concern, and therefore could lead to resistance to innovation by teachers. I believe the greatest fear is to the ‘unknown’, e.g. new practices, materials, expectations, and regulations exerts the greatest influence on teachers’ beliefs and practices. In addition, external evaluations and
situations where the face validity of the change are put at stake give great uncertainty to those implementing and being accountable for the results of change.

In relation to resistance to change, and in line with teacher cognitions, Festinger coins the term cognitive dissonances. He defines cognition as ‘any knowledge, opinion, or belief about the environment, about oneself, or about one’s behaviour’ (Festinger, 1962, p.3). On the other hand, dissonances is ‘a situation involving conflicting attitudes, beliefs or behaviours’ (Festinger, 1962, p.25). Cognitive dissonances are relevant to the discussion of educational change and resistance to change, for they illustrate what people can feel or experience when facing something new. In the initiation of change stage, cognitive dissonances may be manifested by any actor involved in this stage, in an active or passive role (as initiator or receiver of change). To reduce dissonances, Festinger suggests changing beliefs, opinions, or behaviours that are involved in this dissonance. This implies increasing the existing consonance by acquiring new information to reduce or decrease the dissonance.

Rationalizing can also reduce dissonance. To do so, support from others is needed, even though those others can also be experimenting dissonances, as an act of blinding themselves to what is causing the dissonance (Festinger, 1962, pp.26-28).

Feeling discomfort can be felt by both initiators and receivers, i.e. those trying to conceptualise change, understand it and then apply it into their daily actions. The act of blinding oneself as proposed by Festinger may be more common than we would think, reflected by teachers following instructions that may not really agree with, and somehow putting their heads in the sand. Therefore, they put their own beliefs at test, when their actions do not reflect what they really think.

In this section, I have explored some of the conditions that teachers face when experimenting change themselves. I speak about teachers’ expected knowledge and practices in a context experimenting change. I also refer to teacher resistance and cognitive dissonances as factors hindering teacher change. In relation to the IEL context, the newness of this strand implies a great cultural shift to what language teachers do to teach the subject knowledge in the way the IEL has conceptualised it.

In the following section, I document factors related to organizational learning and change management.
3.5.3 Organizational learning and managing change

Although it may sound obvious, organizations carrying out change need managers who are committed to and knowledgeable about change. There are some overlapping concepts between curriculum change and organizational learning since, through change, organizations’ participants (ought to) experience learning. As complex systems, organizations are in constant movement, particularly when facing change. That said, transformation would ideally become a learning opportunity for everyone involved. Silins et al. (2002, pp.616-617) identify some factors that help participants’ learning to occur:

- participative decision making
- shared commitment and collaborative activity
- knowledge and skills
- leadership
- giving feedback
- focusing on learning needs
- collaborative climate
- Shared and monitored mission, among others.

However, institutions leading or implementing change are unlikely able to provide all these conditions to their actors. Silins et al. (2002) represent an aspirational scenario, as educational institutions take longer to move on and respond to emerging needs. Although change is certainly possible, if leadership is not strong enough or does not consistently coordinate the various aspects of change there will always be issues around the implementation.

Consequently, for innovation to occur, participants in an organization need to develop a formal support framework which establishes horizontal and open dialogue between the staff and teachers. Fullan (2007, p.149) recalls that learning communities have to have ‘structural and cultural conditions’ to promote reflection, collaboration and, most importantly, focus on students’ learning.

Smylie (1995, p.107) suggests seven conditions for an optimal school learning environment, listed below:

Teacher collaboration;
Shared power and authority;
Egalitarianism among teachers;
Variation, challenge, autonomy and choice in teachers’ work;
Organizational goals and feedback mechanisms;
Integration of work and learning; and
Accessibility of external sources of learning.

These characteristics present a comprehensive view of the support network that should ideally be provided by contexts undergoing change. All these suggestions embed collaborative tasks between teachers, and between teachers and change managers. These recommendations see teachers as a learner being, as part of collaboration, as change is a shared enterprise and, as mentioned earlier, teachers’ actions are mediated by the actions of other members of the community to a greater or lesser extent, consciously or unconsciously.

In the context of newly-qualified teachers, Farrell (2003) defines some stages which might be relevant to newcomers to a change project: (1) idealism and identification with students, (2) reality shock in the classroom, (3) recognition of their difficulties and questioning to succeed as a teacher, (4) adjusting to school culture, inside and outside the classroom, and (5) focusing on students’ learning. In change, these stages would inform the initiators to support and decide on possible adjustments to change. From a mentoring perspective Hobson and Malderez (2013) refer to support to newly qualified teachers, or in this case, teachers facing change, where mentors act as 'gatekeepers to the profession' (Hobson and Malderez, 2013, p.12), supporting newcomers in the understanding of a new context and activity. What Hobson and Malderez advocate is that mentors are not related to assessment of the mentee. It is not surveillance, they say, nor is it telling mentees what to do, or how to do things. The support that mentors do is by learning to observe the classroom and the educational space from different perspectives by posing questions that help reading the different layers of the context. To me, what happens before newcomers get into the classroom is critical to provide them the tools to understand and face the newness, so new TEs are prepared in a preventive and not a reactive manner. Most importantly, that initial support has to be transformed into a sustainable and collective practice to enhance the teacher and students’ experiences.

In the same vein, there needs to be concrete support for those participants who resist the changes, as it should be expected when implementing a radical project. Resisters to change cannot be simply dismissed, and made redundant at the end of a semester. I see resistance as a learning opportunity to review and inform the way change has been outlined. Resisters’ beliefs and practices can call for learners’ own resistance to accept the change. I believe in a collective learning experience where all actors – teachers, learners, policy makers - collaborate towards a common aim in a sustainable manner, for change will always encounter resistance and turbulence.
Resistance can be addressed by reculturing. Fullan (2014b, p.44) states that reculturing involves

changing the norms, values, incentives, skills, and relationships in the organization to foster a different way of working together. Reculturing makes a difference in teaching and learning.

The fact that reculturing is grounded in relationships, implies emotional support by everyone involved. As Fullan (ibid.) puts it, ‘it contributes to personal and collective resilience in the face of change’. The change leaders, then, have to be understanding, and look at the greater success of change, leaving differences aside and learning to disagree. The challenge when implementing change that originates from the bottom-up instead of being imposed by an external entity is that change leaders also need to support their ‘own reculturing’ (Wedell, 2009, p.41 italics in original). To the same extent, in LTE, teacher educators have to be supported in the process of change, which would be reflected, for example, into peer support at PRESET.

Wedell (2009, p.39) suggests change managers to (re)consider change from their leading point of view, to prepare, act, and reflect on the actions and implications of change to:

- Recognize that change is going to be a long-term (if not permanent) feature of people’s daily working life, and that therefore organizational systems need to become more flexible.
- Develop an organizational atmosphere in which individuals feel encouraged to contribute their ideas about how support the change process and take personal initiative.
- Develop new channels of communication within and between schools and offices in order to share the burden of change, and learn from each other’s experiences of trying to implement it.
- Develop ways of helping their staff feel as comfortable as possible with the new administrative, organizational and teaching practices that change will demand.
- Actively encourage their staff to cooperate in developing their understanding of and confidence in the new practices.

As said earlier, change initiators or managers will not necessarily have the required skills or knowledge to address all these actions. Therefore, delegation in reliable and committed actors is critical to support the change process. As Waters and Vilches (2013, p.62 italics in original) put it, ‘the measure of successful management is not so much what managers themselves do, but rather, what they enable others to do’. 
In this section, I examined some key areas of organisational learning and change management. Resistance is a concomitant issue in change management, and so is time – time to understand, act, and react. I concluded with some support strategies that can lead to sustainable change in time.

3.6 Research on the Chilean ELT context

Research on the Chilean ELT context is emerging and becoming more known and accessible by the ELT community. In this section, I explore some of the main areas of research, with a particular focus on Chilean teacher education.

RICELT (Red de investigadores Chilenos en ELT - Network of Chilean researchers in ELT) is a non-profit and voluntary-led association, born in 2014. The objectives in this network are to:

- make ELT Chilean research more visible and accessible.
- bridge between Chilean ELT researchers and governmental institutions (EODP) and associations / agencies like IATEFL Chile, TESOL, American Embassy regional language office, British Council, etc.
- promote dialogue and collaboration among different ELT actors in Chile.
- promote and share teacher-research initiatives (Aliaga et al., 2015, p. 34).

For this purpose, RICELT compiled the most complete collection of publications written about the Chilean ELT context (RICELT, 2017). Although not all the listed articles are research-based, they provide a clear picture of the areas of focus of the available publications. There are three main areas: pre-service teacher education, in-service teacher education, and adults and young learners. For the purpose of this review, I focus on those related to pre-service and in-service teacher’s beliefs, and to curriculum change.

3.6.1 Pre-service teacher’s beliefs

Pre-service teachers’ beliefs have been explored from various perspectives, with a particular emphasis at the practicum as a space of learning. Barahona (2014) explores both the perspectives of TEs and STs in their perception of teaching and knowledge, in terms of what a teacher should know and should be able to do. In this study, she investigates a PRESET programme in Santiago, Chile, with a similar structure to the IC. TEs report that they expect their STs to become agents of change and to make a difference at the schools. They also state that the English language proficiency is seen as the most important feature for a teacher of English, so English is seen as a means of instruction, and as the core of this PRESET. On the other hand, STs see teaching as a social mission, where they can make a significant difference to their future students. Agreeing with TEs, STs suggest that language proficiency is seen as the
most important feature of a teacher of English, and acknowledge the need for professional development. STs value their school-based experiences in the way that they have shaped their teachers’ selves.

Blázquez Entonado and Tagle Ochoa (2010) discuss the experience of STs in their school practicum and their beliefs, looking at their host teachers and STs. Host teachers appear to have traditional language teaching expectations compared to STs’. Likewise, based on their own experiences as language learners at schools, some STs also manifest traditional views of language teaching. Both perspectives show that strong beliefs persevere. However, the teaching practicum appears to be a meaningful experience to change STs’ beliefs provided practicums are a supportive system instead of a rigid one.

Tagle Ochoa et al. (2017a) explore STs’ beliefs about the roles of teachers and learners in two Chilean PRESETs. Findings show that STs see teachers as a facilitator of teaching and learning and in aiding their learners to build their own learners, seeming to be related to a constructivist view of education. STs also see teachers as a knowledge transmitter, i.e. teaching, ensuring their students learn, and dealing with discipline issues and language specialists.

Díaz Larenas et al. (2016) look at STs’ beliefs in light of STs’ lesson planning and implementation. In this descriptive study, Díaz Larenas et al. look at the planning and implementation of STs’ lessons during their school-based experiences, in their third and fifth year of training, in three different PRESETs in Chile. Following the Ministry of Education’s suggested guidelines for planning, they evidence some expected deficiencies, mainly on third-year students, on their (applied) knowledge about planning and evaluating their teaching. Researchers advise that STs’ main challenges when planning are considering classroom management, and determining lesson objectives and assessment for learning. They conclude that STs’ lack of knowledge about the language and proficiency impacts on their teaching practice as STs are unable to fully respond to their students’ emerging needs when teaching.

### 3.6.2 In-service teacher’s beliefs

There is little research that focuses on in-service teacher’s beliefs in the Chilean context. The existent literature explores resistance from school teachers and students, and in-service teachers and CPD. In terms of language and ideologies, Menard-Warwick (2013) discusses the influence of English with a group of teachers in the north of Chile. Teachers perceive English as a trend that is promoted by the government as the language of globalisation, yet English is still not learned by the vast majority of the population. In terms of beliefs and CPD, Rebolledo (2013) explores the change of
beliefs of a group of teachers taking part of an action research project led by the English Opens Doors programme. This study emphasises the need of reculturing among decision makers in terms of their understanding of teachers’ professional status and the context in their classroom to empower them, with contextually-relevant practices.

There are only two papers that explore teacher educators’ cognitions and are a result of a research project between three regional universities, carried out between 2012 and 2015. This study focuses on monitoring student-teachers’ cognitions as part of their teacher education. Díaz Larenas and Solar Rodriguez (2011) report on teacher educators’ pedagogical and linguistic beliefs about a teacher of English. Results show that TEs mainly focus on having a good proficiency level. Similarly, they highlight the importance of CPD, autonomy and reflection, although they report that reflection is unfrequent. In relation to improving the teaching of English in Chile, they suggest to be more self-critical, team work, and autonomy, and to reduce the academic load, and the number of students per classroom. The second study (Díaz Larenas et al., 2012) looks at the beliefs of primary, secondary, and higher education language teachers. This research reveals fragmented views from school to university teachers, in the way they teach and assess language learning, as well as what they believe it is the ideal and what they do in the classroom. Whereas school teachers prefer a more fragmented way of language teaching and assessment, university teachers report a more integrated way of teaching and assessing language. This study suggests that teacher educators’ views on language teaching and learning are not followed by in-service teachers, which suggests that student-teachers do not fully understand and make sense of these concepts while training to be teachers.

### 3.6.3 Curriculum change

Research on curriculum change is scarce in the Chilean ELT context. There are two papers focused on teacher education curriculum change, which inform the origin of the Integrated Curriculum (Farias and Abrahams, 2008; Abrahams and Farias, 2010). In these papers, Abrahams and Farias explore the challenges of change in the Chilean context, and the resistance that is faced when trying to introduce innovation. In the context of introducing ICT in language teacher education, as a curricular innovation in a pre-service teacher education programme in Santiago, Charbonneau-Gowdy (2014) discusses that there is a divorce between policy and practice. Decision makers are not aware of the pros and cons of the use of ICT, suggesting that ‘it takes enormous pressure and commitment to change the teacher education institutions ‘trajectories which are shared characteristics in any change project (Charbonneau-Gowdy, 2014, p.44).
This brief account of the Chilean ELT research offers an general overview of the recurrent research topics. Likewise, it indicates some gaps in the literature, such as teacher education curriculum; the role of stakeholders in the EFL policy, the school and its actors; teacher educators’ beliefs and practices in pre- and in-service teacher education, and the implications of the previously mentioned research in practice. For the purpose of this thesis, the most relevant studies are Barahona (2015); Díaz Larenas and Solar Rodríguez (2011); Tagle Ochoa et al. (2017b); Abrahams and Fariñas (2010), which delve into topics of curriculum change, resistance, and teacher educator’s beliefs. The issue of LTE curriculum change from the perspective of teacher educators remains unexplored. This thesis seeks to address this gap in the literature in the Chilean LTE context.

3.7 Conclusion

In this chapter, I have examined the relevant literature that underpins this research. I have first explored the theoretical foundations of the Integrated English Language strand, including backward design, CLIL, CALLA, the lexical and task-based approaches. I have also turned my attention to critical pedagogy as the backbone of the IEL strand and the integrated curriculum as a whole. Within these areas, the literature analysis reveals that there are some gaps, for example, teacher preparation to teach CLIL, particularly focused on the subject-knowledge, as reported by Paran (2013). The melange represented by the IEL underpinnings and the challenges that integrating them into the classroom in LTE merit further research.

I have presented several perspectives and raised several issues regarding teacher education. This chapter looked at the practices of L2 teacher education from the point of view of teacher educators. Secondly, I delved into the profile of language teacher educators, emphasising the need of being critical, knowledgeable of their context, and the context where their student teachers will work, and also managers of their own learning. I concluded this section by exploring language for language teacher educators, defining TEs’ expected knowledge and skills – in relation to the IEL strand. As suggested by Johnson (2015), there is a need for ‘empirical attention to the design, enactment, and outcomes of the practices of L2 teacher education’ (Johnson, 2015, p.526).

Teacher cognition is a well-established domain of research activity (Borg, 2006b). I have referred to how teacher cognitions are shaped, and the importance of the social context in changing beliefs. I have also spoken about the (mis)match between beliefs and practices However, teachers’ beliefs, reported and actual practices in the context of curriculum change and LTE has been overlooked (Watson Todd, 2006; Zheng and Borg, 2014). Crookes (2015) argues that there is little research on what critical
language teachers know or believe, or what they develop, as well their understandings of their professional knowledge. Having TEs as the centre of attention, returns TEs ‘the right to speak for and about teaching (...)’ for ‘those [teachers’] voices can raise issues of complexity and messiness in understanding teaching’ (Freeman, 2002, p.10).

A growing body of literature has examined educational change. There is agreement that change is complex, and largely relies on the willingness and commitment of those involved. Educational change requires people to understand what the change is about, require their adaptability and sometimes changing beliefs to be able to achieve the desired goals. However, educational change fails when the communication has among those involved has not succeeded, and when there is lack of forward planning.

Research is needed to further investigate educational change that involves student teachers actively. In this sense, this thesis aims at addressing the gap that this literature review has evidenced. I intend to raise awareness of involving all actors in educational change particularly when aimed to be bottom up. As Kubanyiova and Feryok (2015) put it, research on language teacher cognition may contribute to better understand teachers, teaching, more importantly, putting that knowledge in service to the educational community. In my case, teacher educators’ cognitions in the context of pre-service teacher education educational change.

In the Chilean context, there is little research that fully focuses on teacher educators. Instead, research focuses on pre-service teachers and teacher education as a generic (Cisternas, 2011). The ELT literature refers to mainly pre- and in-service teacher education as areas of concern, but the attention is mostly on student teachers and in-service teachers, but not so much on who is in charge of their education. This thesis also aims at narrowing that gap.

Through this literature review, I examined the existing literature on the underpinnings of the IEL strand, language teacher education, teacher cognitions, educational change, and the Chilean ELT context. In this analysis, I have identified some gaps in the literature which provides the rationale for this research. In order to address these gaps, I put forward four research questions:

1. What are teacher educators’ understandings of the IC and the exit profile?
2. How do TEs implement the IC in the integrated English language classroom?
3. What impact has teacher educators’ experience had on the planning and implementation processes and on student teachers’ understanding of the IC?
4. How does the Chilean educational context, for which the IC is educating language teachers, influence the organization and content of the Integrated Curriculum?

In the next chapter, I turn to discuss the methodological aspects of this research.
Chapter 4 Methodology

4.1 Introduction

In this chapter, I present my research design and methodology in order to address the research questions. I begin with the ontological and epistemological perspectives that underpin my research, and myself as a researcher. I continue by describing the research design and an overview of this case study. Then I explore the research process itself: the participants, the data generation process, the research adjustments, and the data analysis. I conclude by examining ethical issues, and how I tried to ensure the trustworthiness of this study.

4.2 My research stance

A paradigm is defined as a ‘set of very general philosophical assumptions about the nature of the world (ontology) and how we can understand it (epistemology)’ (Maxwell, 2009, p.224). Both ontology and epistemology are present in a research process.

In this research, I start by the premise that I believe that education is a participative process since, ideally, all actors – learners, teachers, curriculum designers, stakeholders, parents, etc. - get actively involved to target better opportunities for everyone. As such, I adopt Critical Theory as my research paradigm. Critical theory is defined as the use of dialectic, reason, and ethics as means to study the conditions under which people live (Budd, 2008). According to Budd, critical theory research critiques the current state and what it is needed to reach a desired state. With the spirit of transformation, critical theory examines action and motivation, i.e. what is done and why it is done, and examines factors that allow and/or hinder emancipation. Critical theory allows the researcher to assess honesty and truth in what people ‘say they believe in and what they do’ (Budd, 2008, p.177).

Denzin and Lincoln (2018, p.102) describe critical theorists’ work as the critique of the ‘normalized notions of democracy, freedom, opportunity structures, and social justice’, and the reflection on different systems of oppression. Based on the work of Freire (1970), new critical theorists advocate for a critical humility (Denzin and Lincoln, 2018, p.103 italics in original), inspired by the belief that western societies are not ‘unproblematically democratic and free’. They call for teachers and students to become critical researchers, focusing on critical emancipation, media, language, and power. This approach searches for practical knowledge that is that is historically situated and
produces meaningful actions through the community participation. In this framework, researchers become participants and participants researchers, so both students and teachers are part of the inquiry, e.g. through action research (Burns, 2010), exploratory practices (Allwright and Hanks, 2008), and exploratory action research (Rebolledo et al., 2016).

Critical theory is deeply connected with social justice. As such, power, politics, voice and action are the key tenets of critical theory, examined by Miller (2008), as summarised below:

- **Power**: The uneven distribution of power in society affects all those who do not belong to the dominant race, class, gender, religion, sexual orientation, and/or ability groups. It searches for a more even distribution of power, and raise awareness of the power structure.
- **Politics**: It fights against injustice targeting the system on the whole, looking for the reasons of inequality, and openly calls for a public discussion of transformation.
- **Voice**: It gives voice to those groups that have been silenced by oppression to raise awareness of the oppression and lead to transformative actions.
- **Action**: Its research looks for critique and transformation, and encourages change. It seeks for an increasing understanding of issues of equity and justice and it calls for a more participative research.

Miller (2008)’s description of critical theory and social justice aligns with the aims of this research. The IC and its exit profile pursues transformation, reducing inequity and forming critical citizens, through the teacher educators’ practices. This research aims at giving a strong voice to TEs and student teachers in the understanding and implementation of curriculum change. The research questions focus on the internal and external contexts of the IC, seeking for the interaction of the different actors involved in the process of curriculum change to provide an informed and comprehensive view of the change process.

### 4.3 Research approach and design

This study adopts a qualitative research approach. According to Creswell (2014, p.4), ‘qualitative research is an approach for exploring and understanding the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem’. By engaging in qualitative research, researchers focus on an individual meaning and the thorough understanding of a situation. Within qualitative research, this study follows a case study design. Stake (2005, p.xi) defines a case study as ‘the study of the particularity and complexity of a single case, coming to understand its activity within important circumstances’. A case study research is not a methodology, but a choice of what is
to be studied, highlighting the complexity of the case, where researchers need constant input of the research community, as the study of a case is situated within a system that defines the context. Stake (1995) posits that a case is

- holistic, i.e. the relation between the case and its context;
- empirical, i.e. the study is based on the field;
- interpretative, i.e. the research is a research-subject interaction; and
- emphatic, i.e. reflects the indirect experiences of the subjects from an insider perspective.

Alternatively, Yin (2014) poses a two-folded definition for a case study stating that it is an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon in depth and within its real-world context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context may not be clearly evident (Yin, 2014, p.16).

He then refers to its methodological characteristics:

A case study inquiry copes with the technically distinctive situation in which there will be many more variables of interest that data points, and as one result; relies on multiple sources of evidence, with data needing to converge in a triangulating fashion, as an another result, benefits from the prior development of theoretical propositions to guide data collection and analysis’ (Yin, 2014, p.17).

Yin (2014) and Stake (1995)’s views differ. Yin presents a more structured and controlled perspective to case study, where the researcher is independent from the researched, whereas Stake acknowledges the complexity of the case when trying to understand phenomena by the interaction of the researcher with the case. Other views of case studies are posed by Merriam (2002, p.8), who outlines a case study as ‘an intensive description and analyses of a phenomenon or social unit such as an individual, group, institution, or community’. Creswell (2007, p.97) defines a case study as an exploration of a ‘real-life, contemporary bounded system (a case) […] over time, through detailed, in-depth data collection involving multiple sources of information […], and reports a case description and case themes’ (Creswell, 2007, p.97 italics in original). These four definitions by Stake, Yin, Merriam, and Creswell coincide in thoroughly examining a phenomenon in detail within a specific context.

This research is an embedded single case study. This single-case study involves different units of analysis at more than one level (Yin, 2018), as illustrated in Figure 9 below:
This case study is divided into three levels. Firstly, The Integrated Curriculum is a pre-service language teacher education programme, constituting the first level of analysis. The IC is situated in the Chilean educational teacher education context, including the governmental expectations for graduate language teachers and the needs of the school system. The IC embeds values and teaching and learning principles that are to be developed and enacted by all the curricular strands and their actors.

The second level is the integrated English language strand, since it involves most of the teacher educators working in the programme, and takes up most teaching hours of the curriculum. The IC actors, i.e. permanent staff, teacher educators, and student teachers, constitute the third level of analysis. I focus on their perspectives, which I explore as single-case studies, presented as individual, yet overlapping, chapters. Each participant group contributes to a different viewpoint of the IC implementation. Language teacher educators are at the centre since they mediate the implementation of the curriculum between the permanent staff’s expectations and student teachers’ interpretation of the IC in the classroom. Creswell (2012) refers to this model as a multiple instrumental case study where different cases throw light on a single issue. By building up all the IC’s actors’ perspectives and experiences, I expect to have a broader understanding of the IC implementation in the context of LTE in Chile.

I chose the integrated curriculum as a case study for convenience purposes. As mentioned in Chapter 1, I was a staff member and teacher educator at the IC. A convenience sample is defined as a ‘sample in which research participants are selected based on their ease of availability’ (Saumure and Given, 2008, p.124). The literature advises that convenience samples may lack transferability as results may not be generalizable to larger populations. Since case studies focus on the study of a particular group of situation, researchers need to offer thick description, i.e. provide as much detail as possible to corroborate findings (Cohen et al., 2011).
My research also has features of purposeful sampling. Purposeful sampling is where ‘researchers hand-pick the cases to be included in the sample on the basis of their judgement of their typicality or possession of the particular characteristics being sought’ (Cohen et al., 2011, p.156). Within purposeful sampling, Cohen et al. (2011) quote Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009) on sequential sampling, a sub-category of purposeful sampling. In this sub-category, opportunistic sampling refers to ‘further individuals or groups are sampled as the research develops or changes’ (Cohen et al., 2011, p.158), taking advantage of the unplanned events when the data generation takes place.

4.4 Participants

Participants are classed into three groups: teacher educators, permanent staff, and student teachers. In this section, I expand on the teacher educators’ profile at the time of the data generation, since they are the main focus of my research – in the understanding of the case, and in their relations with the rest of the participants.

4.4.1 Participant recruitment

As introduced earlier, I chose this programme for convenience purposes. I worked at this institution and at the IC. When I decided to pursue a PhD inspired on the IC, I was fully supported by the permanent staff and the institution. Four months before doing my data generation, I presented my plan to the permanent staff (head of department and coordinators), and we agreed on it.

I invited six out of eight teacher educators working in the programme via e-mail, and I obtained five responses. I then sent TEs the research information sheet and consent forms via e-mail (see Appendix 3). The consent forms included the conditions of participation, and explained that they were free to withdraw at any time without giving any reason and without there being any negative consequences. The consent also specified that the information provided was only considered as reference, and in an anonymised form (Orb et al., 2001; Homan, 1991).

I also invited the permanent staff: Head of the English department, Head of the PRESET, and IEL coordinator. Both heads accepted to be part of the research, but the IEL coordinator did not agree to be part of it.

Student teachers were invited in two ways. First, I contacted the student teacher academic delegate, who passed me STs’ delegates’ details. I e-mailed them with an
invitation for an informative meeting. I held two meetings to invite them to be part of this research by representing their classmates’ voices. By using their own communication channels, each delegate agreed to ask their peers the questions that I gave them (see Appendix 6). We would then have an interview with delegates where they would report on what their classmates had responded.

4.4.2 Participants profile

Below, I give a brief biography of who the teacher educators and permanent staff members are, at the time of the data generation (April – July 2015), and where they are at the time of writing up (late 2017). Due to the large number of student teachers interviewed, I have not included their biographies.

**Teacher educators**

- **Joe**: He started teaching in 2012. Prior to this post, he taught in a secondary school for over 20 years. He taught both in the previous and current curriculum. He taught all the previous curriculum language modules, and IEL 1-8. He also supervised fourth and fifth year STs’ practicums at schools. He passed away of a brain tumour in October 2015.

- **Pat**: She started teaching in 2014 and has taught IEL 1-2 and IEL 5. She was the only one who worked at a secondary school while working at the IC. She left the PRESET in January 2017.

- **Dave**: He is a former graduate of this PRESET with the previous curriculum. Before joining the IC, he worked in a secondary school for one year. He started teaching in 2015, and has taught IEL 1, and IEL 4 and 8. At the time of submitting this thesis, he was the only TE still teaching in the IC.

- **Kate**: She started teaching in 2013 and was the methodology coordinator. She taught reflective workshops for fourth-year student teachers, introduction to linguistics, applied linguistics, methodology modules (except assessment), and supervised fifth-year final practicums. She was an exceptional case among this research participants, for she was the only TE who had taught in all strands at the time of the data generation. The only time she taught language was on the first semester of 2015, teaching IEL 9. She left the programme at the end of 2015.

**Permanent staff**

- **Head of the PRESET**: He joined the PRESET as a teacher educator in 2008. He has taught English language / IEL and Assessment in the previous and current curriculum. He also was a Year 3 internship supervisor, and Year 5 final practicum supervisor. In 2012, started working as the Integrated English
Language strand coordinator and in October 2014 became the head of the PRESET.

- **Head of the English department**: Founding member of the programme in 2004, and has taught English language, methodology, reflective workshops, and has been a practicum supervisor. Until October 2014, she was the head of the PRESET. Then she became the head of the English Department which was created as an umbrella for the PRESET, English for Specific Purposes (ESP), MA TEFL, and TEFL diploma, and other sub-projects.

### 4.5 Data generation

As part of my epistemological stance, I have adopted ‘data generation’ over ‘data collection’. I start by the premise that data is not ‘there’ to be collected, but it is the result of the interaction between the researcher and the field. As such the data is socially constructed by the researcher and the social world by using different research methods while engaged with the field (Garnham, 2008). By focusing on a particular PRESET community, the researcher and the participants are connected to build knowledge.

Mason (2002) discusses the researcher’s neutrality in the role of collector of information. The researcher actively constructs knowledge by using methods emerging from epistemology. Therefore, through the data sources, the researcher uses more than procedure to gain data, and process the data through ‘intellectual, analytical, and interpretive’ perspectives (Mason, 2002, p.52). From a critical perspective, Freire (1970, p.49) states that ‘researchers do not carry out transformation for participants but with them’. In this vein, this research informs issues raised by both participants and the researcher, where results are shared with the participants for their reflection and transformation.

This being a case study, I utilised different strategies in order to meet the aims of this research, and safeguard the credibility of the study. I conducted the data generation myself, and with the participants. Merriam (2002) suggests that one of the main advantages of having the researcher involved with the data generation him/herself is that s/he can expand his/her own understanding by observing verbal and nonverbal communication, and taking advantage of the face-to-face contact to clarify materials and unexpected responses with participants directly.

My previous involvement in the programme made myself an insider, to some extent. Hammersley and Atkinson (2007, p.87) state that insiders or outsiders are ‘likely to have immediate access to different sorts of information’. Mann (2016, p.73) points out
that being an insider provides a ‘high degree of knowledge of the research topic’, whereas an outsider’s understandings may be limited and may take long to make sense of what participants are saying. Berger (2015) warns that participants and the researcher may take things for granted if the researcher and participants share previous experiences.

Although I had left the IC one and a half years before my data generation, I understood the dynamics of how things worked, knew where the classrooms were, and who to contact to ask for any resources, e.g. booking a room for a meeting. However, the way the IEL strand was being implemented was different to what I experienced as a TE.

4.5.1 Stages

I divided the data generation process into five stages, as illustrated in Figure 10:

Figure 10: Data generation timeline

Figure 10 shows the data generation timeline. After my PhD upgrade panel (December 2014), I started working on the pilot study. I carried out the pilot study while I was on holidays in Chile (January 2015). Upon my return to the UK, I concentrated on adjusting the interview questions as a result of the pilot study, and the analysis of the IEL programmes. In April 2015, I interviewed TEs online prior to my arrival to Chile. I returned to Chile in May 2015, and I carried out the fieldwork in Santiago between May and July 2015.

Out of the two months I spent on my fieldwork, the main issue was a one-month student strike, affecting the second half of my data generation. This strike was part of a nation-wide student movement fighting for free higher education. Most universities were on strike, and weekly demonstrations took place along the country. Moreover, secondary students also joined the movement, attending the demonstrations, and also with sit-ins. At school level, in-service teachers also were on strike fighting for better working teaching conditions in the midst of the education reform being discussed in parliament, in the chapter of teachers’ career. While on strike, students at the university
had a sit-in in the one of the buildings which resulted in damage to the facilities’ infrastructure, particularly due to a fire on one of the buildings. I collated some of my pictures on Figure 11:

Figure 11: Strike, a.k.a. the fight for free and quality education

In the subsections below, I provide details of the overall data generation, including the account on how the strike influenced the process.

4.5.2 Pilot study

The purpose of carrying out a pilot study before my data generation stage is to increase the reliability and validity of the research instruments (Cohen et al., 2011). Yin (2014, p.240) defines a pilot case study as a preliminary case study aimed at developing, testing, or refinancing the planned research questions and procedures that will later be used in the formal case study; the data from the pilot case study should not be reused in the formal case study.

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1 First Prize at the 2016 Faculty of Education, Social Sciences, and Law post-graduate conference image competition (*Derecho en toma: Law in sit-in*)
Between January and March 2015, I conducted some pilot interviews as detailed on Table 10:

**Table 10: Pilot study interviews**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interview on</th>
<th>Participants pseudonyms</th>
<th>Starting year</th>
<th>Taught – when?</th>
<th>Is s/he currently teaching at the IC?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Thursday, January 8th</td>
<td>Laura</td>
<td>2008</td>
<td>IEL 5 – 2013</td>
<td>Yes, teaching Methodology I - II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Face to face)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wednesday, January 14th</td>
<td>Daniel</td>
<td>2008</td>
<td>IEL 1-2 – 2011</td>
<td>No – left in January 2015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Face to face)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Google Hangouts)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>IEL 3-4 (2012-2013)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 10 details the pilot study interviews. I did not want to interview TEs who were currently teaching at the IEL because of the limited pool of IEL TEs. Therefore, I interviewed three part-time TEs who had taught at the IEL strand at some point, yet there were still part of the IC, but in a different capacity. None of them was teaching IEL while I did my data generation.

I invited these TEs to participate in my pilot study via e-mail. I gave them an information sheet and a consent form (See Appendix 3). After signing the consent form, I carried out the interviews (See Appendix 6 for questions). Two interviews were done face to face and one on Google Hangouts. Participants knew that their interviews were part of a pilot study, and their answers were not going to be considered in the study (Yin, 2014). After the interviews, I transcribed the data verbatim using NVivo 10. I listened to the recordings twice to ensure that my transcription was as accurate as possible. Participants then received the transcripts by e-mail, and the three participants confirmed they agreed with them, with no further corrections or comments.

These interviews served two purposes. On the one hand, I intended to test the interview questions with participants who were familiar with the programme. On the other hand, I aimed at testing my own researching skills as an interviewer, and transcribing and analysing qualitative data, since my previous research experience had been mostly quantitative. For example, through the transcriptions, I became aware that I tended to interrupt participants and complete sentences on their behalf, and make assumptions based on my own experiences.
As a result of the pilot study, I also noted that some of the questions needed adjusting. I observed that, despite having written short and concise questions, I paraphrased them in such way that they resulted unnecessarily long and complex in the oral interview. My main adjustments were to have a more detailed set of questions instead of the more general statements I originally had to guide the conversation, as reminders to myself, as illustrated on Table 11 below:

**Table 11: Adjusted interview prompts (Teacher Educators)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Original prompt (as in the upgrade document)</th>
<th>Adjusted prompt (after pilot study and supervision meetings).</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>What is your understanding of the IC?</td>
<td>What is your understanding of the IC? – aims, its design?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What is your understanding of the exit profile?</td>
<td>What is your understanding of the meaning of the exit profile (its underpinnings, how it links to your classroom teaching, what do you think about its purpose?)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What kind of support do you receive from the English department?</td>
<td>What kind of support have you received from the English department (head of department; language coordinator) to do your job?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What is your relationship with the staff and language coordinator?</td>
<td>What is your professional relationship with the staff and language coordinator? How often do you meet? For what purposes?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 11 compares the interview prompts from my pilot study and my adjusted ones. My pilot interviews made me notice that I had left important questions behind. Likewise, I also realised that after listening to the interviews, transcription, and analysis, I still had some areas I wished I had asked for clarification, but it was too late to do so.

**4.5.3 Interviews**

Interviews constitute the core data generation method for this research. Semi-structured qualitative research interviews are defined as ‘an interview with the purpose of obtaining descriptions of the life world of the interviewee in order to interpret the meaning of the described phenomena’ (Brinkmann and Kvale, 2015, p.6). Semi-structured interviews enhance the knowledge-producing dialogues between the interviewer and interviewee, giving leeway for ‘following up on whatever angles are deemed important by the interviewee’, and where the interviewer ‘has greater say in focusing the conversation on issues that h/she deems important’ (Brinkmann, 2018, p.579). Although semi-structured interviews follow a guide rather than a script, they need to cover ‘most of the guide, for comparative purposes’ (Mann, 2016, p.91).
The ‘inter-view’, ‘inter-action’, and ‘inter-change’ (Brinkmann and Kvale, 2015, p.4) between two people talking about a common interest prompts a collaboration where knowledge is built through personal interaction. In case study research, interviews aim at ‘eliciting observations and perspectives on the unique feature of interest’ (Mann, 2016, p.46). I have divided this section into smaller units explaining my decision making, my epistemic stance, and the interview procedure.

4.5.3.1 Mode

I used both online interviews and face-to-face interviews (see summary on Appendix 4). For both modes, I followed the same step-by-step process: First, I thanked the interviewee for having agreed to be part of my research. Then, I reminded them about the informed consent, by re-confirming permission for the recording, and reminding that they were free to stop the interview at any time, skip any questions, or withdraw from the study with no consequences at all. After, I gave the language choice of the interview. Finally, I proceeded with the interview itself.

For recording purposes, I used two voice recorders: an MP3 voice recorder, and the GarageBand software on my laptop. Prior to my first online interview, I piloted the recording with both devices on a Skype call to my family to determine what the ideal volume of the conversation had to be, and where to locate the MP3 recorder in order to avoid interference in the recording.

I opted for using Google Hangouts as the means to complete my first round of interviews with TEs. While in the field, I interviewed all the participants face-to-face. With the exception of two interviews, all the interviews took place at the institution. I was allocated a desk in a research room, where I was on my own, so I was guaranteed privacy for the participants and to safeguard the data I was generating.

Having used both online and face-to-face interviews, I am able to reflect about the affordances and hindrances of both modes, which agree with the existing literature. As follows, I refer to the existing literature on the use of online and face-to-face interviews and my experience in the field.

- **Location and time**: Online interviews allow interviewing people in geographically-distant locations. They also provide a neutral, yet personal space for both interviewer and interviewee. Each party chooses the location that suits them the most where to ‘meet’. Despite not being physically at the same location, communication is synchronous and the interaction is in real time. Likewise, face-to-face interviews are synchronous, and both parties are in the same location (Brinkmann and Kvale, 2015).
As my data generation started before I was physically in Chile, having interviewed TEs prior to my observations was fundamental to inform the second stage of my fieldwork. Being in geographically-distance locations became a limitation in terms of the time-zone difference between Chile and the UK (4-hours ahead) when holding the interviews. I adapted to the time my participants were available, hosting one interview at midnight UK time, and two late on a Sunday.

- **Cost:** Online interviews are free, provided both parties use the same software. In my case, I used Google Hangouts as it belongs to the Google family, and it is used by teacher educators in their daily jobs. The only cost associated with online interviews may be having access to a reliable Internet connection. However, none of my participants incurred in any additional costs as all of them were at home when interviewed.

Face-to-face interviews may imply costs depending on the location, e.g. transportation and food, which are usually afforded by the researcher. While on the field, I carried out most face-to-face interviews in the same building of TEs and STs. With the exception of two interviews, all took place in the same building, and I did not incur in any costs, neither did my participants, as they accommodated the interviews when they were not teaching or studying.

- **Technological considerations and equipment:** Online interviews require participants to be acquainted with the software to be used. As mentioned earlier, Hangouts is an application that is used regularly by TEs, so it did not imply any further training. In terms of equipment, participants required a phone or computer where to receive the call, a webcam, a microphone and speakers. In the case of face-to-face interviews, the only resource required is a voice recorder. I used both a voice recorder and my laptop to have a back-up in case one recording failed. In the data analysis stage, I resorted to my backup recording twice as there were either background noise or choppy segments that prevented me from understanding the participants.

As of hindrances of technological considerations, internet connection may slow down due to using videos, so participants may opt out from using it. Other constrains are dropped calls, pauses, and inaudible segments (Seitz, 2015; Hanna, 2012; Deakin and Wakefield, 2013).

- **Rapport:** Despite not being in the same location, webcams allow the same face-to-face experience of face-to-face interaction to some extent. Participants can still establish rapport and develop an atmosphere of trust, and allow the interviewer to handle situations ‘sensitively and professionally’ (Cohen et al., 2011, p.422).
However, in contrast to face-to-face interviews, rapport in online interviews may decrease as the body language and expressions are not fully observable through a webcam. While doing online interviews, I informed the participants I was going to be taking some notes, which resulted in not keeping eye contact as regularly as I would have liked. As the interviews continued, I also noted that I crouched on my seat at times, so I adjusted my body position accordingly. Participants may also get distracted doing other things while on their computer. I believe I did not face this situation as my participants kept some distance from the computer, and I could not hear any typing or notice them distracted (Mann, 2016).

- **Ethics**: I sent the informed consent to participants via e-mail before our online meeting. All participants signed it online, and received it back via e-mail. Obtaining informed consents was unproblematic as they had all completed it advance (Deakin and Wakefield, 2013). In some contexts, however, there may be some delays in obtaining consents as participants may forget that they have received a message about them. I also used electronic informed consents for my face-to-face interviews (see 4.8).

### 4.5.3.2 Language choice

Mann (2011, p.15) states that the ‘language in which the interview is conducted is integrally related to the nature of the co-construction’. Both Cortazzi et al. (2011) and Mann (2016) present some possible language combinations for interviews, which I have summarised on Table 12.

**Table 12: Language combinations**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cortazzi et al. (2011)</th>
<th>Mann (2016)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bilingual participants: the interview is done in the interviewer’s L1</td>
<td>Interviewer and interviewee(s) share the same L1: interview in interviewer’s L1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Both interviewer and interviewer are bilingual: they may prefer to use the L2 instead of their L1</td>
<td>Interviewer/interviewee(s) do not share the same L1, but interviewee is competent in the interviewer’s L1, so interview is in interviewer’s L1 – or – The interviewer is competent in interviewee’s L1, so interview is interviewee’s L1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interchangeability of L1/L2 depending on the situation</td>
<td>Interviewer/interviewee(s) do not share the same L1, but they are reasonable comfortable in communicating in each other’s L1 – codeswitching is likely.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interviewer/interviewee(s) do not share the same L1, so the interview is conducted with the aid of a translator that speaks both interviewer and interviewee’s L1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In Table 12, I have attempted to equate the language combinations proposed by Cortazzi et al., (2011) and Mann (2016). Some of the issues that arise from this comparison are, e.g. time participants take to respond in their L2, the interviewer’s overestimation of interviewee’s language skills, and the possibility of elaborating more complex ideas. The main problem in choosing one language over another relies on the linguistic competence of the interviewer and interviewee(s) to communicate, since being confident and comfortable with the language choice influences the communication in the interview.

In my case, I shared my L1 (Spanish) with all my participants, but I decided to do my interviews in our shared L2 (English), which is not considered in the comparison above. The first question I asked participants was whether they wanted to talk in English or Spanish. I decided to give the option to choose the interview language given the participants’ profile: (student) teachers of English. I emphasised, particularly for STs, that there were no consequences based on their choice, for I was not judging their proficiency level or mistakes.

All but two interviews were done in English. Some student teachers opted to speak Spanish, or Spanglish, at some points when struggling to formulate an idea in English, or asked what the word for ‘x’ was in English. Interestingly, since most student teachers’ interviews were done over the strike period, STs preferred to speak in English as they saw the interviews as an opportunity to practice their English after a few weeks without having any lessons.

Reflecting on all the interviews, there is only one case in which I would have rather conducted the interview in Spanish, purposefully. It was a second year student with a very low proficiency level, so she struggled to express her ideas and was not confident about her level. As in all interviews, I asked her if she wanted to be interviewed in English or Spanish, and she chose English. When re-reading this particular transcript, she repeatedly says that she feels frustrated for not having achieved the expected proficiency level (by the programme).

4.5.3.3 Right to privacy

In order to protect their anonymity, participants chose between using a pseudonym or keeping their own names, to ensure confidentiality, and to protect my participants’ privacy (Brinkmann and Kvale, 2015; Fontana and Frey, 2005). In the case of TEs, two chose pseudonyms themselves, one decided to keep the name, and one asked me to choose a pseudonym. However, I found myself at a crossroad when writing the data analysis chapters. For the uniqueness of this PRESET in the Chilean LTE context,
it would be easy to identify who TEs and permanent staff were through deductive revelation (Mann, 2016). I communicated that to the participants, and they agreed to change their pseudonyms again to conceal their identities more. I am aware that confidentiality cannot be watertight (Denzin and Lincoln, 2011), as insiders or closer people to the programme could still identify the participants. As a researcher, I did my best to ensure participants’ right to privacy.

4.5.3.4 Power and co-construction of the interview process

Talmy (2010, p.31) establishes that interviews denote ‘complex relations of power’ by the decision-making during the interview itself, and during the data analysis. Similarly, Brinkmann and Kvale (2015) pose some questions about power balance: generally, the interviewer determines the topic and questions, and decides when the conversation is over. These questions can have a hidden agenda, so the interviewer can turn the conversation into a manipulative dialogue, which is then solely interpreted by the researcher.

Adhering to critical theory, my role as a researcher is to offer a space for my participants to have a strong voice, and look at interviews as a social practice (Talmy, 2010; Mann, 2016). As such, Rapley (2001, p. 304) discusses that the work of ‘interviewees should remain a central concern in the analysis of interview data’, considering the context and the analytics stance of researchers. Through my research, I attempt to put participants at the centre and make their voices heard in the context of educational change. My three analytical chapters are intertwined, aimed to represent the interaction between each group, i.e. permanent staff and teacher educators (Chapter 5), teacher educators and student teachers (Chapter 6), and student teachers with permanent staff and teacher educators (Chapter 7). All participants’ experiences are influenced by the role of the others; hence, I believe it is impossible to fully isolate their accounts on the implementation of the IEL strand of the Integrated Curriculum.

The co-construction of the interview is also influenced by the prior relationships established between interviewer and interviewee (Mann, 2016). In my case, I had either worked closely, taught, or known most of my participants at some point, with the exception of first and second-year student-teachers. I acknowledge that knowing the context and having had an active in the IC design and implementation was an advantage in the understanding of what student-teachers and TEs reported through their interviews. However, I had many assumptions about how things worked, without realising, at the beginning, the rapid speed of changes since I had left the programme.
In the pilot interviews, I tended to interrupt participants or complete their sentences (see 4.5.2). During the course of the actual interviews, I became particularly aware of the influence that my questions and opinions might have on the participants' responses. At times, I found it hard not to comment on the issues the participants were commenting on. Likewise, I inevitably found myself making connections among participants’ experiences, and at times, triggering some questions influenced by other respondents.

After the interviews with teacher educators and permanent staff, I shared my personal notes and interpretations as part of the member checking process (see 4.7.4). I was particularly interested in being as transparent as possible. Due to the strike and time constrains, I followed these notes up with TEs only during the post-observation interviews, where we talked about some emerging questions and their relation with their practices.

At the end of every interview, I asked all participants if they wanted to ask me any questions at the end of our conversation, and some of them did. The questions were mostly related to my opinion about the IC, and how I had seen it change since I left. Despite not all of them asking questions, I believe it was a way to balance the power between myself and the participants and get them to understand how I was observing the IC from a relatively external point of view.

4.5.4 Classroom observations

Observations are defined as ‘the process of gathering open-ended, first-hand information by observing people and places at a research site’ (Creswell, 2012, p.213). The purpose of my observations is to explore the relation between TEs’ reported practices in the IEL given in their interviews and the actual ones, in order to answer the second research question. Based on what teachers reported about their practices in the interviews, I designed a classroom observation guide focused on the class stages and activities (see Appendix 6).

I conducted observations from an observer-as-participant (Borg, 2015), where my contact with participants was limited, and my presence was only for observation purposes. The advantage of an observer-as-participant or non-participant observation (Creswell, 2007) is that participants may feel more comfortable as they will not be asked to perform any different in classes, and the researcher is watching and taking notes without being directly involved. As discussed by Hammersley and Atkinson (2007, pp.88-89), the usual role is to keep a ‘more or less marginal position’. I cannot claim that I have an outsider viewpoint, for my previous involvement and the pre-observation interviews contributed to my understanding of the classroom events.
All my observations were filmed. I set up the camera at the back or side of the room, while I sat at the back of the classroom. I first planned to do a pre-observation session to get both TEs and STs used to having a camera and myself in the classroom, and see how they acted and reacted to it, as well as building rapport with participants (Duff, 2008; Mason, 2002). The use of video-cameras in observations can be considered intrusive, for participants may change the way they act in front of them (Merriam and Tisdell, 2015). In terms of the practicalities of the video-recording, Cohen et al. (2011) argue that a fixed video camera may hinder the scope of what is being observed, e.g. a student can stand in front of it and block the camera. Moreover, the video shows one single perspective of the classroom events, so field notes and the actual observations are to complement the observations (Mason, 2002). All in all, I did not perceive a difference between the first observation and the following sessions in terms of TEs’ performance or attitudes, nor in student teachers’, so I considered all of them on the analysis.

Before the observations, the participants and I agreed that I was going to share the videos with them. These videos were going to prompt our post observation interviews (see next section). I asked TEs how they wanted to see the recordings and gave them some options, e.g. burn a CD after each session/all sessions; transfer the files on a USB stick; upload them to an online cloud; or upload them to a video sharing website as YouTube or Vimeo. All TEs chose YouTube as it was a better known and more accessible platform. Right after the class, I uploaded the videos to my private YouTube channel and shared the clips exclusively with each individual TE.

In one class, when STs did an oral presentation, they asked me if I could share the recording with them. I asked the TE if he agreed, so I edited the video to extract the excerpt and then, uploaded it to YouTube on a private video shared with the group members only. Both TE and student teachers acknowledged that feedback opportunity as they seemed not to have done that before, in what it seems to have become an opportunity of mutual development, i.e. ‘what helps the researcher also helps the teacher, and at the same time helps the learners to understand more about language learning/teaching’ (Hanks, 2017b, p.1).

4.5.5 Post-observation interviews

About three weeks after the observations finished, I met with TEs one last time. It was impossible to arrange meetings any earlier than that due to TEs’ busy schedules. In this meeting, I intended to explore their classroom practices, and to expand on other ideas we may have not talked about in our first meeting. Mann (2016) highlights that using video recordings can help reveal people’s implicit knowledge and
understandings. Stimulated recalls are used to ‘recall specific incidents and comment on them, but it can also be used as a stimulus to provide ‘talking points’ and promote discussion’ (Mann and Walsh, 2017, p.38). In my case, I used stimulated recalls to provide talking points, and understand the underlying principles of TEs’ teaching (Woods, 1996).

To start, I showed some video-fragments to trigger our conversation and scrolled through the video without prompting any particular event. My purpose was to remind TEs of a particular lesson. Then, they started sharing their reflections on what they had done, the challenges faced, and implications to consider in the module planning in the future. I have selected the first part of my post-observation interview with Joe to show the procedure, in Table 13:

Table 13: Stimulated recall

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>[the purpose] Is having a quick look, but not in detail, you have all these videos, so you might have watched them at some point. Just to have a quick a look at them. We are not to watch them, just to refresh. I have chosen three, random, no connection. Literally, the first one, the middle one, and the last one I saw, that’s all.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interviewer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>So what are we supposed to do with that?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Joe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Just to, just to, refresh your mind.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interview</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Oh no, I have a clear recall. I don’t want to see myself there. Don’t do that to me. It’s so embarrassing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Joe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>OK, this language 3.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interviewer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>It’s like a funeral. That’s room D whatever. It’s the at the bicycle side.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Joe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>This was on May 12th. (We watch the video). Just to remember what you were doing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interviewer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Yes, that’s power of language, that unit.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Joe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>That was one. This is (.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interviewer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>But you’ll be showing these films to people in England.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Joe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>No, just to you. This is language (.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interviewer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Seven</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Joe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>That’s Language 3.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interviewer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Yes, that’s section 1.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Joe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Two.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interviewer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>No, that’s section 3 because this is Mr Happiness. Section 3.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Joe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>OK, that you had a really big problem with the computer for a change. You couldn’t use the keyboard. Something happened in the first part.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interviewer</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Loreto, can I ask you a question, and I want a really honest opinion from you. Are my classes that bad?

I don't think your classes are bad at all. Why would I say that?

No, I'm asking you. What's your take in my classes?

I really enjoyed being in your classes. And I think students do, too.

Do you think they are learning? That's my main question.

I think that the ones to answer that question are the students.

They say they do, but (.)

Do you think they are learning?

Yes, but (.)

Table 13 examines my conversation with Joe on the day of our post-observation interview. At the beginning of our conversation, I made clear that the purpose of watching his videos is to remind him of his lessons, with no focus on something in particular. I had chosen three videos from different levels and sections. As seen on line 4, he does not enjoy the experience of watching himself, and I remember that he would not stop watching the video despite saying that. He is concerned that I would show the videos to other people, but I clarify that I will not do so. On line 18, he turns the conversation round to focus on his own classroom practices, for he is concerned with students’ learning. After each observation, he asked me for feedback, but I would turn those questions for him to answer himself, trying to follow a more mentoring approach (Malderez, 2009). On lines 19 and 21, I did assert my actual opinion about this lessons. However, I bore in mind that the objective of my observations was not to judge TEs’ teaching but to understand the implementation of the IEL strand with student teachers.

After watching the videos, I posed some questions to ask TEs to illustrate some of the language teaching awareness moments, some features of the IC in their practices, and what they would not have done or done differently. The post observation interview concluded by talking about the challenges of the IC as TEs saw it, and the sustainability of the curriculum change in time framed within the existing conditions, and final-year STs’ outcomes.

4.5.6 Other data

In order to seek a more comprehensive understanding of the IC, I observed an IEL 1 teacher educator meeting. The objective of this observation was to understand the planning process, coordination among TEs, and the distribution of tasks among themselves. I asked the IEL coordinator for permission to observe a meeting, and he arranged a single session with IEL1 TEs. Not all TEs knew I was going to be there. I introduced myself and they agreed to have me there.
During and after my data analysis, I had informal conversations recorded on my field notes with different members of the IC community seeking to clarify and obtain a deeper insight of ideas. After the fieldwork finished, using the contacts I obtained during my data generation, I contacted some of the first IC graduates, which are featured as 5th year STs in this thesis, to learn about their experiences at school. I draw on this data in my discussion. I also contacted the other two universities that implemented Integrated Curricula in Chile by using the contact information on their websites. Only one replied my call, and we had an informal conversation about their experience designing their integrated curriculum, although I do not consider that data in my analysis or discussion.

4.6 Research adjustments

Before and during my data generation, I had to carry out several adjustments to my generation plan, detailed as follows.

4.6.1 Before the data generation

Shortly before I arrived to the field, one of my participants decided to withdraw. The reason being that she was not going to have enough time to meet me, or letting me observe her lessons. Although her interview was very rich, I excluded it from my analysis, as stated in the consent form. Thorpe (2014) suggests that researchers need to assess to what extent the withdrawn data affects the dataset. However, if I answer this question here, I would be releasing some of this participant’s data, since I cannot ‘unlearn’ it. During my analysis, I ensured that I did not consider the data by not referring to the interview record (audio/written).

The Integrated English Language Coordinator did not take part on the study. As everyone else, I invited him to be part of the study via e-mail, but he replied that he had decided not to participate, without giving further reason, quoting the consent form. Thorpe (2014) suggests that participants who withdraw could be replaced with others who match the profile, but in my case there was nobody else doing that job. Hammersley and Atkinson (2007) indicate that in the case of missing data, the analysis needs to be made with the main dataset, bearing in mind the objective and the context of the research. Since I could not interview the coordinator, I tried to compensate for this data by asking some questions to the head of department and PRESET, and IEL teacher educators about the role and tasks of the coordinator.
4.6.2 During the data generation

As said in 4.5.1, the strike affected the second half of my data generation. As mentioned in 4.4.1, student teachers’ interviews were originally planned with each year’s delegates, i.e. having five group interviews. However, the strike implied that student teachers were not attending the university, since it is common that only student leaders usually go to the university, and the rest simply stay at home. To compensate, I started contacting the delegates and other student teachers individually to have as many student teachers’ voices represented. Following an opportunistic sampling approach, I sent an open invitation to all student teachers using their e-mail addresses taken from the classroom observations’ informed consent, and through that invitation, I contacted over half of the student teachers, which resulted in eighteen interviews – seventeen one-on-one and three group interviews.

Having such rich student teacher data made me realise how important it was to have considered more STs instead of just a few representing the many. I strongly believe that having student teachers’ voices in the context of curriculum innovation as receivers is critical, for they are ones who will, in due course, enact the hoped-for changes in the classroom when they become teachers, and hopefully, make a difference on how English is perceived and taught in the Chilean context. Student teachers’ perspectives are therefore fundamental to understand how they make sense of the innovation, their experiences in the classroom (Gieve and Miller, 2006a), and the perceived IC limitations, challenges and suggestions for improvement. My rationale to consider student teachers’ voices is therefore to offer a comprehensive view of the IC from all actors, i.e. teacher educators as enablers and decision-makers, permanent staff as decision-makers, and student teachers as future enablers of the IC in the school classroom.

In the case of classroom observations, there seems to be an unbalance in the number of observations. Several factors influenced the final count, mainly influenced by the strike. In Dave’s case, he postponed the start of the observations until the end of May, a week before the strike started. Hence, I could only observe two sessions. Pat also postponed her observations until June, which prevented me from observing any of her lessons. Before coming back to England, Pat and I agreed to do the observations via Skype/Google hangouts, or have Pat to film her classes using the video-cameras available at the English department and using an SD card that I left for her. In addition to the re-adjusting needed after the strike, the following semester, Joe got very sick, and later passed away, which altered the normality of that semester. The following semester (March 2016), I contacted Pat again, but Pat decided to opt-out from the observations due to burn-out. However, she still wanted to be part of the research through her interviews. All in all, leaving the field was problematic in a way I was not expecting (Hammersley and Atkinson, 2007). Having extended the fieldwork for
another semester would have not made a difference in terms of the classroom observations. However, I believe that the data I generated was rich and offers a comprehensive picture of the IC implementation at that particular time.

4.6.3 After my data generation: Reflecting on my research questions

Modifying research questions is normal as a result of fieldwork (Cohen et al., 2011), since they are the consequence of the interaction among the context, the literature, and the methods. Hammersley and Atkinson (2007) posit that research problems are fine-tuned as a consequence of the fieldwork, which allows the systematic formulation of the research questions.

Determining my research questions was a result of the analysis of the context and literature review. I chose the word ‘understanding’ for the first research question: ‘What are teacher educators’ understandings of the IC and the exit profile?’, since, in my view, it merges both beliefs and knowledge. It implies a thought-process done by TEs, in this case, to express what they know about and believe about the IC. Understanding, also, is needed to situate the uniqueness of teachers and learners’ situations, which cannot be generalizable (Allwright and Hanks, 2009), and it is done by TEs themselves (Gieve and Miller, 2006a). Understanding embeds a recognition of the complexity and irreducible complexity of the language classroom, teaching and learning (Allwright, 2006, p.13), and it depends on the participants whether it leads to ‘changes in behaviour, attitude, and beliefs’ (Gieve and Miller, 2006b, p.28).

Before my data generation, I had one critical instance that modified my third research question. During my upgrade, the panel suggested to review the original focus of my research, by pointing out a disagreement between the objective I had put forward in the introduction and my original research question. It read:

- How have TEs understandings and practices been influenced by the IC planning and implementation processes adopted by the organization?

As a result of the upgrade and discussing with my supervisors, I edited the research question to:

- How has the organizational decision-making (head of department, coordinators) been influenced by their perceptions of TEs’ understandings and actual classroom practices?

After the fieldwork and data analysis, I realised that the question needed to take TEs’ experience to the centre to inform the organisational learning. As such, the third research question was modified to:
What impact has teacher educators’ experience had on the planning and implementation processes adopted by the institution?

The third research question had still one more edit process to go through, as it was not referred to the influence of teacher educators’ experience on student teachers, which is a critical part of this study. Therefore, the final version of the third research question, that is addressed in Chapters 6 and 7, reads:

- What impact has teacher educators’ experience had on the planning and implementation processes and on student teachers’ understanding of the IC?

In addition to fine-tuning my third research question several times, I noticed that I did not have a question that embraced the local and international contexts undergoing curriculum change, and how the (Chilean educational) context influences curriculum change. Focused on the IC experience, I drew a new research question, which is discussed on Chapter 8:

- How does the Chilean educational context, for which the IC is educating language teachers, influence the organization and content of the Integrated Curriculum?

In an attempt to exemplify how the context affects the change, I created Figure 12 below:

![Figure 12: The fourth research question rationale](image)

Figure 12 illustrates how the vision changes as a result of the interaction with the wider educational context. It analyses the relation between the original vision of the change and its adjusted vision in light of the current state of implementation.
4.7 Data analysis

Data analysis consists of preparing and organising the data for analysis, yet there is no fixed way to develop this process (Creswell, 2007). Regardless of the procedure, there are some elements that the analysis needs to consider:

- Description: to address the question – What’s going on here?
- Analysis: To identify essential features and interrelations of the data.
- Interpretation: To address the question – How does it all mean? What is to be made of it all? (Adapted from Richards (2003, p.270))

In this section, I explain how I proceeded with my data analysis and data managing.

4.7.1 Transcription

Analysis and data transcription are parallel process, and they enhance each other (Duff, 2008). During the first stage, I transcribed all the interviews by adopting a basic transcription (Richards, 2003), which allowed me to focus on the themes highlighted by my participants, as opposed to a discourse analysis of the interviews (Atkinson and Heritage, 1999). Although transcriptions demand a great amount of time (Cohen et al., 2011; Duff, 2008), I decided to transcribe all my dataset for it allowed me to start the analysis as I listened and typed. I started on a 10 minute audio: 1 hour transcription ratio, and by the end of the process, I increased to a 17 minute audio: 1 hour transcription ratio.

Mann (2016, p.201) states that there are three decisions to be made about what format to choose when transcribing. Below, I have included my decision-making rationale to the statements:

- **Which level of detail to use**: I decided not to include non-verbal communication on my transcripts since I was mainly focused on what the participants were saying more than the way it had been expressed.
- **Standard orthography –speech-like versions**: I did not consider non-verbal cues on my transcript, I adopted a speech-like version, including the participants and my own repetitions, for instance.
- **Whether to use punctuation to make the transcript more ‘readable’**: For readability purposes, I transcribed the texts verbatim, including only pauses, by using ‘(,)’. I have edited the quotes on my analysis and discussion chapters by deleting repetition for readability purposes (Brinkmann and Kvale, 2015).
Table 14 shows a sample of my conversation with Pat, comparing the original (on the left) with the edited version (on the right).

**Table 14: Transcription sample**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Original</th>
<th>Edited</th>
<th>Loreto</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Thank you. Thank you for that. Let's (.) what about (.) before we go inside the classroom. I'm very interested to hear, in hearing what you would, I mean, would do or you would add doing inside your classroom as Valeria. What sort of relation do you have with the other strands? The integrated curriculum as a whole has an area in education, methodology, reflective workshops, internships, so what is the relation as you, as a teacher, as an individual with the other strands? What do you know other strands are doing?</td>
<td>Thank you. Thank you for that. Let's (.) what about (.) before we go inside the classroom. I'm very interested in hearing what you would do or you would add doing inside your classroom as Pat. What sort of relation do you have with the other strands? The integrated curriculum as a whole has an area in education, methodology, reflective workshops, internships, so what is the relation as you, as a teacher, as an individual with the other strands? What do you know other strands are doing?</td>
<td>Loreto</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think it's applied to each lesson, or, or, maybe if, if you cannot see it in, in a lesson, ah, you can see it in the process because if you're talking about the strands. You're also talking about methodology, we're talking about phonology, we're talking about pronunciation, and ICT, because it is an integrated programme it is all inside of the planning, or at least that's what I see. And inside the planning as a whole unit, or as a whole semester, or even inside each lesson, each class because you can, you can (.) I don't know if, if I should say cover, no that's not the word. I lost it. (…)</td>
<td>I think it's applied to each lesson or maybe if you cannot see it in a lesson, ah, you can see it in the process because if you're talking about the strands. You're also talking about methodology, we're talking about phonology, we're talking about pronunciation, and ICT, because it is an integrated programme it is all inside of the planning, or at least that's what I see. And inside the planning as a whole unit, or as a whole semester, or even inside each lesson, each class because you can, you can (.) I don't know if I should say cover, no that's not the word. I lost it. (…)</td>
<td>Pat</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Table 14, in the original version, I notice hesitancy and rephrasing on my own speech when formulating the questions, which I have edited on the right column. Brinkmann and Kvale (2015) state that there is no standards to the degree of detail of transcriptions since it depends on the intended use of the transcript. Brinkmann and Kvale (2015, p.214) highlight that the ‘publication of incoherent and repetitive verbatim interview transcript may involve an unethical stigmatization of specific persons’. They Likewise, they argue that ‘there is no true, objective transformation from the oral to the written mode’ (Brinkmann and Kvale, 2015, p.213).

After completing a transcription, I listened to the interviews again to verify the accuracy of my work and gain a deeper understanding of the data. I exported the NVivo
transcript into MS Word, and I printed it. Richards (2003, p. 181) calls this process ‘progressive focusing’, which allows to gradually identify features of interest, and fine tune one’s listening skills. recommends ‘the more you listen, the more you hear’ (Richards, 2003, p. 181 italics in original). This process aided my own comprehension of the text, and it also allowed me to take some analysis notes and questions on the side. I did this process at least twice or three times. Nevertheless, I revisited some interviews a few months later, which increased my reflection about the data.

4.7.2 Coding and thematic analysis

NVivo helped me understand the general trends of the data by using word clouds. Word clouds allow to see high-frequency words in the text, which hint at possible themes. The advantage of word clouds is that they disregard grammar items, and focus on the content words (Mann, 2016). However the interpretation of the patterns emerging from the software analysis remained ‘human-based’, i.e. done by me. As an early career researcher, the process of coding helped me to understand the data and create initial categories. Figure 13 below illustrates an NVivo 10 word cloud based on four TEs’ interviews. I used these word clouds to illustrate my data in conference presentations.

In relation to coding, Brinkmann and Kvale (2015) explain that codes can be data driven, i.e. starting the analysis without codes, and developing them by reading the material; or concept driven, i.e. using codes that have been pre-determined by looking at some of the material. In my case, I adopted a mix of both. Since I asked similar questions, e.g. the understanding of the exit profile and the integrated curriculum, I established broad categories, i.e. based on the questions I asked during the interviews.
(see Appendix 6), I developed initial codes. After reading and listening to the data several times, I developed more codes, NVivo nodes, as illustrated in Figure 14:

![Figure 14: NVivo nodes](image)

I ran the query wizard on NVivo several times. I first used it to search for keywords on all the interviews, and then by group of participants, i.e. teacher educators, student teachers (formerly trainees), and permanent staff. From the selected quotes, I manually coded the entries, as shown in Figure 15 below.

![Figure 15: Manual coding](image)
Figure 15 exemplifies some of the manual coding to understand emerging sub-themes within the larger ones, e.g. the integrated curriculum. My notes here are mainly relate to language teaching and learning [lang], culture, topic, and teaching structures. Manually coding each grouped entry also allowed me to further proof-read the transcriptions, as can be observed at the end of Reference 4. From this analysis, I gained some deeper understanding of STs’ perspectives of the integrated curriculum, which I discuss in 7.2.

I carried out thematic analysis (Creswell et al., 2007; Cohen et al., 2011; Creswell, 2014; Yin, 2014) as it identifies patterns and allows one to see the data as units of information, which are later classed into different categories.

The transcription, coding and thematic analysis lasted over seven months. As refining the data is a recurrent process (Ryan and Russell Bernard, 2003), I explored the data several times. From the preliminary set of codes while I listened to the interviews, to then editing some of the codes as a result of my second reading (or listening). After that, I identified similarities and differences within each group of participants, and also commonalities across all the actors. Although it was a long process, I was able to build a coherent story about the data (Clarke and Braun, 2013) that responded to the context, the literature review, and the research questions (Mann, 2016).

### 4.7.3 Translation

Out of all the interviews, only two participants chose to be interviewed fully in Spanish. Since almost all my data was in English, I decided to fully translate those interviews. As I am bilingual on both languages, and the responsible person for this research, I also took the responsibility for the way I represented these participants’ language in this research (Temple and Young, 2004).

I transcribed the interviews in Spanish, and then I translated them into English. To ensure the correct translation and interpretation, I followed a back-translation approach (Cohen et al., 2011; Brislin, 1970). Brislin (1970), who coined the term back-translation, describes the process as the collaboration of two bilinguals: one translates the text to the target language (in this case, English), and the second translates it back from the target language to the original one (in this case, Spanish). By doing this translation, the researcher has two versions in the original language that, if ‘they are identical, suggest that the target version from the middle of the process is equivalent to the source language form’ (Brislin, 1970, p.185).

With the aid of a Spanish-speaker PhD colleague from Mexico, we exchanged back-translations. Before sending the English version for the back translation, I anonymised
the transcript as stated in the informed consent agreement. For these two interviews, I sent both the English and Spanish versions to participants for member checking, but I received only one confirmation.

4.7.4 Member checking

Member checking is described as a process in which the researcher and the participants engage in a conversation to confirm that the researcher’s interpretations of the data are accurate (Brinkmann and Kvale, 2015). Participants offer feedback on the interpretations, getting involved in the research (Richards, 2003). Lincoln and Guba (1985, p.314) consider it as ‘the most crucial technique for establishing credibility’.

In this research, all participants received their interview transcripts via e-mail, but I had different response rates. As interviews with TEs were done on Google Hangouts, I sent the transcripts to all participants via e-mail before our first meeting to plan the observations. In this e-mail, I also attached my personal notes about the conversation, with my initial interpretations of the conversation. See Figure 16 below as an example:

I expected TEs to have read the transcripts and given me comments about it, but I did not receive any reply. As I wanted to have their confirmation about the transcript, I printed the interview transcripts prior to our first face-to-face meeting. In this meeting, I gave them a physical copy of the transcript. TEs skimmed the text through, confirmed that they agreed with the transcript and added some further comments in an open and friendly dialogue. I found this sharing event (Harvey, 2015) more effective than having just sent the transcript to them, since I perceived that they became more engaged in the research process. In the case of permanent staff and TEs’ post-observation interviews, I did not receive any response.
In the case of STs, all transcripts were sent to participants for their approval and 14/23 (60%) were received with their confirmation and/or comments or clarification of ideas. Some students acknowledged having received the transcript as a way to become aware of their spoken English – now in writing, so they took it as a language feedback opportunity in a way they had never experienced.

Re-reading the sample e-mail in Figure 16, makes me reflect on my choice of words when asking for the member checking. I do not think that having chosen different words would have made a difference in receiving or not receiving participants’ feedback on our interview. It seems to me that they did not do so because of lack of time. However, I believe that I would have worded the e-mail differently, appealing to a more personal and friendly dimension, trying to make it appear less formal.

During the data analysis and discussion, I decided not to send the participants the full chapters of my thesis, based on their member checking response rate and their limited time to hold online meetings. Instead, I shared my conference presentations which summarise the key findings and discussion points (Creswell and Miller, 2000). However, I did not receive feedback from them either. I acknowledge the low response rate as a limitation.

4.8 Ethical considerations

In educational research, ethical issues have to be considered in the course of any study, particularly focused on the benefits and harm that a study may carry for those involved. During the course of my PhD, I have become aware of the ethical implications of carrying out research with human participants by doing this research and by working as a research assistant in other projects at the School of Education. In my research, I have followed the guidance of the Good research practice guidelines at the University of Leeds (University of Leeds, 2017).

4.8.1 Ethical review

I have gone through two different processes while obtaining the ethical approval of my research. Before my upgrade, I obtained the approval of the ethical committee at the University of Leeds (see Appendix 3). Additionally, I had to go through a similar process at the institution where I developed my fieldwork. I was not aware that I had to do this, yet as I had already gone through the process at Leeds, the process in Chile was straightforward and smooth. Their Institutional Review Board (IRB) did not object anything from my application, but added the institution logo and two paragraphs to the information sheet for participants. The first paragraph responds to participants’ data protection under the Chilean legislation. The second paragraph addresses link with the
institution, giving contact details of their IRB. As a result of these changes, I had to submit these adjustments to the ethical committee at Leeds for a second time, which were successfully approved.

4.8.2 My role as an insider

As I have mentioned earlier, my research originates in my previous involvement in the IC as a member of the permanent staff and as a TE. I am not a value-free researcher (Merriam, 2002; Guba and Lincoln, 1994). My position as an insider researcher inevitably influences my views and values on the findings and discussion. Stake (2006) advises researchers to acknowledge affiliations and ideologies, not only for the research participants, but also to the readers of research reports. Stake recommends readers to be aware of the bias that previous involvements can have in the interpretation of data.

My involvement in the IC may be seen as a limitation in the relation I built with TEs. TEs might have feared that their opinions may be disclosed to the permanent staff (their employers). Similarly, as I used to be member of permanent staff, TEs might have seen me from a hierarchical viewpoint, although I personally saw myself as a peer. During the data generation stage, I tried to minimise these perceptions, although participants made comments such as ‘as you knew by then…; well… you were involved in this…’

Conversely, having worked at the organization gives me the advantage of having already built a rapport with some participants (Cohen et al., 2011), so I expected them to be open and confident. I believe that the time-distance (I left the programme one and a half years before the time of the data generation), was advantageous since I feel that the possible hierarchical perceptions eased (if any). I stand with Stake (1995)’s view of the researcher from a constructivist viewpoint, considering critical theory where knowledge is constructed with participants. Likewise, I tried to take advantage of the participative and collaborative atmosphere among TEs and the permanent staff, with the understanding that this research will inform their own practices and hopefully will provide relevant suggestions for the improvement of the programme.

4.8.3 Informed consents

Homan (1991) states that the principle of informed consent is that

the human subjects of research should be allowed to agree or refuse to participate in the light of comprehensive information concerning the nature and purpose of the research (Homan, 1991, p. 69).
The underlying principle, then, is that participants are able to comprehend the information contained in the consent, and that they are competent to make a judgment about their participation. It is not simply signing a piece of paper, but it is ensuring that the participants fully understand what the implications of every stage of the research consists of, their right to withdraw at any time, and how their anonymity and privacy will be protected (Mason, 2002).

In this research, the informed consent process was carried out in different stages depending on the participants. The first stage was conducted after I sent TEs an invitation to be part of the research with a general description of what it was about. Once they agreed, I sent participants an online Google form with the informed consent online. Once they had completed the form, I sent the form back in PDF via e-mail (See Appendix 3). This took place before I was physically in the fieldwork.

In the case of STs, I had two consent forms: one as indirect participants – for classroom observations, and one for interviews (with ST representatives). In the case of observations, student teachers signed the informed consent by passing on my iPad during the observations. After TEs introduced myself to a teaching group, I explained what my research was about, and then asked STs if they agreed or disagreed with the fact of being filmed. As of all the observations carried out, only two STs declined to be filmed, so I made the corresponding adjustments to place the camera in a position which would not reach them, and they sat behind the camera, which did not hinder their participation in that particular class. Both TEs and STs knew that only I, as the researcher, was going to watch these videos (Otrel-Cass et al., 2010). By having the videos saved privately on YouTube, and shared only with the TEs that had been filmed, I ensured that the privacy and confidentiality of my participants were protected. I have not included the images of any of my participants in the written or oral dissemination or discussion of this research.

Student-teacher assistants and student teachers who participated in either individual or group interviews also signed the forms using my iPad. In the case of permanent staff, I obtained their informed consent the day of the interviews using an online Google form on my iPad.

There is little research on the use of electronic consent forms in educational research (Leach et al., 2015). In my experience, my decision of using e-consent forms was based on the practicality of reaching my participants while abroad, and also reducing costs and time in signing the forms. While in the fieldwork, I was ready to pass on paper versions if required, and it was preferred by one participant only.
4.9 Trustworthiness in the study

To safeguard the quality of this study, I have adopted the concept of trustworthiness in qualitative research, following Lincoln and Guba (1985). To determine the trustworthiness of a study, Eisenhart suggests that it ‘depends on evidence that the researcher was, in fact, there and did directly participate in the scenes of action’ (Eisenhart, 2006, p.573). Lincoln and Guba think of trustworthiness through a question:

How can an inquirer persuade his or her audiences (including self) that the findings of an inquiry are worth paying attention to, worth taking account of? (Lincoln and Guba, 1985, p.290)

To answer this question, they propose four concepts: credibility, dependability, confirmability, and transferability.

4.9.1 Credibility

Credibility refers to the level of consistency in the research. Bickman and Rog (2009) indicate that the rigour of a study depends on providing enough support to the conclusions and recommendations. Lincoln and Guba (1985) state that credibility is a two-part process. First, the inquiry is done in a way that findings are credible. Second, that the credibility of the findings are approved by those constructing the reality under study.

In this research, credibility was reflected by using two rounds of interviews, as well as classroom observations. I built the data analysis by using all the data generated by all the instruments, as it emerged, i.e. the study of the context informed the interviews; interviews fed the classroom observations; and classroom observations and pre-observation interviews enlightened the post-observation interviews.

All the data was then reviewed by external reviewers, i.e. my supervisors, defined as peer debriefing (Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Creswell and Miller, 2000; Cohen et al., 2011; Creswell, 2014). Their insights added an external view to the data analysis. From a critical theory point of view, post-observation interviews were used to clarify and expand on participants’ views, building knowledge with the participants, rather than for them.

Considering the interviews, classroom observations, and post-observation interviews, I triangulated the data. Stake (2006, p.77) argues that triangulation ‘occurs along the way’, so all the instruments start uniting as they are collected. The triangulation process aids to cross-check the data by using different instruments (Lincoln and Guba, 1986).
4.9.2 Dependability

Dependability is fully related to credibility. It focuses on data collection and analysis consistency. It acknowledges the changing nature of the research context, and accounts for these changes. This research is a snapshot of a pre-service ELT programme which is experimenting a change process. To ensure dependability, I kept a detailed record of all the steps of this research on a personal journal, and a paper and digital record. The detailed record of the data, and the data analysis strengthens the data dependability.

A fiscal audit (Lincoln and Guba, 1985) which describes the stages of the research process can help establish dependability. The auditors examine the data, findings and interpretations, so they are internally coherent. I believe that my supervisors monitored this aspect, and aided my own observation of the process.

4.9.3 Confirmability

Confirmability measures the impact of the researchers' subjectivity (Miles et al., 2014). It aims at verifying that the phenomenon under study reflect the participants' perspectives, and that meanings that the researcher give to these are grounded in the participants' views, and are not influenced by the researcher's bias (Jensen, 2008a).

In my case, as a former member of staff and TE of the programme being researched, I tried to be as reflexive and transparent about my views and interpretations as it is possible. In both the data analysis and discussion, I have attempted to show how my previous knowledge and experiences have led me to understand a particular issue.

4.9.4 Transferability

Transferability is defined whether the study findings can be used in different contexts (Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Yin, 2014). In other words, it refers to how readers and other researchers can make connections from this research to their own contexts (Jensen, 2008b). Yin (2014, p.68) argues that the transferability can be in the form of ‘a lesson learned, working hypothesis, or other principle that is believed to be applicable to other situations’.

Considering the limitations of a case study, I believe that this research findings could be transferred to other settings, for I have provided a detailed account of the research context, through a thick description, and the account of the research methods and data analysis.
4.10 Summary

This section presented the methodological underpinnings of this research proposal. I started by introducing the research questions and their focus, followed by the research paradigm (critical theory) and the research design (case study). Then, I moved to the data generation process, giving insights on participant recruitment, data generation instruments and phases. I concluded by delving into the ethical considerations and trustworthiness in this research.

This is the end of Part 1. Part 2 presents the research findings divided into three chapters.
Part 2: Findings

Tying beliefs, knowledge and practices together

The findings section is divided into three chapters. In the first chapter, I examine the interviews with permanent staff and teacher educators (TEs) in relation to their views of the integrated curriculum (IC). The second chapter focuses on TEs’ reported and actual practices in the Integrated English Language (IEL) strand and their reflections on their classroom practices. Finally, the third chapter refers to the student teachers’ (STs) knowledge about the IC, and their experience in the IEL classroom.

The findings chapter’s sequence is an attempt to show the understandings of the IC, as a curriculum innovation, from the participants’ perspectives, i.e. the staff as initiators of change, teacher educators as implementers/enactors of change, and student teachers as recipients of change and future enactors of the IC in the school classroom.

I will quote teacher educators by using their names plus the interview number (1 for the pre-observation interview, and 2 for the post-observation interview), e.g. Dave1. Student teachers are quoted by their names, plus their year of study, e.g. Paullette1, meaning she is in first year. The head of the English department and head of the PRESET will be quoted as HELT and HPRESET respectively.
Chapter 5 The views of staff and teacher educators on the Integrated Curriculum
The initiators and the implementers

5.1 Introduction
In this chapter, I examine the interviews with the permanent staff and teacher educators exploring their views and experiences of the integrated curriculum, aiming to answer the first research question: What are teacher educators’ understandings of the IC and the exit profile? Although this question is focused on teacher educators, by interweaving the permanent staff and teacher educators’ perspectives, I attempt to offer a broader understanding of the roles of the IC’s initiators and implementers. Firstly, I explore their views of the IC and the exit profile. Secondly, I refer to the institutional support to work in the IC and conclude with the IC limitations and challenges. I have organised the data in subheadings based on the themes I delineated from the interviews, and listed below:

- The integrated curriculum and the exit profile,
- Institutional support, and
- The IC limitations, challenges, and suggestions for improvement.

5.2 The integrated curriculum and the exit profile
The integrated curriculum aims that the content and teaching/learning processes of each of the curricular strands (IEL, education, methodology, school internships/practicum) are linked in two learning spaces: the university and the school, i.e. the university should bear the school context in mind, and the practices implemented at school should reflect the ideas developed at university. The IC’s exit profile is influenced by critical pedagogy, and outlines what student teachers are expected to become upon completion. To achieve this aim, all TEs are expected to model this profile in their classroom practices.

When asked to define the integrated curriculum, the head of department states the following:

The integrated curriculum gives students an opportunity to relate knowledge, information, experiences, to reflect about them, and to come up with their own identity, their own professional background, and I think that they [STs] are able to create more expectations about what and who they are going to be once they graduate. I hope it’s not just teaching English properly what they want to do [HELT: 1].
The head of department sees the integrated curriculum as a two-fold path: STs as language learners and as teacher learners. Hence, STs’ education aims at helping them to become aware of their beliefs to position and foresee themselves as different language teachers. Similarly, the head of the PRESET agrees with the head of department unpacking the concept of integration at the service of the exit profile:

Every course that students have is connected from the point of view of content of the course, from the methodology that is used in this course, and with a single final aim which is the achievement of the profile, the intermediate profile the first two years, and the exit profile at the end of the programme. One of the issues is how we connect the different courses, and how we work together towards that aim, but keeping obviously the identity so what each course contributes for the education of our students [HPRESET: 1].

Integration is seen from the viewpoint of the modules’ contents and TEs’ methodology in the classroom. The head of the PRESET raises the issue of the actual implementation of strand integration, bearing in mind the individual modules’ signature in light of the intermediate and the exit profile that act as a compass for all IC’s modules.

The head of department defines the exit profile as educating an integrated individual. I think that one of the things that we have all learned is that being an English teacher is only an excuse. And this country is in such a mess that really needs good teachers. Good teachers meaning people who understand what’s going on, politically, socially, etc., and who can actually make changes [HELT: 2].

There is agreement between the exit profile and the Head of Department’s statement. Simply put, language learning is perceived as a means to make changes in a society that urgently needs a transformation. She conceives English teachers as the means to achieve transformation through language teaching. She then continues

I think that more than anything [the exit profile] portrays a new and different kind of citizen. Somebody who feels responsible for what's going on in his community, in the region, in Chile, in the world (...). I think we have to make our students aware of their responsibility with society and their future students [HELT: 3].

From the quotes above, the figure of the teacher as an agent of change is prominent. It is becoming a language teacher who is empowered to impact on their future students’ lives.

Summarising, the head of the PRESET delineates the profile in three axes: agents of change, language proficiency, and classroom practices:
We want to educate language teachers who are connected to social justice and critical thinking, and series of values, attitudes and skills that would help the future teachers become what we call agents of change in the educational system.

Another area is also interconnected is teachers who are competent in the discipline, so we aim at educating teachers who are very competent language-wise, so they know, they speak English, they are able to express, they are able to understand the language at a very competent level.

And the third line would be that we are interested in is how to put all those two strands together in the classroom by giving them [STs] tools to teach effectively in the classroom [HPRESET: 2].

This definition expands on what the PRESET is aiming for during the five years of the programme. The exit profile focuses on the school classroom, where future English language teacher acts as an agent of change, an effective and language-competent teacher, i.e. knowing about, understanding and using the language to support student-teachers’ teaching-learning process. Student teachers, however, mainly agree with the latter two points, since they feel that knowing about the language is a currently a missing feature of the IEL (see 7.3).

The IC is implemented by teacher educators from different disciplines. The profile of TEs working with this curriculum, and in particular on the Integrated English Language strand is specific, as defined by the head of department:

We look for good English, methodology skills; we look for something similar to our exit profile. We want that person aware of what's going on around him or her, about his community, the university, Santiago, Chile, the world. We want that person to be able to have opinions, to be able to support the opinions; we want that person to be political, political in the best sense of the word [HELT: 4].

TEs have to meet two main requirements: Being competent language teachers, i.e. proficient language users and expert teachers; and being aware of the local and world contexts, critical thinkers, and political. I understand the latter as someone who is an active citizen, e.g. has a standpoint about past and current national and international events, and is ideally involved in the local community to some extent.

So far, I have referred to what the staff understand about the integrated curriculum, the exit profile, and TEs’ profile. However, it is important to learn what the TEs know about the IC, from their role as implementers in the classroom with student teachers. As detailed in Chapter 4, four TEs participated in this research. In their interviews, they reveal that they differ from staff with regards to understanding the IC. Some understand the IC as the Integrated English Language, while others embrace all curricular strands.
From an IEL viewpoint, Joe states that integration is to move the four skills (...). But to integrate them, not only integration (.) for me integration is not to have them [the skills] all in one class. It's just to make them be compatible, to make them be meaningful to the students [Joe1: 1].

Pat identifies integration as topic integration in language:

Having all topics together around one topic. By topics I mean, you have grammar, phonetics, pronunciation, vocab, lexis, more than vocabulary, stress patterns (…) and you're teaching all these elements around a topic which is a meaningful topic for the students, for society, for the country [Pat: 1].

From a language-driven perspective, both accounts highlight the importance of the topics in IEL to understand the local and global contexts (see Appendix 2). Topics appear to set a framework for developing and unpacking the principles underpinning the exit profile, i.e. educating teachers who are aware of what occurs in society so as to become agents of change.

Similarly, Dave sees the integrated curriculum from a two-fold viewpoint:

language in this case, now, teaching in the Integrated Curriculum, is the vehicle we use in order to discuss, to criticise, elaborate arguments (…) and we bring in to the discussion different topics [Dave1: 1].

and then ‘in the integrated language module we are also integrating the other modules that are taught at the university’ [Dave1: 2]. Dave starts with a language-driven definition, to then open his understanding of the IC, unpacking some of the exit profile underpinnings. He conceives language as the centre of the curriculum, and stresses the link to other strands, whose content represents a resource for teaching and learning.

Kate, as a staff member and TE, reports that her views have changed over time:

I used to think that it was language that supported all the other subjects, and now I think it is much more, I mean (…) not everything going into language but also, I don’t know, psychology with methodology, not everything having language as the main starting point. I think now (…) any course can be integrated with another course [Kate1: 1].

She adds that ‘as part of this integration, my idea was to be part of all the strands at some point’ [Kate1: 2]. Kate’s understandings have changed over time through her purposeful involvement to teach in all strands. Kate has a first-hand perspective of how integration occurs in all different strands, observing the relation among TEs and strand coordinators. Her experience, then, allows her to make better-informed decisions for
the overall IC improvement since she owns a cross-curricular view. She states that over the IC’s first two years

there’s a good content support for students, so they [TEs] expand on certain contents that is provided in other modules in Spanish. So for example, in first year, [the topic of] identity would have not necessarily [fitted in] with other subjects, I think that they [STs] are starting university, and identity is an issue, so that content is there [Kate1: 3].

And the upper years:

it’s more in terms of competencies, so the exit profile, now not as much as the contents, but reinforcing students to develop certain competencies in certain tasks that involve the use of language applying what they are doing in prácticas [practicum]. That is being integrated in all the subjects [Kate1: 4].

Kate observes a separation between the first two years, and from third to fifth year (see Appendix 1). In the former, the integration is focused on linking content between language and other modules, whereas in the latter, there is a shift to developing the hoped-for exit profile particularly merging IEL and practicum, and ideally, the other strands (methodology and education), with the practicum becoming the bond among all strands, as STs approach the end of the degree.

Looking at the exit profile, TEs reported similar perspectives referring to what student teachers should be able to do, and what TEs (should) do in the classroom to achieve the profile’s aims. From the STs’ perspective, Dave reports that student teachers ‘should be able to think critically, be autonomous, to be responsible, to be ethical students’ [Dave1: 3]. Then, he highlights the social drive of the profile:

   We are training students [teachers] who are able to think, to solve problems, to serve the more disadvantage students in our society, so they are able to transform reality [Dave1: 4].

Dave hopes that student teachers become critical, committed and responsible agents of change in their school contexts, making a difference in their school students’ lives.

From a ST/TE perspective, Pat summarises the profile in educating ‘citizens as teachers, and teachers as citizens in a democratic way’ [Pat: 2]. She emphasises the development of citizenship values embedded in the profile, e.g. promoting participation within the school community in a balanced way giving everyone the same opportunities, building bonds between students and teachers.

From the TEs’ perspective, Joe points out that they aim
to make students committed to learning, to improving their knowledge, and to really also [be] professionals in the future, not only speaking English properly, but also as human beings, sympathetic with students, capable of understanding their needs, problems, goals and aspirations [Joe1: 2].

Joe argues that, besides learning/teaching English, establishing relationships with students and meeting their needs are the exit profile’s main objectives. TEs need to model this kind of relationship with their own STs, so STs can also replicate their IC experience with their future students.

On TEs’ classroom practices’ values, Pat states that

what we're trying to do for them to reproduce this emancipation kind of teaching, and to escape from traditional teaching. It has to do with politics, being aware of the context where you're going to teach, and what I like the most about the exit profile is that it says that you’re going to be giving dignity to the citizens of your country, and it's happening, it's already happening in our classrooms [Pat: 3].

Pat analyses TEs’ classroom practices in light of the IC’s hoped-for transformation, agreeing with the head of department in p. 112 (see [HELT: 1]). TEs are expected to model through their teaching practice and TEs/STs relationship. Pat thinks that STs are experiencing the profile values, suggesting that TEs believe that they are embodying the model in the classroom.

Pat also remarks on the coherence between TEs’ beliefs and practices:

You cannot talk about emancipation; you cannot talk about critical thinking; you cannot talk about making a change without doing it yourself. You can give a beautiful talk about emancipation, and in your classes, a traditional class [Pat: 4].

Pat discusses that TEs need to be consistent with their beliefs and practices. Teacher educators, as the IC models, need to safeguard consistency to have credibility in front of STs. Similarly, Kate states that

I feel, I try, and I believe that we should model that type of teaching, so for example, not authoritarian, giving students sensibility (…), so modelling that graduate profile [Kate1: 5].

Kate refers to ‘sensibility’ meaning developing student teachers’ awareness of their context, following critical pedagogy (Freire, 1970). TEs expect this envisaged transformation to be transmitted to STs, for the intention is that STs experience what they, as teachers-to-be, would do in their own classrooms in first person.
In this section, I have explored both staff and TEs’ views on the IC and the exit profile. Although staff and TEs bear different perspectives of the integrated curriculum, both mainly know and agree with the exit profile.

### 5.3 Institutional support for TEs

Institutional support is understood as how TEs are guided from the moment they are hired, e.g. initial induction and the assistance that they receive to perform daily, inside and outside the classroom. This support, given by the permanent staff, aims at identifying TEs’ needs and assisting them to make their work sustainable to meet the IC’s goals.

The data shows that staff and TEs disagree on the understanding of support. For example, the head of the PRESET states that:

> We don’t have like an induction properly. They start immediately working in the team, but it’s not that they are hired one day and on Monday they start teaching; we normally hire teachers way in advance, like two, or three months before they start teaching, so they become part of the team the moment we are planning the courses, so that they have the opportunity to you know, to get involved, to understand what we are doing, so more of a conceptual perspective first [HPRESET: 3].

Although this appears an effective system to familiarise with the organization and colleagues, it relies on TEs’ voluntary work since these learning months are not paid. He later offers more details how this system works:

> This is the strongest sort of support we give them, that the team of teachers that we plan every semester, have a good combination of experienced teachers who have been in the programme for quite a while, who know what we are doing, and new teachers. Normally the ticket to enter the programme is language one [IEL1], first year, which is the largest team in the first place because we have the largest number of students, and also the most experienced teachers of all. We have also technological support, I mean, we make sure that they are really talking to each other, and that they feel in a teamwork environment, so they are not afraid of making mistakes, and who are also willing to learn [HPRESET: 4].

At first sight, the IC system resembles a mentoring system. More experienced TEs accompany the new-comers in meetings to build a collegiate atmosphere, sometimes supported by the IEL coordinator and the head of the PRESET. The technological support is through Google Drive, an online file-sharing platform, and WhatsApp groups. However, the data does not provide enough evidence to show that either the staff or more experienced TEs ensure that the new-comers know enough about the IC rationale before starting working. Thus, the support seems to be from the perspective of enabling
them to carry out practical, day-to-day tasks rather than that of helping unpacking TEs’ beliefs and/or supporting their knowledge to teach the contents covered in IEL topics, e.g. language form, integrating contents from phonetics/lexico-grammar, and the integrated contents from other subject areas.

When asked about the TEs’ working hours, the head of the PRESET indicates that that is one of the issues that we have, but as a whole we sort of count on the teachers’ willingness to do that. What we are trying to do is we are trying to keep a very small team of teachers, so that we are able to offer teachers a reasonable amount of teaching hours, so that they at the end of the month, they receive enough money, so that they don’t have to look for another job, and I think those conditions are very attractive for many teachers. They sort of feel that we offer enough, so that they focus fully on trying to understand and become part of the programme. And so, on the whole, I’ve never sort of faced a situation where a teacher says ‘yes, I’m not going to, I mean, I’m interested in this job, but I’m not going to come to the planning meetings, I’m not going to participate of the planning stage of the programme without being paid’. On the whole, I think that we have to be very grateful that teachers are very generous in a way [HPRESET: 5].

Although there is acknowledgement of the situation at this PRESET, the fact that TEs are mostly working on this programme only, and that they are physically at the university for longer hours, gives staff the space to ask TEs to do more day-to-day tasks, going beyond the call of duty.

Having years of experience in the IC, Joe reports how support has changed over the years

My first year was just like this is what you’ve got to do, and I was waiting to tell me for somebody else to tell me what to do. In the last two, three years I've been receiving more, I guess that there is more communication to start with. We have regular meetings, meetings that tend to be discussions, anything time that I have a question, doubt, or whatever, I can either approach the head of the department, or the coordinator of the English language programme. Yes, I'm supported. I get guidance from them. Also, from my colleagues, the other teachers that I share courses with. Particularly that would be, in my case, the most impressive development over the last few years. Teachers’ teams working on the same language levels are working more together now. There is more power of communication. I would say even a better personal rapport [Joe1: 3].

Joe reflects how TEs/TEs and TEs/staff relationships have evolved over time. Overall, he has felt that communication rapport among TEs and TEs/coordination has improved over the years, making him feel more supported.
The head of department also acknowledges this change over time:

I think that the teachers have been evolving towards what now, I think, we finally can call an integrated curriculum. This meant that a few teachers have left, of course, they were not able to accept that the teamwork meant exactly that, team work. They were not willing to share their time, or the space, and they, after a while, left, so I think now we have the teachers that truly believe in this programme, and I think that doesn’t have anything to do with age, sex, or whatever. I also think that they are still very upright sometimes, and they feel very pressured by their work because they have decided to work in such a way that they have to be constantly connected. When I asked them if that was a bit too much or if it interfered with the private life, they said no, they do it when they feel like it, and sometimes it’s in the early hours of the morning because that’s when they feel like more comfortable to work like that. All in all, I think that the students are finally realising that what the teachers are doing means an enormous amount of work, and I think that they are finally appreciating that [HELT: 5].

From the staff viewpoint, the head of department explains why some TEs left the programme based on the programme’s own perspective on team work, i.e. working with others, being flexible, and giving up one’s time. Thus, it can be inferred that TEs’ willingness to share their (personal) time is taken for granted when employed on the programme, evidencing a tension about the balance among TEs’ commitment to the programme, their obligations, and their own personal time. Although she is aware of the large amount of planning time spent by TE, she reports that TEs are willing to spend time on the IC, see it as a commitment, and that student teachers perceive the effort that TEs make.

The head of the English pedagogy expands on the hiring process and what they look for in a TE:

We always ask them to do a demo class, for we are looking in a demo class, more than the technical expertise is the connection that they are able to build with students. That is really, really important, and, we’ve discarded a number of very sort of experienced teachers, simply because they’ve shown that they are not able to interact personally with the students. We have to have teachers who are interested in our students’ opinions, who are open, and not only open but who foster students’ participation, honest participation, discussion on issues that are sometimes that are very difficult to discuss [HPRESET: 6].

The head of the PRESET explains that TEs’ classroom practices and rapport are more important than their previous knowledge or qualifications. This suggests that school teaching experience may not be considered to be relevant for the position, although it is perceived as important by student teachers (see Valentina4: 5 in 7.3.2) as it gives credibility to what TEs are teaching about schools.
As said earlier, upon hiring, TEs are invited to attend planning meetings, give their opinions, and work on planning. This is valued by TEs because, as Pat says: ‘for the first time in my life, I felt very important, like in the workplace. Because they said ‘what’s your opinion? What do you think?’ [Pat: 5]. She then describes work environment among TEs:

   Even if you screw up, if you make mistakes, nobody was going to tell you: you’re wrong; (…) you’re not good enough for this. On the contrary, they said (…) you know how we can change that? Or this is good; we’re gonna leave this out, this is not useful for the programme [Pat: 6].

The Chilean educational system usually follows a top-down approach where teachers are told what to do and have little or no space to give their opinions. Coming from and working at the public school sector, Pat is therefore surprised to find dialogue, support and permanent feedback in this workspace, differing from what she has previously experienced.

In Kate’s experience, she did not receive any specific IC guidelines, but was asked to read a journal article that is part of the IEL underpinnings (Nation, 2007). Despite not having any induction, she highlights the feedback ‘there’s a lot of feedback about what we are doing. And there’s a good spirit to improve, and to discuss and solve problems collaboratively’ [Kate1: 6], referring to the good team spirit existing among TEs, agreeing with Pat above.

Despite the demands of time to plan, read and mark, TEs admit that there is a personal satisfaction to see how the IC is changing student teachers’ lives. Pat clearly illustrates this:

   You work a lot; you have to read a lot before classes (…). Well, yes, you, you use a lot of your personal time, I cannot deny that. There are entire weekends that I have spent correcting, assessing, checking, different evaluations, different assessments, e.g. journals, or written tests, or the blogs, or I don’t know, planning a lesson for the week that is coming. I think that I don’t know, I think it’s a kind of professional joy [Pat: 7].

   And she continues:

   I like it. This is my passion, whatever. When somebody tells, when a student comes to you and tells you? You know what? You helped me; you, you, this whole programme, the university changed my life. You are actually changing their lives; you’re actually doing something for them. This is your payment [Pat: 8].

It seems that TEs’ motivation to work for and belong to this programme is not affected by their heavy work load, and considers student teachers’ satisfaction as their payment.
5.4 The IC limitations and challenges

Participants report several limitations to the IC implementation, which pose challenges to overcome them. As regards to limitations, understood as those factors that hinder meeting the curriculum goals, e.g. teacher educators’ organization and practices, both the staff and TE are well-aware there is room for improvement. They mention the exit profile feasibility; TEs’ knowledge and organization; STs’ profile and proficiency; and IEL’s assessment, among others.

When asked about the exit profile’s feasibility, the head of department admits that it’s very ambitious. It calls for an almost perfect person but I think that without high expectations we will not get anywhere. I think that we have to push for better and better people as time goes by. And, when we see what's going on in Chile right now, I think we need thousands of people with a new look about society, and the system, and what they can do about it. I think that although the profile is very ambitious there is a connection with reality and that is to make them realise that they and they alone will be responsible to make the changes that we need [HELT:6].

The exit profile is, to a great extent, aspirational, and the head of the department is fully aware of that. In fact, by setting high expectations and raising awareness of the national context, she hopes that the IC’s graduates will be the ones making future changes that the country needs, reflected in their own classrooms and local communities.

The head of the PRESET presents a different perspective on the limitations, from two points of view: STs’ profile, and the school reality.

We do have lots of challenges, and one of them being students themselves, and it’s really a challenge for us to get students involved and understand what we want from them. Basically because all the beliefs that they are being imprinted with in terms of what a language teacher should be like, so especially in the first couple of years, but all the along the programme. We are permanently struggling with this sort of tension between what they really honestly believe in, and what we want them to become [HPRESET: 7].

Changing STs’ beliefs is one of the IC’s critical challenges. The IC offers student teachers a different model to the traditional school system as language learners and practicing teachers. As such, the modelling and consistency of the IC’s message seems to be critical to achieve its aim.

Referring to the impact of the admission system (see 2.7), the head of the PRESET argues that
we welcome students who sometimes lack a lot, so that really means that we have
to do a lot of work and hard work in order to get them where we want them to get
[HPRESET: 8].

As mentioned in Chapter 1, most STs come from public schools, and there are few
higher-education graduates in their families, so the PRESET takes responsibility to
provide STs with study skills, resilience strategies, in addition to the teaching/learning
(about) English.

In the same vein, another challenge posed by the exit profile and STs is the link with
the school contexts. There is a perceived gap between the school reality and the IC’s
provision:

One of the big problems they [STs] have is how the school puts certain demands
on our students that are not really coherent with the kind of teacher that we want
them to be, so after we convince them that a language teacher is a teacher who is
interested in helping students develop in ways beyond language competence, then
we include citizenship and critical thinking and social values and skills, we face a
wall in front of us when they have to respond to the traditional demands of schools
themselves [HPRESET: 9].

From the TEs’ perspective, Dave expands on this gap from the challenges STs may
face upon graduation: ‘our students don’t know how to teach in a school because we’re
training them not to teach in the way schools are teaching’ [Dave1: 5]. The Chilean
context is brought into the IC’s lessons, expecting to provide different perspectives of
the school contexts. However, the data does not show how STs (get) prepare(d) to face
school reality upon graduation. While this university is promoting a radical change in
LTE, it is complicated to change the school curriculum, practices and organizational
cultures, e.g. what school managers and more experienced teachers expect from newly
qualified teachers in terms of their professional knowledge and behaviours.

In addition to the university vs. school dichotomy, student teachers’ autonomy is also
perceived as a limitation:

It’s difficult. It’s very challenging to have that level of autonomy and, especially
working with kids, getting to school communities. I think teachers get very quickly
absorbed by a very demanding system [Kate1: 7].

Kate sees (lack of) autonomy as another university/school disagreement. Autonomy is
seen to be reflected on teachers’ practices and maintaining one’s beliefs and identity
within the school space despite adverse circumstances. Kate suggests that their IC
graduates may struggle to remain autonomous while trying not to get captive by the
school system requirements.
To the same extent, TEs are concerned about to what degree STs meet the exit profile upon graduation. Joe asserts that the profile is

not permeating all students. I mean, there are some students, as you know, that are really an example of the exit profile. Others are still lacking behind the main objective in terms of responsibility and commitment [Joe1: 4].

Joe’s statement suggests that, although there are some students that meet the profile’s aims, there are others who are not responsible or committed. These two concepts are desired characteristics from an IC graduate. However, the data does not provide enough evidence to unpack what responsible and committed mean in the IC context.

Another concern regarding the exit profile is about the degree to which student teachers meet the expected language knowledge and competence. Dave, for instance, refers to learning about the language:

They [STs] might lack the theory of language that they are supposed to teach. Let’s say, oh you need to know how to teach the first conditional, and we are not training our students to do that [Dave1: 6].

Student teachers are not being taught language form in IEL, which appears to be an issue when addressing school’s demands. Ministry-provided textbooks have grammar points, and despite having a teachers’ edition, student teachers need to have the knowledge to be able to explain specific content. In fact, a final year ST admits that:

I'm comfortable sometimes with my English, but I think that I needed some preparation in terms of grammar for example because not all schools work with this integration, so you need to teach grammar sometimes, and it's like I don't know what I say, I don't know if you ask me the past participle of something. I don't know what to do. You see? [Tamara5: 1]

In the same vein, Kate thinks that:

In terms of language, they [student teachers] are very fluent, and they can get messages across, especially, especially in speaking but the pronunciation and their grammar tend to be very inaccurate. I think sometimes they are going to be models of the language [Kate1: 8].

These three accounts reveal that student teachers may not be meeting the exit profile expectations regarding language competency. Being models of the language addresses one of the goals of the profile, and the Ministry of Education’s requirements for language teachers of C1. However, the data evidences a disagreement between TEs' perceived STs’ proficiency upon graduation, and the Ministry of Education’s expectations.
Kate takes language knowledge further, saying that

Students should know about the meta-language of the language. They are very
good users of the language, but they don’t know a lot about the language. That can
affect the way they make decisions in the classroom [Kate1: 9].

Kate analyses how meta-language influences in-class decisions to address pupils’
needs, which STs seem to be lacking. Her comments are also related to TE’s practices,
since the classroom observations evidence that references to language structure and
function are incidental (See Chapter 6).

Hence, Kate argues that there has to be an explicit focus in language teaching:

The focus on grammar, and the focus on pronunciation, and the focus on
vocabulary, I mean, that is not incidental learning, I mean, it is not going to happen
because of exposure to input. That needs to be dealt specifically, and in a very
targeted way, and if you do that, you need the language [Kate1: 10].

Kate insists that it is necessary to focus on language itself to meet the teaching
demands of the Chilean language learning context. From her perspective, since she
teaches the last IEL module, she has identified that last-year student teachers’
proficiency level is not meeting the IC’s goals.

She also questions the TEs’ capability to know about everything that is expected in the
IEL to address the IC’s goals:

It’s expected from us [TEs] to know a lot about so many things, and in language,
language three, language two, whatever, we want our students to do some morpho-
syntactic analysis, morpho-syntactic analysis! Not necessarily one of the language
teachers will know about it, so it has to do with expertise [Kate1: 11].

Kate suggests that there may be a relation between STs’ lack of language knowledge
and TEs’ (lack of) knowledge of specific linguistic features since specialised knowledge
may not be TEs’ expertise and/or even interest. She supports her point by referring to
the attempt to integrate linguistics with IEL 4 in the unit of morpho-syntactic analysis.
IEL covers lexico-grammar and phonetics contents (see Chapter 2), so all IEL TEs are
expected to know and teach some contents of these two areas. Teacher educators may
not necessarily know (enough) about those specific contents to teach them. The latter
may be due to insufficient attention given to learning about TEs’ prior knowledge and/or
area(s) of interest during the hiring process, and lack of training on those specific areas
expected to be taught in the IEL lessons. This reported lack of knowledge also suggests
that the principles in which the IEL is based on (see 3.2) are not fully understood or known by the TEs, e.g. there is no balance between content and language.

Similarly, Dave addresses his concern about TEs’ beliefs about teaching IEL as not all teachers

accept that grammar is not the core of English language teaching. So, that's a challenge for somebody who wants to work here, and is not ready to embrace a different paradigm [Dave1: 7].

Dave’s statement focusses on the belief that TEs are expected to have in order to teach at this programme. This idea relates to what the head of English Pedagogy mentions in p. 125 (see [HPRESET: 6]). He considers that the TEs’ profile is a very specific one which transcends expertise, and is based mainly on their language teaching beliefs and capacity to model the exit profile. Interestingly, this area emerges as a contradiction in the post-observation interviews, since in fact TEs mainly focussed on student-teachers’ proficiency, language knowledge, and readiness to teach in the school context rather than on the achievement of criticality and awareness of the context.

In the language classroom, one of the critical challenges is the actual equilibrium of all the elements embedded on the IEL and the exit profile:

How can you balance a class where you have the perfect of amount of listening, speaking, reading, writing, methodology, teaching awareness, learning awareness, ICT, etc.? So I think it's very ambitious [Pat: 9].

Connecting IEL and the exit profile in all classes, i.e. have all skills in a 'perfect' balance – providing equal time for each skill - and modelling the exit profile seems to be a complex and constant puzzle for TEs. In my view, it is almost impossible to have that balance in any classroom, since teachers have to respond to the actual students’ needs and classroom events which cannot be planned. As will be seen in Chapter 6, classes mainly focused on discussions, i.e. speaking, so they lacked balance.

Similarly, the IC intends that all strands feed into each other. In reality, there seems to be only a one-way communication system:

They [other strands’ TEs] know exactly what we're doing. They know how it works, and they know what's going on. It's all I know about the other teachers [Pat: 10].

Pat reveals that there might be still some work to be done in relation to how integration is being communicated, particularly by those TEs who do not work in the IEL. There is an evident connection among the TEs working in the IEL, and due to this strand’s centrality within the IC, TEs from other strands are told what is going on in the IEL, but
it is not reciprocal, i.e. IEL TEs do not know what other strand TEs are doing. This may be explained because the latter usually work fewer hours, and are also non-tenured TEs, normally receiving information through e-mails and one or two meetings a semester.

In terms of achieving the exit profile, Kate mentions how demanding it is to plan to do so because

The amount of planning involved, and also thinking of the exit profile all the time, and want to model these very good examples of teaching. There is too much planning involved and that is a strain on a teacher [Kate1: 12].

Kate sums up TEs’ challenges inside and outside the classroom, i.e. planning and embodying the exit profile. However, reflection on classroom practices or professional development opportunities are limited due to time constraints and TEs feeling overworked.

Referring to the IC implementation over time, Joe, as a senior TE, comments on the implementation process, indicating it has been hard

to accommodate to continuous changes. I just learned the hard way. Doing something and no, we are not doing that anymore, has to be done this way, so that has been really difficult [Joe1:5].

He suggests that there is a communication problem in terms of how decision-making has been made and communicated in the past. TEs did not seem to have had time to process changes as they were made in the past. However, as seen in page 115 [Joe1:3], he reports that communication has improved over the years.

5.5 Suggestions for improvement

When asked to suggest changes or improvements, TEs seem to be involved in a permanent dialogue to revisit the programme:

We are constantly changing, checking, revising, revisiting. But of course it’s not perfection. We’re very enthusiastic about it, but it’s not perfect. It always needs to be improved [Pat: 11].

Pat suggests that TEs are committed and there is a good spirit to improve the IC. Nonetheless, while this willingness emerges from the IEL TEs, the other strands’ involvement is unclear.
Another suggestion is to reduce the time requirements for teachers, as Joe recommends: ‘I would first of all, do something to make teachers lives less miserable in terms of time requirements’ [Joe1: 6]. In practical terms, Joe advises to have fewer readings for each module, i.e. using a text for more than one a day to study it in more depth. Student teachers are also critical about this point (see 7.4).

An additional proposal refers to increasing the number of hours given to the methodology modules to better connect the IEL, practicum and reflective workshop strands in the upper levels, and this is reported by the head of department as something that they are currently working on:

We want it [the decision] to be [based on] a serious study, and a product of time and reflection. We know we need at least one more subject on methodology, at least. But that should come up in all the focus groups, questionnaires, interviews, etc., that are being done [HELT: 7].

Although no further details of this study were collected during the data generation, the head of department reports that this curriculum adjustment would imply removing one or two modules from a different strand, adding those hours to the methodology strand. Literature content would be integrated into IEL. This decision would eventually have implications for IEL TEs’ knowledge and practices in teaching literature.

5.6 Summary

In this chapter, I have introduced the staff and teacher educators’ perspectives of the integrated curriculum and its goals, reflected in the exit profile. There is a general sense of agreement and commitment among staff as decision-makers and teacher educators, as facilitators. Both staff and TEs have similar views on criticality, social changes, and citizenship. TEs refer to ‘the school’, as a generic space, or the context where STs will teach, to know well and to nurture teacher-student relationships. However, there seem to be two different perspectives when talking about integration. Some TEs see it as only related to the IEL module, whereas others see the IC from a holistic point of view embodying all curriculum courses.

The permanent staff and teacher educators partially disagree about the institutional support for TEs as facilitators inside and outside the classroom. While staff is aware of the TEs’ extensive demands of time that of the IC implementation, TEs are willing to devote their time to the programme, despite not having the ideal conditions for developing their work.
Perceived limitations are mainly centred on bridging the gap between the university’s expectations and the school reality, and STs reaching the exit profile. TEs are concerned about STs’ language proficiency (reaching C1 upon graduation), knowledge about the language (structure/functions), and using meta-language to inform their teaching and learning. TEs are also concerned about their own readiness to teach at the IEL. The data suggests that TEs do not quite understand the underlying theory base of the IEL, suggesting that they may not be fully prepared to teach the IEL. TEs present integration as a challenge, within the IEL strand and in a cross-curricular level. Finally, issues in relation to TEs’ lack of time, and need to deal with frequent changes are raised, concluding with some possible curriculum adjustments that might lessen TEs’ burden.
Chapter 6 The Integrated English language classroom: teacher educators’ reported and actual practices

6.1 Introduction

In this chapter, I draw on teacher educators’ (TEs) interviews about their reported practices, and on classroom observations of TEs’ actual practices in the Integrated English Language (IEL) strand. In Chapter 5, I delineated TEs’ perspectives of the IC. By exploring TEs’ classroom observation videos, I attempt to address the second research question ‘How do teacher educators implement the integrated curriculum in the language classroom?’

This chapter is divided into three parts, focusing on teacher educators’:

- reported and actual practices,
- reflections on their own practices, and
- further reflections on the IC implementation and their own practices.

I start with TEs’ reported and actual practices in the IEL modules 1 – 8 since these are structured similarly, and most classroom observations were done in these levels; secondly, I include a separate section on IEL 9, the last module of the IEL strand, since it has a different structure and focus; lastly, I draw on TEs’ post-observation interviews to display teacher educators’ reflections on their own teaching practices, e.g. their perceptions of integration, and other challenges inside and outside the classroom to enable the integrated curriculum.

6.2 Overview of IEL 1-8

During the data generation, there were seven IEL TEs working in two groups, divided per levels, i.e. IEL 1 – 5 – 9, and IEL 3 – 7 (Even IEL modules, i.e. IEL 2, 4, 6, 8 are offered during the second semester). Not all TEs worked on all the levels since it depends on the number of STs’ groups per level (see 2.8.5). The daily planning and TEs’ rotation system require an exhaustive coordination among TEs teaching the same level, for they do not teach the same ST group on two consecutive days. Hence, TEs need to be constantly in touch to adjust the planning as a result of what occurs on a daily basis. For example, if TE 1 did not finish an activity with group 1 on Monday, TE 2 who is teaching group 1 on Tuesday has to finish off the pending activities, before moving to the Tuesday’s activities.

When asked about planning, Joe summarises the step-by-step process in great detail:
This is the same that all teachers on a given level teach on that day, which is good. We set up the objectives of the class, normally two. They're basically drawn along the lines of the tenor of the reading materials they [STs] have previously read. One of the objectives basically would be that they understand, that they apply, that they criticise, and that they discuss. And we break down into the traditional pre, while, post activities set-up format, and we provide for opportunity to read, refer back to the text, and work on vocabulary, infer from the text, to discuss, and to write, and to listen. We try to amalgamate the four skills in most of our classes, so they would all be there. I guess in that sense integration is working [Joe1: 7].

Joe supports all TEs using the same materials, covering the same content and moving at the same pace, as a mean to integrate skills. However, as Pat said in p.126 [Pat: 9], it is not possible to include all language skills in a single class. Joe, nonetheless, does not refer to planning or teaching language forms – apart from lexis – which may be linked to student teachers’ low accuracy as mentioned in the previous chapter.

6.3 Assessment

Although I have not considered the assessment of the IEL modules in the analysis, since it would have diverted the attention of this research, it is important to understand how STs’ language learning is measured in the IEL, as shown in Table 15:
In Table 15, I summarised the assessment section in the IEL modules I observed. In general, all IEL modules have after-unit tasks, as formative assessment. From IEL 1 to 7, there are midterm and final exams, as summative assessment. Pat reports that the assessment is currently under revision, since they are trying to elaborate an 'integrated test', which balances language integration. I had access to the integrated tests, and they are divided into three sections: reading comprehension; listening comprehension (mostly through videos); and writing. Both oral and written texts are related to the topics that STs have seen in the units. The writing production follows the standard writing rubric, which measures coherence, cohesion, punctuation, language structure, vocabulary, and reflection/text comprehension.
6.4 Teacher educators’ reported and actual practices in IEL 1-8

In this section, I present teacher educators’ reported and actual practices in the IEL 1, 5 and 7, taught by Dave and Joe. When referring to reported practices, I look at TEs’ descriptions of a typical IEL lesson, I asked TEs the question ‘Can you please describe a typical IEL lesson?’ On actual practices, I draw on classroom observations. I will interweave both datasets to understand the extent of agreement between TEs’ reported and actual practices. To conclude, I present a summary of the common features observed.

6.4.1 The IEL lessons

As said in 2.8.5, all IEL lessons are divided into three stages: a ‘Pre’ (20 minutes), ‘While’ (45 minutes), and ‘Post’ (80 minutes). These are presented in a PPT which contains the activities and each activity’s timings. When asked to describe an IEL lesson, Dave states that:

[Student teachers] have to speak among themselves, so basically discussions, writing and then producing something. It’s very illustrative in the sense that our classes are structured in three activities, which last 10 to 15 minutes. Then we have a while part, which last 25, 30 minutes. And we basically devote one complete module [80 minutes] to the post part of the class, which is the part where students need to reflect, they need to produce [Dave1: 8].

Similarly, Pat relates to the same structure:

I would start with the PowerPoint giving them [STs], maybe if I have some problems with the PowerPoint, talk with the person next to you, take some time, talk about yesterday's topic, what's your opinion? What are your feelings? Everything about in five minutes, while I am trying to organise the PowerPoint. Then the menu, the objectives, asking if there are questions or problems, anything and then, the pre-activity, which can be a listening, or maybe a short clip, maybe it can be discussion, it can be a couple of questions; it can be pictures, images, and always discussion, discussion, and letting them [student teachers] do all the work [Pat: 12].

Both Dave and Pat agree with the same lesson structure. Both centre on discussion to promote STs’ oral production, and reflection, addressing the exit profile. However, neither account for focus on language form or functions.

Classroom observations agree with the descriptions provided by TEs. Activities are mainly designed to trigger discussion in the classroom, rather than studying a specific language skill or feature. Below I provide some examples of the PPT slides, where possible, and activities done in lessons in these stages, quoting TEs’ prompts to develop activities. At the end of these examples, I comment on the core features observed.
6.4.1.1 Pre-stage

- **IEL 1 – Unit: Understanding educational quality [Dave-IEL1-lesson 2]**
  In this activity, Dave asks STs to notice differences between the OECD countries and Chile. He gives the following instructions:

  Why do we have these huge gaps between the developed countries belonging to the OECD countries and Chile? Why is there a huge difference here? What may be the reason? What may be some of the reasons that explain these huge gaps? Start reading the text, the first three pages, and look for concepts that we can start using, look for some ideas that we can start discussing here. Talk to your partner, share your ideas before we start the lesson. [Dave-IEL1- Lesson 2: 1]

  ![Screenshot of PPT presentation Dave-IEL1- Lesson 2](image)

  **Figure 17: Screenshot of PPT presentation Dave-IEL1- Lesson 2**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>How can you explain the great differences in education between Chile and OECD countries?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With the person next to you, define one idea.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OECD countries: Australia, Austria, Belgium (…), UK, US, and Chile.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- **IEL 3 – Unit: Language and identity [Joe-IEL3-Lesson 6]**
  Joe asks STs to watch a short advert featuring a child who speaks about things that remind him of his mother. Then, they read a quotation on the slide:

  In order to fit into a new community one of the most powerful resources I had at my disposal to show that I was just like the new group of young people I was spending my time with was the way I spoke.

  After watching the video and reading the quote, Joe asks the whole lesson ‘What do you make from both the video and the quotation?’ [Joe-IEL3-Lesson 6: 1].

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1 https://youtu.be/txWuKqzJScs (in Spanish)
STs share their reflections individually, with the lesson, associating family relations with developing identity features, and how people build an image of themselves to fit in a community.

This quotation belongs to a book chapter from the dossier (Wareing and Thomas, 1999, p.122), and is presumably part of the reading allocated for that particular lesson.

6.4.1.2 While-stage

- IEL 1 – Unit: Understanding educational quality [Dave-IEL1- Lesson 2]
  
  Dave asks STs to refer to their reading to answer the following questions:

  Figure 18: Screenshot of PPT presentation Dave- IEL 1 - Lesson 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>While</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>o With the text, answer the following questions:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- What are the reasons we should focus on quality?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Is there any other purpose implied in the text?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- What’s quality according to the text?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

  Dave prompts STs to explore what the text says about quality education. Read the text and, in 10 minutes, answer the questions. He walks around the classroom, telling STs to go through the text asking the following questions:

  Are there any other purpose of the authors? What points do they want to make? What is the argument? [Dave - IEL 1 - Lesson 2: 2]

  He then writes the questions down on the board, and asks STs to answer the questions, and spends about fifteen minutes summarising STs’ reflections on the board, without referring to language.
IEL 7 – Unit: Professionalism and ethics [Joe-IEL7-Lesson 2]

This lesson is called ‘Overview on Ethics: What is professional ethics?’ & ‘Education, Postmodernism, and ethics’. At the beginning of the lesson, the lesson overview slide presents:

- Pre: Quote + Discussion (20’)
- While: Reading circles prep (35’)
- Post: Reading circles presentations (80’)

After an initial discussion about a quote on ethics, Joe invites STs to form four groups asking STs to number themselves from one to four to then group into their respective numbers. Each group is a reading circle, choosing a text according to the instructions. Joe instructs:

So you are group 1 so you are going to be doing the overview; group 2, you are going to be dealing with professional ethics. Group 3 in the back: The first part of education, postmodernism, and ethics; and Juan’s group will basically touch on basically the second half of this. See? You have to be following these guidelines. Get the gist, the substance of the text, and prepare a very brief summary to present in two or three minutes. So your summary has to last maximum three minutes. Come up with a list of triggering, motivating questions to discuss the main issues regarding the main points presented in the text. Define who presents the summary. Asks the questions. Takes notes and writes answers. In other words, who is going to be leading this group? Who is going to be the secretary? And then when we come back after the break, this is what we are going to be doing

I guess I shouldn’t be doing this but just to know why we are doing this, and what you are going to be doing next, so you can relate everything. [Joe-IEL7-lesson 2: 1]

Each group’s presentation should include:

- Text presentation, author, and summary (a very short and precise one)
- Present the questions to the audience and start the discussion by providing their standpoint on question 1.
- Round answers off (publicly)
- Ask question 2 and trigger the conversation by giving the first opinion.
- Round answers off (publicly)
- In case you share the same text, connect your part of the text before you start the intro.
- Each group will have 15’ to present.
After showing the slide on Figure 18 above, STs work on the activity.

6.4.1.3 Post-stage

- **IEL 1 – Unit: Understanding educational quality [Dave-IEL1- Lesson 2]**
  
  For the next activity, Dave asks STs draw on the pre and while – mentioned in the previous sections - pointing at the notes on the board and what the authors have said from the reading. Dave explains the task:

  You have been chosen to work on a national plan to guarantee quality in education. You have to reform education. As a class, everybody, one big group [Dave-IEL1-lesson 2: 3]

  Then, Dave reads the PPT slide as follows:

  - You will create a set a 10 principles on quality in education to be accomplished for the year 2020. These principles need to be focused from different angles (economy, culture, citizenship, etc.).
  - Create communities to organise the implementation.
  - Decide what departments are necessary to implement these measures.
  - Write them on the whiteboard.
  - Defend each of these principles with two arguments. Everybody must have a copy of these principles

  Dave explains that STs do not need to know about everything to perform the task, but respond to their concerns:

  What is your interest behind the quality of education? 'Organise yourselves as you want, but you have to work all of you together. You have one hour to do this [Dave-IEL1-Lesson 2: 4]

- **IEL 7 - Language planning – [Joe-IEL3-Lesson 7]**

  This lesson is titled 'language planning or planning language in the world’. STs pre-read about language planning taken from Crystal (2010). The pre-stage consists of a concept and new words discussion from the text. The while-stage involves an analysis of integrated skills language learning/teaching following the explanation of a language planning paradigm. The preparation for the post-stage is a ‘trivia challenge’. Joe asks STs to group in fours. The PPT slide contains the instructions:

  Think of two questions about the text (concrete); write them down in a slip of paper with the answer to get ready for the trivia challenge.

  Although the trivia challenge is not checked because Joe did not like the activity, after a break, the groups work on a language planning activity. There are seven groups. Each
group role-plays a *language planning commission* in their first meeting in an imaginary country where six languages are spoken, and two of them do not have an alphabet. The task consists of creating a language planning project drawing on the reading. Four groups work on this task. The other three groups address a different activity, consisting of a committee responsible for resuscitating one of the moribund languages spoken in Southern Chile.

While the groups present, Joe asks everyone to do peer assessment, focusing on task quality, use of English, compliance with theoretical background provided by the reading and listening input.

![Figure 19: Screenshot of PPT presentation Joe-IEL3-Lesson 7](image)

While STs are working, Joe walks around the different groups. Once time is up, he reminds that each group has to present in five minutes, and the rest of the lesson needs to do the assessment. When the first group comes forward, Joe reminds that they have to stop working and pay attention.

STs introduce themselves in their roles as two educators, one politician, one linguist, and one economist. The leader introduces the idea of creating a new language by merging the common elements of five languages of this imaginary country, and followed
the ‘planning practice’ section of the text. The linguist points out that research is needed on only one language, and elaborates on emerging challenges. The economist links language with potential users as workforce, using the language as a tool. The politician outlines that the language needs to be used in all areas and cultures. Once they finish presenting, Joe prompts STs to ask questions or make comments. The group explains that this new language would serve as a lingua franca, and foster commerce. Joe explains that the right word for ‘commerce’ is ‘trade’ for the international meaning of ‘trade’, in relation to the production and/or exchange of good or services. One ST asks if it could be ‘trades’, but Joe explains the difference between trade and trades by referring to the figure of speech ‘Jack of all trades’ clarifying that ‘trades’ corresponds to the occupation of producing or selling goods or services.

Finally, Joe asks if the STs presenting spoke good English or broken English, and the rest of STs reply ‘good English’. Joe prompts STs not to be afraid of assessing and giving feedback, saying that

If we remain silent is because you either weren’t paying attention or you don’t know how to speak English. I don’t know which of the two scenarios is the worst [Joe-IEL3-Lesson 7: 1].

STs’ comments on the presentation mainly focus on language mistakes. This is the only group that presents due to time constraints. Joe finishes the lesson inviting STs to participate more and do their readings as he has perceived that their motivation and engagement has decreased over the semester. This agrees with what STs have mentioned in their interviews, when talking about TEs’ challenges (see 7.4).

### 6.4.1.4 Summary of lesson stages

Classroom observations evidence that all lessons are uniform in terms of their structure and mainly revolve around a reading. The lessons follow an oral English-based model, which challenges STs who come from diverse backgrounds and with low proficiency levels. The input is provided by the texts read in the lessons, since they are used to draw upon for ideas and stimulate discussions. The pre-stage consists of a quote, a video, or a picture to trigger initial discussions and raise/clarify key concepts about the topic. The while-stage is a group activity in preparation for the post-stage following the reading for the discussion. The post-stage is where STs show their work usually through oral presentations.

The PowerPoint takes upon the role of a textbook, and leads all the activities done in lessons. However, when there are issues with the IT facilities, TEs struggle to teach their lessons, e.g. delaying the start of the lesson until the problem is fixed, or having to read the planning out of their mobile phones. Without a PowerPoint, it seems that a lesson cannot be delivered. Unfortunately, it is not uncommon that there are issues with
IT facilities in classrooms, e.g. no/slow Internet connection, a broken projector, a missing mouse, etc.

In the observations, TEs followed the PPTs thoroughly. All the ten lessons observed in IEL1-3-7 were uniform in terms of the structure of the PowerPoint, including the timings and kind of activities. Only Joe adapted or did not follow activities, either because they did not meet the student teachers’ emerging needs, or he did not agree with them, opting to replace or skip the prescribed activities with different ones. After the post-stage, I scarcely observed lesson closures, i.e. check the lesson objectives, mainly due to time constrains, although they were part of the PPT.

In the following sections, I will provide further details of TEs’ classroom practices focused on topics, strand integration, and language teaching exemplifying with some of the activities observed.

### 6.5 Classroom interaction

I noticed that classroom interaction relies on TEs acting as discussion moderators. STs mostly work in pairs or groups of three or four people. Seating arrangement varies depending on the TE and each lesson. When asked to portray her classroom layout, Pat indicates that

> [in] an integrated classroom, there must be a circle. And the teacher is part of that circle. It's just another person inside that circle [Pat: 13].

Besides seating arrangement, what Pat describes depicts the non-hierarchical relationship between TEs and STs. The circle symbolises a democratic space for equal participation.

As for TEs (re)acting to student teachers’ interaction, observations evidence that each TE decided if/how to address STs’ input. Some TEs took notes on the board to summarise their ideas, and, in some cases, focused on emerging language issues; conversely, in others, TEs would just continue with the next planned activity.
6.5.1 Topics

As shown in 2.8.5, each IEL programme consists of topics embodied in units. These were the units/topics observed:

Table 16: Topics observed during data generation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Units</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IEL 1 (year 1)</td>
<td>Critical pedagogy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Understanding educational quality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IEL 3 (year 2)</td>
<td>Language, society and power</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Language and gender</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Language and ethnicity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Language and identity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Language planning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IEL 7 (year 4)</td>
<td>Professionalism and ethics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Professionalism on higher education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Developing pedagogical planning mind</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 16 summarises the topics observed during the data generation. They are related to education or language as umbrella terms. These topics suggest that they are linked with other modules taught in the same semester, e.g. IEL 1 and Foundations of education; IEL 3 and introduction to linguistics the following semester; and IEL 7 and school internships and methodology.

Each unit has a reading dossier of 200-300 pages average (e.g. IEL 3 (20 hours a week) Unit 1 & 2 – 490 pp.; Unit 3 & 4 – 540 pp.; and IEL 7 (10 hours a week) - 606 pp. (for 2 units)), which explains what Joe reports in p. 128 [Joe1: 6] as in TEs’ work overload.

The dossiers also follow the same template, based on backward design. The template is divided into four stages (as they read on the template):

- Stage 1: Desired results. It details established goals; understandings; essential questions; knowledge, and skills.
- Stage 2: Assessment evidence. It includes a performance task and other evidence (as blog entries, class participation, class preparation)
- Stage 3: Learning plan. It gives details of the learning experience inside and outside the classroom.
- Stage 4: Integration of language components. It details language structuring (grammar) and phonological/phonetical components.
6.5.2 Integration

As seen in 5.2, TEs define integration as putting the four language skills together, and incorporating the other curricular strands. In lessons, integration of other strands was observed in topics, as they were mostly related to the education strand. Integration is not mentioned explicitly, but embedded in classroom activities.

The most explicit activity featuring cross-curricular integration was observed in IEL 7 (Year 4). The instructions of this pre-stage activity are as follows:

Joe  You will be the creative mind of today's class based on the text. And that links a little bit, if you got the message to what you're doing in methodology, linguistics. So it's not an isolated case of class planning. Probably, I guess that the best thing would be is that you amalgamate all the previous knowledge you have in methodology, even ELAB [school internships], the other one that I can never remember its name, TREPE, TREPE, TRAPE [reflective workshops], whatever that is. OK?

We teachers, and I should say, the winning class, because there will be a sort of competition. We have to select which is the best class: most attractive, methodologically thing that really hits the spotlight. And then, so we, those would design the class will have the privilege of teaching that class. What do you think?

Carolina  I don't understand much

Joe  Don't put the cart before the horses. Let me get there.

So here you have the instructions. You have to plan a class. The most interesting and accurate planning will be carried out by the teachers on the second module. But I shuffled this around, so the designing group will be teaching that class.

In groups of four, consider a 1.20h class, I mean the second module, so it's 70 minutes, 60 minutes. 120, so you'll be working now, closer to the time. Consider the three stages: pre, while and post. That goes without saying. Also, the nature of the programme: Integrated skills language learning. In other words, we should not centre in one specific skill. So try to get the four of them mix together in a comprehensive, intelligent way.

Also, we assume that you have read the text. Also, take into consideration you, as a student of IEL3, 7, sorry, would like to do in the class. You will have 35 minutes to plan as of now, and then, we democratically speaking, with Loreto's help, we will help us to select the best activity, and that's the one you are gonna implement after the break.

In this activity, Joe explicitly tells STs that the activity they are to design has to be integrated, and draw upon their other courses and their internships. In bold, I have highlighted the integration-related sections to a greater or lesser extent. Joe reminds STs to have pre-while-post stages, integrated language skills, and draw on methodology, school internships, and reflective workshops. Although the original plan had the TE teaching the STs' planning, Joe decides that STs will teach their own lesson.

[Joe-IEL7-Lesson 7: 1]
After thirty minutes, each group shares their lesson plan with the class. Then, STs vote for the best plan to be later taught by the most voted group after a break. The lesson finishes with Joe’s feedback on STs’ performance and strengths of the activity.

6.5.3 Language teaching

Language teaching in the Integrated English Language (IEL) strand is a blurry area. In the interviews, little reference is made to language teaching itself. Talking about language teaching mainly referred to teaching grammar and error correction. When asked about grammar teaching, TEs have similar views. Dave states that ‘I wouldn't be teaching them [STs] grammatical structures, and paying attention to that’ [Dave1: 9], but on monitoring understanding and production, Dave asserts that TEs

see if their [student teachers’] receptive skills are working, or if they are developing them; or if in the past part where they have to produce them, they are also using language in a way that they produce skills. We're also trying, or at least, that's what I am trying to do, to combine the four language skills [Dave1: 10].

Joe agrees with Dave’s opinion by saying that

grammar is taken care of. Even though it's a forbidden word in the class, we do it on an as-required basis. We make reference to grammar, but not teaching them grammar, but giving them example on how to use a given structure, when they use, or they should use it type of thing [Joe1: 8].

The data suggests that TEs see direct grammar teaching as something forbidden. Although the observations did not evidence that these views are transmitted to STs, student teachers’ perceptions on how they learn English evince that they have mixed opinions about the teaching and learning of grammar in the classroom (see 7.3). Although the dossiers do include a section on ‘language structuring’, the teaching of language form seems to be absent from the teaching. Likewise, observations suggest that the oral practice is given more emphasis in the teaching than the written one. It seems that STs’ language learning is through reading and permanent discussion, rather than the explicit teaching of language form and functions. There is an imbalance between the oral and written production, and it may be due to lack of time, since lessons aim at covering a reading a day.

Héctor, a final-year ST, defines his language learning experience as

being in an integrated curriculum makes you learn unconsciously. I don’t know, for example, when, or I don't remember when I learned the difference between, I don’t know, past simple or past continuous. That is something that, more or less, was integrated [Héctor5: 1].
He then expands that:

It's mainly about the use of the language rather than knowing about English. We know English, I think, students, we know English. We know how to talk. We know how to read, but we don't know that much about English [Héctor5: 2].

Héctor sees language learning as an unconscious process, and admits the fact that they know the language and not about the language, supporting what Kate states in [Kate1: 9], in reference to mainstream schools’ expectations of teachers’ knowledge.

Furthermore, there is not a well-defined policy of how to treat STs’ language mistakes. In fact, TEs did not seem to have planned a particular language objective to be developed in each class and referred to language either on-demand, e.g. when a ST asked about something, or as-required, i.e. when the TE corrected a mistake and it depended on each TE how much emphasis was given to language issues. As such, each TE decides what to do, e.g. from selecting from what STs say and expanding on the board, writing examples, and trying to raise awareness, to writing on the board correct versions of what the STs said, and explaining why a certain item is correct or not. The data evidences that there is no further language practice after TEs’ explanations.

Dave justifies his choice for not correcting student teachers’ oral production as it may prevent them from speaking in class, and instead, he lets them speak and then recasts (Lyster, 1998; Nicholas et al., 2001) with the correct form.

If I overcorrect them [STs] grammatically, or in the language use, I'm afraid that they would feel even more reluctant to speak. So that's what I don't want. At this point of the course, I prefer to let my students speak, and, I try to make sure that all of them speak. That's why I monitor, I constantly monitor, and I try to paraphrase things when they don't say correctly, so they can repeat in a way that they can notice in a very, I don't know, in a very unnoticeable way, what the correction should be, or what the correct form should be [Dave1: 11].

Dave suggests that STs may not want to speak if they are overcorrected. He prefers to foster STs’ fluency and confidence when speaking English, despite their proficiency level. Thus, his option is to use recasts instead of explicit corrections. However, it is uncertain how much STs take on from the recasts. Pat also expands on the development of fluency:

At first, you try to develop fluency more than accuracy. And then I think that's also one of the core characteristics of the programme because you're trying that they start to be fluent. Yes, fluent in the first stages because they are very self-conscious about their English. They think that ‘oh you know what, my English is not so good, I don't have much vocabulary or lots of words, or grammar is a pain’. But we say
'you know what? Throw all that information to the garbage and just be yourself, and give us what's going on in your mind’ [Pat: 14].

Pat advocates for developing STs’ confidence as language users. It can be inferred that these are the first steps to change STs’ beliefs about language learning by promoting the use of all resources available to communicate.

In what follows, I illustrate some language teaching moments from the data. Generally, they take place either on an on-demand or as-requested basis. I give a brief reference to the lesson title/unit before referring to the event.

a. IEL 1 – Unit: Critical pedagogy [Dave -IEL1- lesson 1]

After student teachers were asked to answer some questions, and then read them out loud, Dave summarises ST’s mistakes on the board, e.g. use of connectors, use of past/present tenses and plurals. He encourages student teachers to develop their linguistic awareness by asking them to identify mistakes themselves, transcribed as follows:

Dave: (...) On the other hand, however, therefore, nevertheless, furthermore, so of course, let's use all these vocabulary. Let's enrich our paragraphs with connectors because that makes your paragraphs more coherent, makes more natural, it gives the paragraphs cohesion, so we need to start using connectors. Other common mistakes?

Student teachers: Past and present

Dave: (writes on the board) The use of past and present. The use of past and present. You need to pay attention to that as well. If you are referring to the video, for instance, in the video the teacher said, or when the teacher said. You need to develop this linguistic awareness when you're writing specially regarding the present because that's where you have more problems. The teacher say, the teacher says. Students feels, students feel. So you need to develop this linguistic awareness. Pay attention to those things where you feel weak.

When you write (. ) please check this. Having two people checking your report, makes it more, makes it easier for you.

What other problems? (...) [Dave-IEL1-Lesson 1: 1]

b. IEL7 – Unit: Developing pedagogical planning mind [Joe-IEL7- Lesson 5]: Joe writes down words on the board and expands on them with definitions, synonyms and uses them in different contexts. Also, based on what student teachers say, teacher summarises common mistakes spotted in the discussions. For example, he explains the difference between what/which asked by one of the STs in IEL 7:
Joe [after a student presentation] OK, good Felipe. Thank you very much. Listen, be careful when you guys use the word, with the use of what and which. OK?

Rocío Can you explain the difference?

Joe In terms of Spanish, we will always have a problem with that. Whenever you ask in general terms, in general terms, we use what. That's why you say 'What's your name?' See? Here, here, this section two gives a good example of that. We have various Camilas. [He addresses one of the Camilas] What's your name?

Camila M Camila

Joe What's your name? Camila. Now tell me that Camila is sick.

André Camila is sick

Joe Which Camila? How many do we have?

Rocío Two

Joe I'm making a choice between two things. I like, what films do you like? I like all sorts. I like, I don't know, Japanese

Rocío Anime

Joe No, films in general. Which is more specific. I'm going on holidays. I don't know. When are you going on holidays? I don't know. I'll probably be going in January or March. You have to tell me more specifically which month because I'm making a choice between two. What is in general, is general. What kind of chocolate, of sweets do you like? I like one chocolate. OK. Produced by whom? OK we have Ambrosoli, and we have, what's the other one?

Rocío Hershey's

Joe Hershey's, OK. OK. Which of the two companies is the best? Which of the two?

Rocío Can you use which with people?

André No

Joe Yes

Rocío That's why, that's why sometimes we have this problem. We ask Camila who. No. Which Camila

Joe No. Which Camila? Which Camila?

Romina If you say Camila what?

Joe Hey, hey, listen my friends [approaches the whiteboard] When you are saying which Camila, you are not referring to the person. You are not referring to who. You are referring to Martinez, Fernandez, Gonzalez, and that's which.

Rocío Ah, OK.

Joe Got it?

Rocío Got it

Joe gives a long explanation between the use of what and which after a ST presentation. He decides to wait for the presentation to finish and makes a general reference to the use of what and which, in an as-required situation as he noticed it was a recurrent mistake.

- IEL7 – Unit: Professionalism and ethics – [Joe -IEL7- lesson 2]. Student teachers are divided in four groups of four to discuss the pre-session reading. Then, they report back to the whole group.
Joe reports back on the use of modal verbs. Although he does not list modal verbs or give several examples, his explanation offers the purpose of modal verbs, and makes reference to STs’ L1. He then continues explaining the difference between /b/ and /v/ in pronunciation, which is a recurrent mistake of Spanish speakers.

Classroom observations confirm that there is no a clear policy of error correction and/or language teaching, and it depends on each TE how they address language issues. TEs seem to concentrate on STs’ oral production in based on the lesson topic without a particular language objective in mind. The observations do not provide enough evidence to see whether STs are ‘absorbing’ the language teaching.

**6.6 Summary of IEL 1-8 modules**

Observations reflect that there are shared features in the IEL classroom. Firstly, there is a PowerPoint presentation containing all the activities, with detailed timings and stages. Secondly, most activities are discussion-based drawing on a pre-reading, suggesting that lesson discussions to develop critical thinking and cooperation since the work is always done in pairs or groups.

Language teaching is taught on an as-required (STs ask) or on-demand (TEs spot mistakes) basis. These strategies reveal that it depends on TEs how they approach language teaching. This is an important point since STs are expected to know (about) the language to teach it, and to inform their teaching decisions in the classroom to respond to their students-to-be’ needs.

Regarding integration, it seems to have two purposes, agreeing with TEs’ interviews. Firstly, concerning other strands, strand integration is observed in the way of referencing to other strands’ topics, as illustrated in Joe’s lesson in 6.5.2. Conversely, integrated language skills are part of each lesson to some extent. Reading is done by STs before lessons; viewing/listening are present in the pre-stage as input and to prompt discussion, i.e. speaking; Writing, however, is scarcely observed. The latter is perceived as a weakness of the IEL curriculum by TEs, and, therefore, addressed in IEL 9.
6.7 Integrated English Language 9

IEL 9 is presented separately because it follows a different structure from the previous modules. Additionally, the TE who taught this class was, at the time of the data generation, the methodology coordinator, offering a different perspective of the IC and the IEL. In this section, I review the IEL 9 rationale and illustrate the TE’s answer to ‘Can you describe a typical IEL 9 lesson?’ by interweaving classroom observation extracts. I also draw on this TEs’ post-observation interviews looking at IEL 9 and the IEL strand.

6.7.1 The module rationale

IEL 9 is the last module of the IEL sequence. It has three 80-minute sessions a week, and it is taught by three different TE, with three STs’ groups. It is the only module that differs from the previously introduced lesson structure, for it addresses the development of English for Academic Purposes (EAP) in light of STs’ action research (AR) projects, corresponding to STs’ end-of-degree requirement. Kate, who teaches this module, indicates that the AR weighs a lot [graduation final mark] and in terms of writing, and when the tutors, supervisors, should be focusing on the contents, that is a good action research or not, doable or not, and so on and so forth, they end up marking writing [Kate1: 13].

Kate explains that the IEL 9 purpose is not to teach how to do AR, but to write it. The final AR project consists of a written dissertation and an oral defence. Due to STs’ low writing skills, and the lack of directed practice as observed in the previous eight modules, the written AR is mainly marked in the quality of written English instead of the AR quality.

In IEL 9, TEs do not have to deal with the AR content but EAP. Practicum supervisors are advisors for the AR feasibility and quality (although none of them has conducted AR themselves). I asked Kate if IEL 9 was a remedial module, but she disagrees:

I wouldn’t say it’s remedial. I think it’s a course when they have to focus on very specific skills, I mean, when you move to in terms of proficiency that you move from general texts to very specific texts. So I think we are not going to be doing a news report, or make a brochure kind of thing. And also in terms of speaking, they are doing academic presentations [Kate1: 14].

Although IEL 9 is not conceived as remedial, it suggests that the specific attention given to EAP is to address STs’ writing skills since they are not achieving the expected C1 proficiency at the end of the degree. This also hints that, and drawing on the IEL 1-8
modules observations, STs’ low writing skills may be due to the lack of systematic writing practice. In fact, Kate states that:

it’s not so important whether they [STs] can formulate a good research question, or they design good instruments, but at least, they can understand them [research questions and instruments], and they can write about them’ [Kate1: 15].

Kate reinforces the fact that IEL 9’s objective is to write AR rather than doing AR to respond to STs’ lack of writing skills, justifying the focus on language only.

At the time of the data generation, IEL 9 was the last module of the IEL strand to be implemented, i.e. it was being offered for the first time. AR and EAP are the only topics dealt with that semester. STs draw on their own practicum experiences, which occur at the same time, to write this simulated AR project. Their actual and official AR is done the following semester, using their current practicum experience as context. Linking EAP with the practicum is the only element of strand integration observed in this module.

IEL 9 consists of three units revolving around AR and EAP:

- Action Research: what it is and how it works, formats;
- English Language accuracy and fluency at C1 level; and
- Academic Language skills

This module has a theory part, where student teachers learn about AR, and a practical one where STs simulate writing up AR. There are five assessment tasks, one related to theory, and four practical, each weighing 20% of the final mark.

The module language objectives are taken from the CEFR/C1 descriptors (Verhelst et al., 2009). The only reading of the module is Burns (2010)’s ‘Doing Action Research in English Language Teaching, A Guide for Practitioners’. This book is used as the framework to do and write AR. STs deliver a group workshop on a designated chapter to their peers, addressing Task 1 during five weeks, i.e. a chapter a week.

Although Kate asserts in p. 148 (see [Kate1: 14]) that IEL 9 is not remedial, she then reflects in the post-observation interview that IEL 9 is remedial in the sense that the most important problem in the previous [years’] action research was language. So here we are preparing them for a task. Not necessarily remedial for them, because it is not based on what they have done before, but basically it’s a preparation for the seminar that they are going to do later [Kate2: 1]
Kate acknowledges that IEL 9 objective is to prepare STs to address the end-of-degree project, for their main issue was the AR writing up in previous years. When looking at the IEL1-8 sequence, Kate noticed that STs have had essays in mid-terms (see Table 15), when they ‘don’t even know the paragraph structure’ [Kate2: 2] (See p. 153 for Kate2: 6). Due to the assessment system, failing the summative assessment writing part does not prevent STs from moving forward on the degree and reaching IEL 9.

Kate later reflects on the possible reasons why student teachers reach this level without having a systematic knowledge of language:

I think that has to do with the integrated English language system, and more than anything, with the fact that teachers [TEs] take too many language courses. I mean, in terms of number of hours, it is OK, but you have to have writing work, above all, you need to mark systematically, and students need to know where they are making mistakes, and if they don’t know, they can’t improve and you have to give them time for feedback [Kate2: 3].

Kate’s reflection addresses two areas: writing practice/feedback and TEs’ time to address feedback. Firstly, her concern that apparently final-year STs have not reached a C1 writing proficiency, raising the issue that previous IEL modules may not provide systematic writing practice and/or feedback. Thus, IEL 9 specifically focuses on EAP to respond to the end-of-degree AR project as this module’s core content. On the other hand, TEs’ limited time to fully address writing skills, i.e. teaching, marking and giving feedback in the previous IEL modules agrees with the IEL1-8 classroom observations. Writing was an organization tool, and feedback was mainly general, instead of addressing a particular piece of writing.

Kate then looks at the second task, which simulates three AR chapters: introduction, literature review, and methodology. For each task, she describes that lessons consist of input sessions on AR writing, using STs’ practicum contexts as framework. STs write drafts of these chapters prior to lessons. In lessons, Kate gives specific writing instruction, e.g. cohesive devices, cross referencing, in-text citation, in-lesson writing, and peer-review. However, STs could not do any AR as planned because of the strike.

On lesson planning and organization, they use the same rotation and planning system as the rest of the IEL modules. Kate indicates that each TE indicates what they wish to design/plan, so each lesson is planned by an individual TE and then receives feedback.

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2 At the time of the interview (May 2015), there were no signs of the strike that took place in June 2015.
from the other TEs. After the lesson, they tell each other what they did, where they stopped and if the next lesson’s planning needs changing, via WhatsApp.

6.7.2 The IEL 9 lessons

In the data generation, I observed four lessons at this level in a three-week period. These four sessions had the following topics:

- **Session 1&2**: Cohesive devices in the AR context and literature review.
- **Session 3&4**: Literature review: reading excerpts of literature reviews, noticing how sentences are linked, identifying different quotation strategies, and the purpose of the theoretical framework.

When I started the observations, Kate had recently finished the second task, and started working on the third one. During the strike, TEs took advantage of fifth year student teachers’ lack of interest in the strike to continue working online, offering one-on-one and group sessions as STs just wanted to finish the semester as normal as possible. As follows, I refer to the observations, following a similar structure to the previous section.

6.7.2.1 The lesson stages

The first two sessions focus on the use of cohesive devices. In the first session, Kate prompts STs to list different cohesive devices under the headings of highlighting, transition, listing, reinforcement, giving examples, and result/consequence. In the second session, STs complete some sentences with the correct cohesive device. Both sessions have in-lesson writing where the TE offers one-on-one feedback.

The third and fourth sessions’ purpose is to understand the rationale and structure of a literature review resembling an EAP lesson. In the third session, STs identify the different sections of a literature review from a brief academic paper. Then, Kate prompts STs to suggest what a literature review on ‘use of mother tongue in group work’ (Harbord, 1992) should contain. Then, she gives STs the paper and provides the answers using a QR code on the handout. STs analyse the paper, using their phones, and compare their answers, identifying how many quotes, references and/or sources there are, and how the author supports ideas. In the fourth session, by using a text about scanners, Kate analyses how the author integrates different sources of information, and how the original text exemplifies the structure of quotations, and different ways of paraphrasing. Although these texts are not directly related to AR, they are still focused on developing writing skills, which are expected to be transferred later to student-teachers’ AR projects. The data did not evidence the use of emerging works in AR in the Chilean context, or drawing on previous year’s AR projects written by alumni.
Albeit the focus on writing, lessons are mostly student-teacher-led. Kate guides activities, and prompts STs to lead by asking a particular student, the whole group, or to stand up in front and run the lesson. The group is very responsive and gets easily engaged.

IEL 9 uses mainly academic papers’ abstracts and excerpts as language-use materials, e.g. list of cohesive devices, and texts to be compared. Opposite the previous levels, the use of PowerPoint is restricted to giving examples, and language exercises. It is interesting to observe the use of QR codes embedding the answer key in one of the handouts as the only non-PPT-related use of technology.

Language is taught explicitly, following an input – analysis – production pattern, mostly referring to text structure, by using different models and inferring language use from them, e.g. looking for words in a text pinpointing reasons/evidence; verbs to express objectives; and identifying organizational patterns in a literature review. Another example is when STs have to detect similarities and differences between two texts about scanners. They have to notice how the text has been modified to prevent plagiarism by working with different strategies. Finally, STs start writing following the examples.

In relation to error correction, Kate usually recasts STs’ spoken mistakes as-required, and offers one-on-one feedback on their writing. The following excerpt is from an activity on cohesive devices, being led by two STs:

Silvana What do you have in generalising?
Kate What do you have in generalising, Gonzalo?
Student In general, generally, on the whole, in most cases.
teachers Tamara Another word?
Kate Macarena? Javiera? What did you say? Usually /juːʒuəli/?
Silvana Usually /ju:suəli/, good.
Kate u-S-ually, u-S-ually /juːʒuəli/. Generalising?
Tamara So the words that we can use for generalising are in general, generally, on the whole, as a rule, for the most part, in most cases, and usually /juːʒuəli/

[Kate-IEL 9-2: 1]

For example, in the transcript above, the lesson topic was on cohesive devices. Kate asked two STs to lead the activity. When mentioning words for generalising, she corrects the pronunciation of *usually*, and then carries on with the lesson.
6.7.2.2 Reflections on IEL 9 and from IEL 9 to the IEL strand

When asked to look back at IEL 9, considering a month-break as a result of the strike, she reflects on the impact of it on the module:

This course also failed because of this strike. But even then we gave students tasks, you realise that they don’t do them. And then one spends time giving them links where they could practice, use cohesive devices, everything is on the virtual platform, like what action research they could read about, to read because by reading you also notice how sentences are structured, how paragraphs are structured [Kate2: 4].

Kate seems upset for STs did not benefit from the support offered when they did not have lessons. This indifference could have been triggered because STs prioritised their practicum over the other modules that were not having face-to-face sessions.

Kate later examines the IEL programme in terms of teaching and learning outcomes.

I think that, yes, the class needs to be focused. I mean, it can be through content that leads to discussion, to practice fluency, but you have to have other activities that are really focused because in those activities you’ll notice if students are able to do things. In those little tasks you will notice if they are making progress or not. I can tell them ‘ok, talk to your partner’, but I am not measuring anything [Kate2: 5].

She considers that discussions need to have a clear focus to measure student teachers’ progress, not just to discuss for the sake of it. She suggests measuring progress through rehearsing the end-of-unit’s oral or written tasks, using the same evaluation rubrics, asking STs to self-monitor by recording themselves, and that feedback needs to address lesson’s and/or task objectives. She later elaborates on her view on IEL’s feedback:

I ask students like ‘how’s your test? Did they give it to you now? Can I see it? So when they give them written work, you can see something underlined, and a 6.0. So I ask Maria […] ‘why did you get a 6.0? And she replies ‘I don’t know’ and ‘why did they underline that?’ ‘I don’t know’. I don’t know, but I think that that has to do with the Integrated English language system, and more than anything, with the fact that teachers take too many language courses. I mean, in terms of number of hours, it is OK, but you have to have writing work above all, you need to mark systematically, and students need to know where they [TEs] are making mistakes, and if they [STs] don’t know, they can’t improve and you have to give them [STs] time for feedback [Kate2: 6].

Kate speculates about the relation between feedback quality/quantity and TEs’ workload. She suggests that feedback is not systematic, and that STs are unaware of the areas they need to work on since they cannot infer it from TEs’ comments.
She then expands on her fifth-year STs, and TEs’ expectations about the balance between content and language:

That [the balance] implies planning work, and I believe that they [TEs] are choosing very interesting contents, really relevant for students, but they need to systematise. How to make the curriculum a lot more, embracing the different skills, and what I have noticed, because this is the first time that I did this course, and I was assuming that in fifth year we would just refine [English]. I noticed that, and if we are offering a course which is mainly writing, you have to have time for feedback explicitly, individual time. And for example, I feel that I can take that time, and I think that we have to respond to students on time because they also forget [Kate2: 7]

Although Kate had taught fifth-year STs methodology for three semesters before IEL 9, and therefore was aware of their proficiency level, she still had higher expectations about it. She acknowledges that there is an unbalance in the way language is taught in the previous levels, and that IEL 9 is trying to respond to these faults.

Kate is critical about TEs’ workload in IEL. In fact, she expands on the implications of the IEL organization model:

I think it has to do with the thing of coordinating with other teachers. It’s a very complex work and that doesn’t fit me, and I think that actually, I don’t know, I take fewer classes, because of that, because I like to plan on time, be able to respond to students with dates, and if we are like many teachers all working a lot, really, waiting for someone to send me a rubric at midnight to upload it to the VLE? No, it’s a pity because many things could be done. But I mean, it would be much easier if we used a course book, so it is a nice work but it takes too much time [Kate2: 8].

Kate addresses the relation between workload and TEs’ capability of responding to STs’ needs. The current model implies that each TE depends on each other, triggering a snowball effect if someone does not do things on time, or if something goes wrong. This model also suggests that TEs mostly focus on the planning and preparing for the lessons, and not on giving STs effective feedback.

Equally, regarding planning materials, she argues that there is ready-made material, but in order to do this, it should work as a sort of course book. You have three units per semester, and you have the class-by-class done, and in the end it would be the same as working with a course book, but then, I don’t know, one of the things I’ve questioned, and I have asked is this thing of having groups with a different teacher every day. The reasons that I have been given is that there is variety, for they see different models, but it is a really high cost for the planning because your planning for tomorrow depends on another teacher. So it could be the same, actually it could be the same. Each unit could be with one
teacher. And if you had classes with a single teacher, so that teacher is in charge of finishing that unit and then you switch groups [Kate2: 9].

Kate suggests a different model of organization, which seems feasible to ease TEs’ workload. This model would give TEs more time and space to plan, and, most importantly, respond to student teachers’ language needs more systematically.

### 6.7.3 Summary of IEL 9

IEL 9 diverges from the previous levels for it targets the development of EAP and AR writing in preparation for STs’ end-of-degree AR. AR is the topic to teach academic writing, responding to AR supervisors’ suggestions in previous years.

Lessons were fully focused on language use. Compared to the previous modules, spaces for reflection or discussion on topics outside EAP/AR were limited. This agrees with what TEs report on the exit profile challenges where TEs agree that accuracy is an issue identified on upper-level student teachers, and no references are made to developing critical thinking or becoming an agent of change.

Kate advises that the key issue, when looking back at the IEL strand as a whole, is TEs’ workload and organization, suggesting that a different system would ease TEs’ load and give them more time to address STs’ language needs.

### 6.8 Teacher educators’ post-observation interviews

After the classroom observations, I met Joe and Dave individually to talk about their lessons in an open conversation, guided by three topics, which I use as headings for this section:

- **Features of the IC** (Can you exemplify some features of the integrated curriculum goals?)
- **Teaching/learning moments** (In today’s class, can you illustrate some teaching/learning awareness moments? (as reported in the interviews))
- **Challenges** (of their lessons and the IC) (Did you face any particular challenge today? Is there anything you might have done differently?)

I chose these three topics because they fulfill various purposes. Firstly, from a broader perspective, I intend to link the understanding about the IC to the IEL classroom. I am interested in bringing TEs’ attention to their own lessons regarding the IC’s goals, e.g. relationship with other strands, using the English language as a means to promote critical thinking, and awareness of the local context. Secondly, looking at TEs as
facilitators of the IC since they are expected to embody the exit profile in their practices, and to make STs aware the teaching and learning process. Finally, as this was the last time I met TEs, I was keen to know what challenges they observed in their practices, their work outside the classroom, and to elicit other issues that we might have not talked about.

As explained in 4.5.5, I followed stimulated recall interviews to enable TEs relive their lessons and account for their thought-processes behind their decision-making in the classroom (Borg, 2015). As stated in 4.5, I did not intend to focus on a particular event when doing the stimulated recalls, for my purpose was to remind TEs of their practices and the lesson atmosphere, so they could tell me their opinions and rationale of the activities more openly. I chose a complete session (either 1.20h or 2.40h long), to ‘relive’ the lessons and reflect on the questions above. When watching the videos, both TEs and I could play the video backwards or forwards, while talking about the questions. In all three stimulated-recall interviews, the video turned into an image that kept playing in the background whilst talking. In practical terms, TEs immediately recalled what they had done in each lesson, and were able to answer the questions.

By reading these interviews’ transcripts and listening to the audios, I notice that I let TEs lead the conversation. The interaction resembles a non-structured interview, as the conversation is a snow-ball effect of questions and answers. I believe that watching the videos became a more open-ended and sincere conversation between TEs and me, with richer reflections and insights of the IC from TEs’ perspectives, rather than responding to a sequence of ‘incidents’ that I had already determined.

For example, Figure 20 below is a fragment from Joe’s post-observation interview. I start by asking the challenges of his lesson, but he diverts the conversation to his challenges as a teacher. As a result, as shown in line 55, I do not ask him to think of a particular lesson, but I turn the conversation to challenges or changes that he foresees in the upcoming semester, as a result of that semester’s experiences. In fact, he raises the issue that TEs have different understandings of integrated language teaching and the way it is implemented in the classroom, as reported in Chapter 5 and this chapter.
6.8.1 Features of the integrated curriculum

While watching the videos, I asked TEs to give me an example of how they saw the integrated curriculum reflected in their lessons. Dave, for instance, observes stimulating thinking about the local context, and developing critical thinking skills:

When I ask them [STs] to think of the Chilean context because I remembered that I kept in mind that they should focus the discussion on that. At first we started speaking in the second class, we started speaking what other countries are doing in terms of education; then we directed that discussion on what's happening here, and if they had the power to make any changes to the national curriculum, what would they do [Dave2: 1].

Dave refers to his second lesson, understanding educational quality, where STs had to simulate an educational change (see 6.4.1.2). His comment addresses the local educational context and the Chilean curriculum, which they know as school students and now student teachers, evoking STs' experiences at school and university.
Despite having shown different lessons to Joe, he does not refer to any particular event in his lessons. When asked about features of the IC in his lessons, he addresses the challenges of developing STs’ critical thinking:

It’s difficult because at the beginning they confuse being a critical thinker as being critical which is a totally different game all together. Love for English, understand the culture, the English culture. When I say English, I’m not referring to a specific, I’m not referring to the United Kingdom, but the language as culture, to understand the language as much as Spanish. We have certain linguistic and social patterns that they do convey ideas, and that they use them meaningfully [Joe2: 1].

Developing critical thinking skills seems to be a challenge as STs usually misunderstand being critical and critical thinking, i.e. criticising everything, rather than reflecting and standing back to appraise things from different perspectives. Similarly, appreciating language as a culture with locally-embedded values, and looking at STs’ own language and background is relevant for the exit profile. Narrowing the gap between the local context and the L2 is expected to give STs the tools to generate societal changes through language teaching.

Joe speaks about his personal contribution which exceeds the university’s expectations. He wishes to develop a love for teaching, and not only for teaching for the sake of teaching, but teaching for the formative part, I mean, it’s like they would be eventually, moulding, modelling new generations, so they have to transmit a whole sub message (…). So that’s basically whether it’s done is aligned with what the university says, I don’t care, I should but that was the way I was educated (…). Of course I put a little bit of what the university plans, but I do it my own way [Joe2: 3].

Joe endorses that educating language teachers surpasses language teaching itself. While he agrees with what the university expects, he mostly relies on his own beliefs. Throughout the two interviews, Joe repeatedly mentions that his commitment exceeds language teaching. He focuses on student teachers’ individual needs inside and outside the classroom. His close relation with student teachers was acknowledged in the student teachers’ interviews (See Chapter 7).

6.8.2 Teaching/learning moments

Teacher educators, as IC implementers, have different viewpoints of how they make STs aware of their teaching/learning process, as skills that can then be transferred to STs’ future teaching practices. When asked to provide an example of this process, Dave describes a moment in which he was leading a writing activity, where students had to write a paragraph.
Roughly speaking we weren’t focusing on that class on writing but it’s also relevant to remind students that they should definitely pay attention to the [text] structure as well, but it’s not only writing whatever they want, it’s not only writing in whatever manner they want, but it’s writing about relevant concepts, addressing the question, and constructing a well-written paragraph [Dave2: 2].

Dave’s example belongs to a post-stage activity, shedding some light on how he advises STs on how to approach a writing activity. Although he acknowledges that the lesson was not focused on writing, but on approaching the task, i.e. text structure, relevant concepts, and the task itself. He tries to raise STs’ awareness of their writing, following a specific structure, so their product, although not checked in lessons, complies with the writing rubric.

Joe, on the other hand, provides a more general explanation on what he does in the classroom referring to activities:

Some of the activities have been organised along the lines of what the paper they read suggests, but more so, I see particularly not in the class, in the same class, but I see in following classes, and sometimes they even reflect back on something we discussed in previous classes, or they tie up that knowledge that they have acquired. They relate it to something that is going on with the class here. Yes that happens, again, not in all students (…). There are students who are unable to even describe a concept [Joe2: 3].

Joe comments on the role of the sequencing of texts within a unit, so STs can draw on previously learned concepts or ideas with the new ones to scaffold knowledge. Since the IC intends to link all the curricular strands in the everyday lessons, including school internships, in theory, STs should be able to see links between units in the IEL, but also with the other modules within the semester. However, there is not an established sequence in the topics or contents to carry out the cross-curricular integration, leaving the decision and coordination of the integration to the TEs teaching each semester.

However, what seems to be most relevant is that not all STs meet the IC’s expectations in terms of developing language proficiency, criticality, and commitment as expressed in the exit profile, as suggested by the STs’ interviews (see 7.2).

6.8.3 Challenges (of their lessons and the IC)

The last part of the interview focused on what TEs perceived as challenges in their lessons and the IC broadly speaking. Neither TE refers to a particular event in their lessons, but rather to challenges of their teaching practice and the IC. Dave, in reaction to his video, realises that:
I'm kind of directing, or interfering in a way what students could have discussed. I tend to, I don't wait enough, I think. I should have waited more because when students don't answer I tend to direct again another question, or I tend to trigger discussion, but the problem is I'm the one who is speaking in order to trigger that discussion [Dave2: 3].

The video recordings provided Dave evidence of something he had not realised before about his practices. Silence is uncomfortable when teaching, so Dave avoids it by talking, and may prevent STs from talking. Also, regarding giving instructions, he also learns that, when doing so, it seems that they may not be clear enough:

I just spoke, I said it verbally, and I think I wasn't very clear with what I wanted to say, so I first, I said OK think about this, and then I said discuss this with your partner, remember to take notes, remember to link this to the text, so it was too wordy, and it was a little bit confusing [Dave2: 4].

Dave reflects on the role of mediating knowledge with the STs. Despite having the instructions on the PPTs, he thinks that when he paraphrases instructions, his wording is complex and therefore, not accessible by STs.

Outside the classroom, Dave comments on TEs' work organization and their weekly meeting opportunities for reflection on their lessons:

we were discussing more about the future, what we are going to be doing about the next weeks, but we didn't discuss in retrospective what happened last week, we just discuss some key points, some key issues, and we were planning ahead [Dave2: 5].

Lack of time, again, seems to be a critical factor to reflect about TEs' practices, since the everyday workload controls their priorities, so decision-making responds to immediate needs. Hence, there does not seem to be a long-term strategy that draws on TEs' previous experiences or teaching/learning events to make TEs' work more bearable.

Thus, he reflects on work organization and suggests some reasons behind TEs’ problems:

That's one of the issues that some teachers have raised, that we should also reflecting about what we are doing more systematically instead of ahead, or thinking of specific issues, we should be reflecting on what we are doing, what are some problems that might be happening in some of the sections, what are some teaching strategies that we could start implementing to tackle those problems. That is something that we don't do that systematically [Dave2: 6].
His argument is related to basically lack of time:

The problem then is that time, we are not getting paid to stay here on Friday, so this time that we are giving for free to the university is already an effort that we are making, when are we supposed to meet? When are supposed to reflect if there [isn't], let's say, monetary compensation. Teachers don't feel it's fair. And I think the same. I'm not saying that we should be working for free, but that is a problem that somebody has to address at some point because it's relevant that we reflect on what we are doing [Dave2: 7].

Dave accounts for TEs' concerns about the workload and working conditions for their own professional development. He is critical about not having the space for reflection on their practices to better respond to the IC goals. However, his view contrasts with the head of English pedagogy's points about having consolidated a TEs’ team, for they are offering enough teaching hours to earn a good salary (see p. 119 for HPRESET: 5), and the fact that, upon hiring, they are told that their workload will exceed paid hours.

Dave also explains that TEs also need to leave a legacy to prevent future TEs from starting from scratch as they are doing at the moment; therefore, TEs' burden would be lessened.

We should work more systematically keeping a legacy on what we are doing I think because, we've discussed in our teachers' meetings, and some have said, what happens if tomorrow we all vanish from earth? How would the person who comes after us know what to do if there's no record? [Dave2: 8].

Dave is concerned about having a resource bank which allows TEs to adjust previous semesters’ work, and also give a sense of what has been done in the past to draw on and create new materials. In contrast, the head of the PRESET states as a result of having the STs’ suggestions in the planning (see 7.3.2):

Implications is that half of the course has to be created from mainly, or roughly for scratch. Now it's not being so much from scratch because curiously enough students’ interests seem to be repeating again and again, so the topics that they bring are topics that we have included in one programme or the other, so that makes our teachers' lives a lot of easier, so all we have to do is to look at those units and recycle them. We are doing a lot of recycling by the way. We are at a stage where we have accumulated enough materials so that we don’t have to invent everything again and again, we are looking back at what we’ve done and that's it [HPRESET: 10].

My understanding of this contradiction between TEs and the head of the PRESET is that the material bank may not be accessible or known by TEs, or that the materials in this bank may not serve the needs of the STs learning that semester.
On reducing TEs’ workload, Joe advocates for reducing the length of the reading material since, due to the large number of teaching hours, they have to read many pages on a daily basis.

One thing that I want to bring up with the rest of the people in the team. Probably length of the materials. They [STs] have to read too many different papers per week. Minimum of one per class. That brings up the number to five in case of language 3 [IEL3]. So it’s really demanding. Sometimes we are looking at papers that we have to do in a class, and they cover 20-25 pages, so it's impossible. So there is a question of, what's the value of reading if we won’t be able to cover everything in class? So why do we ask to read a 35-page document? What for? You only read 50% of it, 10% of it, which is basically they all skim through it [Joe2: 4].

Joe’s point sheds some light on the IEL agenda. Since dossiers are very lengthy, and classroom observations demonstrate that readings constitute the context for discussion rather than studying them in depth, readings lose their potential pedagogical value as language and content learning resources. If the latter was the case, it would imply a further challenge since these contents may challenge teacher educators’ knowledge as mentioned by Kate in p. 125 (see [Kate1: 11]) who questions TEs’ capability and/or interest to know about an extensive number of topics. Student teachers (see 7.3.1) also agree with this point, both advocating for quality rather than quantity.

Dave also comments on TEs’ knowledge as a challenge of integration. There is a great deal of good will from TEs from other subject areas, particularly linguistics and literature, to support IEL TEs who are now teaching specific contents, yet it is also limited by time, agreeing with Kate’s view.

There’s no time we can all meet and discuss, and we are supposed to include literature, grammar. There's supposed to be one teacher who teaches linguistics so he can help us with this, and the literature teachers can help with this, so we understand more clearly what we have to do because we are not grammarians, we are not literature professors, so it’s also a challenge for the teachers who are constantly challenged to learn, and it’s a constant thing that is stressing people [Dave2: 9].

Dave acknowledges two limitations to pursue strand integration. First, strand TEs’ availability to meet and work with IEL TEs. These meetings go also beyond their call of duty. Secondly, TEs’ own knowledge when teaching subject areas that are not in TEs’ scope of expertise, when needing to be taught as a result of the contents expected to be learned within the IEL (see Chapter 1).

Finally Joe reflects on the overall IC experience. Although he points out that establishing a good relationship with STs is his accomplishment, he is very critical on the working conditions.
It's highly demanding in terms of time, and intellectual requirements. I think it's [the IC] should be sustainable, as long as the university wants it to be sustainable. It's not a question, I don't know, I see myself as a disposable cob here. They can use you; they squeeze you like a lemon. I'm going to be prepare something, a couple of tea, so squeeze my lemon, there, I get my juice. The day I'm not a lemon, they put me in the garbage basket. That's the way it is. I'm not idealising the situation here. Remember that we don't have a full-term contract here, so we just hired by the hour, and you never know what is gonna happen to you. You may end up closing the year in December, and you will never hear back from anyone here because they say they'll call you for March. It means that you're out. I'm worried about the situation, the contract thing on a personal basis, but it doesn't interfere with my academic work. I put a lot of myself into my teaching practice here, and I try to be as professional and accommodating as possible without hurting myself, without being permissive, just to keep a dialogue going with the students. For me an open dialogue with students is, we have 50% of the objectives accomplished. That's the way I do it [Joe2: 5].

Joe describes his role as a part-time teacher educator. Considering that, among all the participants, he is the one who has worked at the programme the longest, his words probably reflect the feelings of other TEs who have worked there for an extensive period of time. Joe’s personal goal as a TE is building a significant relationship with STs. Through my experience as staff member, I learned that TEs work on this programme for an average of three years, and usually leave due to burn-out, seeking better working conditions, and resistance to change (see p. 120 for [HELT:5], and Table 5).

6.8.4 Further reflections

When asked about further reflections on any other topics which have not been covered by the interviews, Dave acknowledges that by participating in this research contributed to his own professional development as a teacher and to become aware of some IC issues.

I've become aware of some situations that are happening inside my classroom with my teaching strategies, and also become more aware of the challenges that we face because we are in this programme, and the things that should be dealt with. We need to discuss more deeply some issues that we haven't discussed, and having this conversation, and having a look at the way that I teach. That's been a way to become more fully aware of these challenges that we have. And it's been positive that I can have the opportunity to look at myself, even though it's really uncomfortable, but it's a very good tool to learn as well. Just to have a video, somebody who records you, and to see yourself there in action [Dave2: 10].

Dave values the opportunity to have been part of this research as it became an opportunity to contemplate the IC, noticing challenges to be addressed. Moreover, he
reflects on his own teaching practices as an instance of development as a new teacher educator.

Conversely, Joe comments on his perceptions on STs’ relation to the IEL:

They [STs] see the English class as probably the least, the simplest class of all. And having a lower priority than any other classes they take. I'm not saying that English is the most important one. They are all important, but again, English is the one which is going to give them a job in the future. It's the one that is gonna buy them bread, if you know what I mean. It doesn't mean that I discriminate against philosophy, psychology, you name it. If they have to decide what to read, and for what class, English reading materials, they rank very low in their priority [Joe2: 6].

Joe reflects on STs’ lack of motivation, agreeing with STs’ report as TEs’ challenges, i.e. how TEs address STs’ lack of motivation. Joe is the only TE who reports about his insights on STs’ motivation and changes the standardised classroom planning to address each particular group of student teachers’ needs, which may stem from his close relation to STs.

6.9 Summary

In this chapter, I have explored teacher educators’ reported and actual practices in the IC, and the challenges raised through their experiences in the programme. In their lessons, all TEs teaching at a given level are uniform, enacted in the same lesson planning, materials and activities, and the use the same PowerPoint presentation. Exceptionally, IEL 9 uses a different structure and focus since it is mainly devoted to develop EAP in the context of STs’ end-of-degree AR project, and to respond to those areas that did not seem to have been developed in the previous IEL courses, particularly writing.

Some of the concerns observed by TEs are in relation to workload and lack of time which prevents them from reflecting on their practices, leave a record of what they are doing, and most importantly, be able to fully address the IEL and IC goals. TEs also reflect on the challenges of the IEL, focusing on their knowledge and capacity to cover contents from other IC strands. Similarly, they report on STs’ lack of motivation that seems to be a consequence of the overroutinisation of the IEL practices.
Chapter 7 Student teachers’ journey in the IC

7.1 Introduction

In this chapter, I explore student teachers’ (STs) perspectives and experience in the IC as reported in their interviews, aiming to answer the third research question: ‘What impact has teacher educators’ experience had on the planning and implementation processes and on student teachers’ understanding of the IC?’ By putting the student teachers at the centre, I first consider STs’ understandings of the IC and exit profile; then I focus on their experiences as IEL learners. I later refer to student teachers’ views on TEs’ challenges, to conclude with their suggestions for the overall IC improvement.

7.2 The Integrated curriculum

Student teachers’ understandings of the IC mainly focus on the integrated English Language strand rather than on cross-curricular strand integration, i.e. 19/26 participants suggested an IEL-oriented view when I asked STs what they understood about the integrated curriculum (IC). This perception is spread across STs from all years. They refer to skill integration, e.g. teaching all skills together and not isolated, learning English naturally, and having no grammar or phonetics.

For example, first-year Paullette mentions that ‘You really complement all the elements of English in classes. You’re practising phonetics, grammar, and everything all together’ [Paullette1: 1], merging the teaching of skills with the teaching of grammar and phonetics. Similarly, second-year Tatiana sees the IC as this kind of mash-up between talking, speaking, reading, and writing (...) but looking like the whole curriculum, there is the critical thinking is part of the integrated curriculum because you are able to see this mainly in all the courses. And in my experience it happened last year that we saw one author in one course, and then use the same author, or the same idea in the other courses [Tatiana2: 1].

Tatiana offers a broad perspective of the IC, identifying the link between critical thinking, skills, and content through different modules. The first-year modules have been worked on as they have been offered five times at the time of the data generation. Hence, TEs have coordinated to read the same authors in the different strands to approach the same topic from each module’s perspective, suggesting that time to coordinate and polish the modules has had a positive effect.
From the upper levels, Diego suggests the IC has two areas:

The first area is the integration of the four skills in the language classes, and I mean, you have the four skills integrated in the classes but also you have the integration of different topics. We are not learning just about English, we are learning through English. The other area is related how the other classes are related to English, language. For example I remember in third year that we mixed introduction to linguistics and IEL [Diego4: 1].

Fourth-year Diego notices how learning English has a two-fold purpose: as a language itself, and as a means of learning content. He also identifies the IC strands by exemplifying the integration of linguistics and IEL.

However, not all student teachers have understood the IC model of teaching, particularly those STs with lower proficiency levels. Tatiana reports on her classmates’ expectations when they started studying the programme:

there were some personal feelings of some classmates that they didn't like this integrated curriculum because, for example, the comments I received were like ‘I come from school that doesn't [didn’t] teach me English, and I came here expected to be taught [taught] English but like grammar, and phonetics (...) and here is more in practice, you practice, you learn, so they [STs] have been having problems with it [IEL] [Tatiana2: 2].

Tatiana gives voice to her classmates’ expectations when they entered the IC, where they believed that they were going to have isolated grammar and phonetics. These student teachers have struggled with learning English since their previous learning experiences had consisted of grammar-based teaching, which is juxtaposed with the IEL. This belief is spread along most STs when they start the IC, and is still present in last-year STs, as they state the need to have learned grammar to address the requirements of mainstream schools, since the school system has remained unchanged.

7.2.1 Exit profile

I am interested in knowing what STs know about the exit profile since it describes what they ought to become after their teacher education. In general terms, STs have a broad idea of what it is, yet not all of them know what it is about. The exit profile is part of STs’ induction week, each module catalogue has a paragraph on how they contribute to it, and it is also on their VLE front page (in Spanish), which reminds STs of the kind of professional the IC is aiming at educating, as illustrated in Figure 21 below (see my translation below):
Dear students, welcome!

Our proposal

In five years, educate a teacher of English that masters the use of language and knows how to teach it, that has social awareness in terms of more equity and opportunities for all, that becomes a critical, autonomous, creative, and that acts as an agent of social change.

What professional do we want to educate?

A teacher of English for primary and secondary school, with a strong formation where the responsibility and commitment with society are fundamental; able to support his/her students in their growth and personal development, and learning of English. S/he will be prepared to work in teams, and lead a pedagogical and innovative leadership in the schools where s/he works.

Student teachers mentioned some relevant concepts when defining the profile, e.g. being a critical teacher, having good English, transforming reality, the understanding of different contexts, and students. For example, Loreto, a third-year ST, refers to becoming an agent of change in the community.

[A teacher] is a committed person to knowledge. He or she has to use that knowledge to transform where they work. He or she also dominates English and it has to be creative in order to make changes [Loreto3: 1].

Loreto interprets the profile from a knowledge perspective: knowing the context to then make changes, and knowing English as a means to achieve this transformation.

Fourth-year Juan offers a more comprehensive perspective of the profile, stating that an English language teacher is a:
critical thinking professional (...) in sense of a person who is capable of thinking, analysing different things that are going around, and not just saying things, but also taking part of the decisions, doing, acting (...). That’s the power that I think the university tries to impress on us [Juan4: 1].

Juan depicts a critical teacher who is empowered to make changes in society. He highlights the role of the university to explicitly promote these values, suggesting that TEs model them in their classes, aiming to be coherent with the profile and their own beliefs.

From a practical perspective, third-year Nicolás explores his experience of the profile in the classroom:

The way in which teachers promote critical thinking, discussion and participation within the class have helped us to develop our autonomy as a pre-service teacher and our capacity of inquiring [Nicolás3: 1].

Nicolás sees classroom interaction as the space to develop critical thinking, by fostering one’s inquiring capacity to develop thirst for knowledge. He thinks that TEs are the ones igniting the curiosity for learning to then, as teachers-to-be, do likewise in their future classroom.

In contrast, a second year ST does not seem to know what the profile is about:

To be honest, I don’t know a lot of that profile. I’ve listened to our teachers expect a lot of us. They say we have a very different curriculum to learn English, so they ask us to be different teachers in our culture [Mike2: 1].

And then continues

I have some doubts about it because there’s a struggle [between] what we want to learn, and what the system want what we want to learn [Mike2: 2].

Mike, although he is not totally sure of what the profile is, posits two relevant ideas. First, TEs have high expectations of STs to make a difference in the Chilean context. Secondly, he is concerned about the feasibility of what is learned in the integrated curriculum to fit the unchanged Chilean context, agreeing with what Dave states in p. 123 [Dave1: 5]. Mike suggests that their interests may contradict with what the school systems wants them to teach (or learn). These conflicting points suggest that STs may struggle to fit in and follow the existing norms when working at schools.
7.2.2 Understanding the curriculum integration

I asked STs to give an example of strands’ integration, i.e. Integrated English Language, methodology, education and school internships. As my main interest is in the IEL strand, in the interviews I suggested the following dyads:

- IEL – methodology,
- IEL – education, and
- IEL – school internships.

In general, mostly upper-level STs, i.e. third to fifth year, are able to point out concrete strand integration moments, particularly between methodology and school internships. When asked to exemplify topics being integrated, identity is the one mostly referred by STs, followed by social movements and special needs. STs illustrate strand integration by using the same authors in different modules, mainly in first year, whereas in the upper levels, literature, methodology and IEL are perceived to be integrated. STs say that they benefit from having different perspectives of the same topics through the different modules and TEs in the same semester. For instance, first-year Martina says

> we saw identity, for example, in Introducción [foundations of education] and history. We saw the same from different points of view. The first month, from the point of view of you as a future teacher […] then, the teachers’ identity of now, and there is a different point of view, and they are all connected, and the different authors that we studied supported the other authors in others [other] classes [Martina1: 1].

Martina depicts how identity is seen in both history and education from different viewpoints. This topic is being integrated by using the same readings written by different authors, drawing on and supporting the learning in different modules.

From the upper levels, fourth-year Valentina provides an example of integration among IEL, methodology, and school internships (mentioned as ELABs – Experiencias Laborales in Spanish).

> they [TEs] found how to link the topic of ELABs with what we were seeing in all the subjects a lot, so we had to do many assignments in all the subjects I had to do with our ELABs, and for example, in language we worked what it was the pre-action research, and that was based on our ELAB, in what we observed and at the end, no, we didn’t have to collect data. It was like only observe, see the problem, the actors and all that. And in methodology, it was also linked to the action research, so from the observation that we were doing, the idea was to start designing the classes we could do, or the units, so we felt that aspect, yes, it was very integrated, and instead of, for example, thinking of five different ideas, we found only one problem and we used it for all the assignments [Valentina4: 1].

Valentina explains that school internships serve two purposes: IEL provides the context for a pre-action research in preparation for what STs do in fifth year (see Appendix 2).
Secondly, in the methodology module, STs learn how to tailor materials to a specific context. This experience suggests that school internships create a more comprehensive learning experience for STs, extending the reflection from reflective workshops to the other strands.

However, curricular integration seems to have consolidated more in more English-related modules than in other strands, as posed by third-year Luna:

> there are some subjects like such as RECH [Realidad Educacional Chilena - Chilean educational reality], sociología [sociology], that sometimes do not follow like this idea, and I personally a bit concerned on that because it is easier to notice this sort of pedagogy through English courses more than like the general training courses [Luna3: 1].

Luna’s concern addresses the fact that STs perceive strand integration among those specialist-related modules rather than in those that are outside English. This sheds light on the ongoing work to achieve curricular integration across subject areas besides English-related modules, bearing TEs’ working conditions in mind. For example, devising a sustainable system for TEs teaching other modules who normally work fewer hours – when compared to IEL teacher educators – to share what they are doing with IEL TEs. As suggested by Pat in p. 126 [Pat: 10], the input is unidirectional, i.e. from IEL to the other strands, although all TEs work under the administration of the English department, including those, for instance, teaching sociology.

### 7.3 The Integrated English language experience

Since most of the IC hours are on Integrated English Language strand – twenty hours a week in the first two years; ten hours in third and fourth year; six in fifth year - most of the STs’ interviews focused on their experience in this module. To unpack different aspects of IEL, I asked STs about their learning experience, to describe a typical language class, materials, TEs’ rotation, the teaching assistantships, and assessment. Additionally, I asked upper-level STs to narrate how the IEL strand has changed over the years to depict the transformation during the implementation.

Firstly, when asked about their overall experience in the IEL, STs mention that they have improved their speaking and overall language skills, learning English unconsciously, mainly by using the language rather than studying it. However, they still expect to have had grammar and phonetics. There are some references to have some special classes to level STs’ English out for those who start the PRESET with little or no English, since knowing English is not an entry requirement.

Daniel, in his second year, addresses the importance of participation to improve one’s language skills:
I have had a great experience because I participate a lot, and I am aware that if I don’t participate, I cannot improve my English skills, but now my experience, I think, has been great. But regarding as the other students, not everyone participates and as well, usually objectively speaking, you can see that those people [who participate] are quite improving. I think everyone should care for their learning process [Daniel2: 1].

Daniel associates participation with improving one’s language proficiency. He seems to consider that those STs who take part in class have made more progress than those who do not. However, he believes it is a shared task: both student teachers and TEs have to be accountable for the teaching and learning process, through classroom participation and systematic feedback.

Taking feedback further, Pamela refers to in-class feedback:

teachers pick some mistakes (…) and then at the end of the class, the teacher starts to write, for example, a sentence, and from them, he or she explains (…) the correct of saying, give us the opportunity to find the mistake in that sentence [Pamela4: 1].

Language feedback seems to be based on an as-required basis, e.g. drawing on general student mistakes after a discussion, as observed in 6.4.

Looking back at his IEL journey, fifth-year Héctor looks back to his learning experience:

the programme is difficult because as you are learning unconsciously, sometimes you feel that you are not doing anything, like you are sitting there and you are doing nothing [Héctor5: 3].

What Héctor points out suggests that the fact of discussing topics, yet without having an apparent objective in mind, makes STs feel that attending the IEL lessons is pointless. Fourth-year Valentina agrees with Héctor questioning the purpose of IEL within the Integrated curriculum:

I keep wondering what the real purpose of the class [IEL] is. So, for example, when you ask me that question, I hardly know what (…) I really want to say. Because, for example, the problem with language [IEL] is that we have seen many different topics, and at the end we have seen so many different things that we do not know what the aim of this subject is. Because if you say to me ‘it is to learn English’ but it turns out that we are also learning English in TREPE [reflective workshops], in methodology… [Valentina4: 2].

Considering that from third year onwards, all modules are taught in English, Valentina questions the role of the IEL when they learn how to teach English in English (in the methodology module), or reflect on their school internships in English (in reflective
workshops). It seems that the fact that the all modules use English as a medium of instruction, does not imply that student teachers are ‘taught’ English in this, and serves the purpose of being able to operate in English in the other strands. According to this, IEL appears to be a multi-purpose module, a melange of topics/contents, which covers contents superficially, and does not have a specific focus to learn (about) English.

Second-year Cata relates to her experience of having the IEL lessons, in English:

Because I didn't know how speak and all classes were about speak, but has been difficult because I can't speak very well in classes, and for that, I can't express my ideas or communicate with teachers. Also, I think it affects the self-esteem because sometimes I consider myself I don't know how speak, or my ideas are bad [Cata2: 1].

Cata belongs to those STs who have no or little command of English when starting the PRESET. She expresses her frustration not to be able to participate in class, affecting her self-confidence as a learner since she thinks that reaching a high proficiency level is hard. In my experience in the programme, Cata’s profile represents one of those STs who would be highly likely to drop out should they fail IEL. While all first-year STs are supported through a tutoring programme that consists of developing study skills, this tutoring programme does not focus on a particular module. Hence, those student-teachers with a low-entry level struggle to pass from module to module.

To have a further notion of student teachers’ experience in the IEL, I asked them to describe a ‘typical language class’, and all participants agree: Lessons consist of a pre, while and post- structure that feature similar activities across all levels. A PowerPoint leads activities, and previously-read texts (available on the VLE) set the context for discussions, providing quotes, new concepts and words. The classroom stages are mainly focused on speaking. In the while part of the class, STs answer questions about the text. Activities are mostly done in pairs or groups, and there is usually a link with the Chilean context. In Daniel’s words:

That's when we do different readings, or watch a clip, a video, and that's like the most intense part of the class because all the knowledge that actually teachers want us to learn is in that part [Daniel2: 2].

During the while-stage, they learn this ‘knowledge’, i.e. the content of a reading, which is what the reading is about, more than the linguistic use that the text can provide. My understanding of the observation is that the discussion about the content stays situated within the classroom context, but I did not learn that that ‘knowledge’ was ‘used’ in other contexts. STs would normally study it through guided questions. The post-stage focuses on STs’ oral production through presentations and discussion.
Goretti describes a class that she recently had, detailing all the class stages in the unit of ‘Alternative Pedagogies’.

we have a class that is structured in a way that we have a pre-, while and post. For example, we had a topic that was about different styles of pedagogy. For example, Montessori, Waldorf, and with that topic, we were having a discussion with, for example, the pre was analysing one quote. That was the pre, and discussing about it. Then we have the while, which was for example, analysing one part of the text and discussing. I can recall that once we did a planning, that was the post, a planning about a Montessori schools [Goretti4: 1].

In the alternative pedagogies unit, Goretti shares what her lesson was like. Her lesson considers discussions around a quote or the reading. This example also illustrates a connexion between the IEL to the methodology strand fourth year’s contents, since STs are asked to plan a lesson based on that session’s contents.

In the interviews, there were only two references to language teaching as reviewing language structures, or receiving feedback, since as Luna states, ‘language is like hidden’ [Luna3: 2], and as mentioned by Héctor [Héctor5: 3] in p. 171 and Valentina [Valentina4: 2] in p. 171, language is learned implicitly, yet not through an explicit explanation, or class objective.

Looking into classes and materials, fourth-year Valentina describes how they have changed over time:

Classes started to be based on texts. The topics also started changing. By the third year the structure of the lessons fully changed. For example, there was a strong emphasis on pre-, while and post. Also, the classes were based on the texts; then, we saw problems that the lessons, thinking of Gabriela Mistral’s commandments, we felt that classes were not alive because they had a very clear objective [Valentina4: 3].

What Valentina poetically describes, quoting one stanza of Chilean Gabriela Mistral’s Literature Nobel Laurette’s poem ‘give life to your class. Each lesson must come alive like a human’ (my translation), refers to the fixed class routine. Most STs agree that the lesson structure is repetitive. Valentina believes that teacher educators have little space to make changes – or do not make changes - with the exception of Joe. She says that

Joe was the teacher who saw that the class wasn’t working, and he went like, let’s do this, or I don’t know, someone made a mistake and, he would explain to all of us

1 The teacher’s commandments: https://viviendoenpaz.wordpress.com/tag/gabriela-mistral/
the mistake from the root how things were done. That is the reason why everyone fought to take classes with him [Valentina4: 4].

Valentina suggests that Joe is the only TE who does not follow the established class structure to the letter in order to respond to STs’ needs. Joe pays more attention to student teachers’ emerging needs than to the fixed structure of the IEL lessons, trying meet both student teachers’ needs and the IEL pace.

Fourth-year Pamela agrees with Valentina pointing out the fixed class structure as a challenge for teachers:

we have seen that, as the texts are more complex, the classes have become a little bit repetitive in a sense that all the classes start with a question, then discussion, and then vocabulary. That’s the routine that has become all of the classes with the different texts, so I think that as it gets more complex the challenge for teachers has been to, how can I say it? Like to give new ideas to structure the classes [Pamela4: 2].

Pamela perceives that since materials became more complicated, lessons are more predictable, corresponding with Valentina. It therefore seems that TEs struggle to deliver more dynamic classes to keep STs engaged and motivated.

7.3.1 Materials

The materials used in the IEL lessons consist mainly of a reading dossier and PowerPoints. Student teachers’ views on materials differ depending on their year of study. They think that, although the dossiers cover a large range of topics, texts are mostly academic, long and complex, which affects their own and TEs’ motivation. Likewise, STs do not always read before classes. While they acknowledge that when they read they are better prepared to participate, they also think that they can give their opinions based on their previous knowledge and experiences.

In relation to the readings, first year Paullette reflects on the readings and her learning.

I’ve got more vocabulary, I understand a context. I’m not worried about memorise everything, but to understand [Paullette1: 2].

As a first-year ST, Paullette tells that she used to read and look up every single word in a text before learning reading strategies. As a result of extensive reading over time, she notices that her vocabulary increased.
Fourth-year Juan explores what he and their classmates think about the readings for IEL.

Since we don't have five classes a week anymore, reading the readings became something difficult because we have on Tuesday and Thursday ELABs [practicum] at schools. So those days are for the school and you got home really tired, and you have to organise your time, and you see that everyone is like really stressed because, OK, we have duties at school and we have duties at university as well. But we used to have just at university five days a week, and it was OK because it was five days all over week without interruptions. Now we have these two interruptions in the week and we cannot be fluent with our duties and that affects the readings. A lot of reading that it's complicated in the sense of use of language, for example, or a reading that is too long, as well. We have had some readings that are really long, so you have to take time, but you sometimes consider other tasks to do that you see, or you consider more important than the readings [Juan4: 2].

Juan shares what senior STs think. This agrees with Joe's perception of student-teachers' demotivation, and not prioritising IEL anymore in p. 164 [Joe2: 6] above. It is both the amount of reading and its complexity which augments the class preparation time. Therefore, STs think that it is difficult to balance the responsibilities at school with both the IEL and the rest of the modules.

In relation to the class structure and the PowerPoint third-year STs are not fond of them.

You have to do A and you've got 20 minutes, and then discuss 10 minutes. I hate it. I think it kills spontaneity and then you don't want to participate because of that [Luna3: 3].

Luna dislikes the lesson structure for its inflexibility. Since every class is predictable, and limited, it decreases participation. She would rather have a more unconstrained class that moulds to the STs' responses. Oscar agrees with Luna, and thinks that

now is kind of boring, and it's not interesting because we already what teachers are going to ask about the text because we already know the questions [Oscar3: 3].

Lessons have become unoriginal, which lessens STs' engagement. They follow the same pattern and question style every session. It seems that students in the first couple of years prefer having a more structured IEL lesson, while those in upper years want less predictability and structure.

7.3.2 Suggesting topics and students’ voices

Giving students' voice a space is one principle of critical education (Freire, 1970). Since 2013, TEs ask student teachers to suggest topics for their IEL classes. Student
teachers, from IEL 2 to IEL 8, organise themselves in different ways to then meet TEs to tell them their suggestions, which include not only topics, but also tasks and readings. Although in this study almost all STs acknowledge and value the opportunity to have their voices heard, they also concede that not all STs get as involved as they would expect. They struggle to come to agreements, which causes a snowball effect, i.e. once they agree on topics, they are too general, so TEs misinterpret what they would like to talk about, so TEs' interpretations do not necessarily meet STs' expectations in the classroom.

Student teachers speak about their organization to choose topics, and are aware that they need to organise better. Also, they do not necessarily know what could be best for them in terms of the topics they choose and the IEL’s learning objectives. Similarly, STs would like to know about the rationale that TEs have for choosing certain topics and interpreting STs' suggestions. However, STs are grateful that TEs are willing to talk and support STs at all times.

Fifth-year Alex thinks that promoting student teachers’ participation is coherent with the ideology of the programme.

I think that it talks about democracy in our career because we are choosing what we are viewing, what we want to talk about, and the way we want to learn English [Alex5: 1].

Suggesting topics responds to the pedagogical stance that the IC aims at promoting through critical education. Student teachers feel empowered to have the space to give their views on what they want to learn – topics – and how they would like to be assessed – suggesting tasks. They themselves become the critical citizens with self-esteem and dignity that the profile promotes.

First-year Paullette feels valued to be included in the decision making process, since it makes learning more meaningful.

I think that only the fact of choosing is very important because they are making us part of our learning [Paullette1: 3].

Since IEL is the module that concentrates most teaching hours of the IC, suggesting topics from first year is very meaningful for STs. Having student-led topics responds to the exit profile, by looking for the development of multiple perspectives of the world, through the exposure of a large diversity of topics, in the framework of language learning.
When asked about STs’ system of organization, STs explained that they use different means to agree on topics, mainly face-to-face and social media.

We organise ourselves by joining [meeting] us and having a discussion about what topics we propose as a section and then we join all of our suggestions with the ones of other sections to present them to the teachers [Nicolás3: 2].

Once student teachers reach an agreement, student-teacher representatives introduce their suggestions to TEs in a meeting. However, this process is not always smooth. STs acknowledge their responsibility for not communicating their topics to TEs well; hence, the way that topics are implemented by TEs do not fulfil STs’ expectations.

I personally think that it is also our fault because we just give the name of the topic we want to study and some kind of task, but we never are specific [Tatiana2: 3].

Since not all STs get involved in the topic planning, it is not always possible to have a well-detailed proposal that meets everyone’s expectations. However, STs still complain about the IEL units for they do not always deal with what they are interested in.

However, there are some STs who feel that having a strong voice in the programme is counterproductive:

Sometimes we don't get heard as much as we would want it, but I think that could be a problem of this integrated programme. It gives too much power to the students, and sometimes the students forget that he or she is actually a student and decisions have to be made by teachers, academic coordination. So sometimes they [STs] want to have, or expect more solutions, so they want everything to be as they want it to be, but we have to acknowledge that it can’t be that way because we don’t have the knowledge that it’s needed to take those kind of decisions [Daniel2: 3].

What Daniel points out may be a potential problem for the programme, since giving STs space to speak up can lead to false expectations and conflicts between STs and the programme and university authorities. This could be seen in the strikes of 2015 and 2016 where the student demands were not aligned with reality (see Chapter 2. Thus, there needs to be a balance between what STs ask for and the actual feasibility of their demands, considering the overarching aims of the IC. This is one of the inherent challenges in the whole IC venture, and is likely to be true in other contexts also.

In contrast, other STs would like to learn about TEs’ rationale for their decision making when choosing the topics.

They [TEs] always select something that it's not forced but adds up really well to the programme that we are building, so it's not like we haven't had that chance. The only thing that I would like improve is to show the process of selection because for me it's unclear, they [TEs] choose the topics that suits their programme best, but
that is not that clear for students, so that would be great to say: OK which of these topics because it links with this topic and we will work it like this [Joel4: 1].

Joel suggests that TEs could unpack their decision-making process on how they choose a certain topic or material as part of their teaching/learning process. However, this could also be a limitation, as stated by Daniel above, since it could lead to having to explain every decision made in the programme.

On the whole, there is acknowledgment that the IC is a programme undergoing change, and that both staff and teacher educators are experimenting different strategies in the process.

I think it has been a process with a lot of frustration, and I think we have learned because I think I really believe that this is a good programme, but I know that it's difficult to know what it is the best to implement this new programme, and maybe that has been the issue. That is impossible for teachers and for the heads to know what it's the best way, so maybe they are just trying and they are learning [Jorge3: 2].

Jorge believes that the IC is still under trial, and therefore not all decisions made are the best at a given point in time. STs get frustrated when they see that their voices are not heard, for they somehow expect it.

7.4 Perceived teacher educators’ challenges

By sharing with teacher educators on a daily basis, student teachers notice the challenges they face in implementing the integrated curriculum and the IEL. In the interviews, they talk about three main areas: TEs’ beliefs and capacity to respond to the IC’s aims; TEs’ coordination in their teaching and material design; and, thus, their classroom practices, i.e. how to have a dynamic classroom under the current fixed structure.

First-year Paulette is impressed about TEs’ degree of coordination in order to plan and deliver their classes:

I’m really surprised how five people can be so well connected and organised. Always surprised by that because I know it’s difficult (…). And I would also say that maybe the resistance of the new curriculum could be a problem because there is people who expecting things that are not part of their goals [Paulette1: 4].

Paulette thinks that teacher educators are successful in their classroom delivery, despite the organization difficulties. However, she also notices that, since TEs are trying
to change student teachers’ beliefs about teaching/language learning, particularly the beliefs of those STs expecting a more traditional approach to language teaching.

Regarding organization, Daniel explains how he perceives TEs arrange their work:

they have to get together, and talk about how they are going to do stuff, and they have to do the PowerPoint presentations (...). I know that they talk on WhatsApp. But I know it's just like all being equal at the same time, and yes, and the same pace. Yes, behind the scenes there is lots of complications because not all sections have the same students. Every single section is different [Daniel2: 4].

Daniel examines TEs’ daily complex system of coordination that the IEL demands. From a macro perspective, he observes that the critical point is to address each group’s needs while using the same planning and the same pace.

Inside the classroom, and associated with teacher educators’ practices, Jorge criticises the classroom dynamics, since they ‘become monotonous because they [TEs] started to use the same activities again and again’ [Jorge3: 3]. Jorge suggests balancing the lesson structure with a more varied pool of activities. Since they are very similar every day, they demotivate STs. TEs could instead draw on student teachers’ contributions to the module and be more responsive to student teachers’ emerging needs in the classroom.

From a teacher educators’ perspective, fifth-year Héctor posits teacher knowledge as a challenge, for he ‘felt that some teachers were better prepared to deal with some topics, but others didn’t’ [Héctor5: 4]. He sees that TEs are expected to know a wide range of topics and also some specialist content such as phonetics and discourse analysis. Not all teacher educators seem to be prepared to teach everything. This agrees with Kate’s concerns above when she questions TEs’ capability and interest to know an extensive number of topics/contents.

Looking at the exit profile, fourth-year Goretti looks at TEs’ role model in relation to their classroom practices:

It's difficult because you have to think about differently, out of the box. Let's think about this topic and then we will develop a communicative classroom with integrated four skills. I think that's the challenge that teachers actually can do that, but it is difficult to integrate it all, and it's difficult for them to teach us, for example, through these topics, to teach us how to be a teacher who is prepared, who is integral, as a whole, a perfect teacher [Goretti4: 2].
Teacher educators seem to be challenged to embrace the exit profile in their classroom practices. Since the topics are the means to achieve the exit profile objectives, e.g. having multiple perspectives of the world, and developing critical thinking, TEs are to be the example of this ideal teacher. This is a great responsibility that needs to be taken collectively, so I wonder if all TEs are rowing on the same direction?

Second-year Joseph makes two points that are relevant for this discussion: firstly, the relation between TE’s expectations and how STs respond to them: ‘There is a break between what they expect to teach us and the actual outcomes’ [Joseph2: 1]. STs may not meet the TEs expectations for some of the previously mentioned reasons, e.g. lack of motivation and participation. Since STs do not always read, TEs cannot fully complete all activities, not meeting class’ objectives. Joseph furthers this point: ‘I think that teachers depend too much in the students’ reading. What if we don't reading? But they just based the class in contents’ [Joseph2: 2]. The ethos of the IEL is somehow threatened if student-teachers do not fully engage with and learn from the readings, both at a language and at the content level. Hence, this appears to be a vicious circle: TEs depend on student teachers’ reading to teach the IEL classes, and therefore, inform the classroom discussions. However, STs believe that not having read does not prevent them from giving their opinion, based on previous knowledge or experiences, yet TEs think that it affects the quality of the discussions, neither TEs nor STs have yet tackled this issue.

7.5 Suggestions for the IC improvement

I asked student teachers a very open question that gathered fuller responses: If you had all the power, what changes would you make to the Integrated curriculum, not only focused on the IEL strand, but on all modules? This question gave free reign to student teachers’ imagination and suggested a long list of changes, which I comment on this section.

In terms of strand coordination, Paullette suggests that there needs to be a closer work among TEs working on different strands within the IC:

maybe you need a little bit more connection between the other teachers because they are different sections. Sometimes sections are not studying the same, or I don’t know, or sometimes you feel that two classes are repeating too much topics [Paulette1: 5].

Paullette points out the content overlap between modules that are being taught the same semester. As such, although there is some coordination among the different strands, it seems that contents overlap, instead of providing different perspectives as it is intended, shedding some light on the integration work among TEs from different strands.
In relation to language proficiency, Cata suggests grouping low-proficiency student teachers to ensure that they reach the language threshold that would allow them to perform better.

putting all the students with a lower proficiency level, so that they can reach a minimum, so they can be OK with the integrated curriculum [Cata2:2].

Being a low-proficiency student herself, Cata would like to have had special support to be able to understand and thrive in the IEL. The IEL demands are too high for someone with little or no English at the beginning of the degree, which may inform first year’s STs’ dropout rate (see 2.8.4.1).

Likewise, fourth-year Pamela would like to learn more grammar as further language support, as she perceives it as a need in relation to her school internship experiences:

I know that it is an integrated language but to me, I think that we need more to take into consideration that in classes we have to work with grammar with the students, and I have done in my ELAB [practicum] experience, and teachers, we suggest that a while ago, and they started doing workshops on Fridays, but I think it’s not enough to be necessary to take into consideration that. We as teachers sometimes need to work with grammar and I have been encountered a lot of issues with my ELAB because they are some stuff that I don’t know, I don’t remember from school, and not having grammar in the university has become in that sense a problem for me [Pamela4: 3]

Through her school internships, Pamela has noticed that she does not know enough grammar to respond to her school students’ needs. Knowing about grammar seems to be needed by STs as part of their toolkit as future teachers, not to revert to grammar translation methods, but to respond to their students’ questions and the demands that mainstream schools pose on teachers.

Among the suggestions to be considered in the programme, second-year Cata suggests the need to have more political perspectives in the IC:

I like that they have their political orientation, I also consider that I need to know another political because if we see if they want to we can think critically, we can, we must to know all the political orientations [Cata2: 3].

It appears that teacher educators present a single-sided political view, yet the profile states that student teachers need to seek to enrich from multiple perspectives to develop critical thinking. Hence, student teachers would like to know more political views to be better informed and, thus, develop their own positioning.
Looking at TEs’ profile, fourth-year Valentina refers to reflective workshops. These are five modules that run parallel to school internships as of fifth semester. She explains that student teachers questions who is teaching them:

It happened that last year there were teachers doing TREPE [Reflective workshops] that have never been in a school, and that for us, for me, made me feel insecure, as I was saying, I felt that it is a subject that sympathises with each other, and tries to respond, or help each other to find answers. So I wondered how a teacher that has never been in a school will help me to find answers for the problem that I am having in the school classroom [Valentina4: 5].

It may seem obvious that the reflective workshops’ TEs should have (ideally recent or current) school teaching experience. However, according to Valentina’s experience, reflective workshops have lost credibility by having a TE who has not got no first-hand experience as a school teacher. Having school teaching experience can better inform and support TEs in regards to the reflective workshops, bringing back the disconnection between the actual needs of the school contexts and the IC. This liaison between TEs and the school context is not only desirable for educational modules, but for all strands.

Similarly, fifth-year Macarena, comments that they would like to have more reflective workshop teaching hours.

I would also add more TREPE hours because I believe that during the practicum and all that, I believe that’s fundamental that some students need to share the ideas and because we only have one hour, they didn't have the chance of, I don't know, sharing what they were feeling during this week, and what they were doing, and some, and I believe that is important to share [Macarena5: 1].

Since reflective workshops are offered once a week only, student teachers think that they would like to have more support to reflect on their experience as practicum teachers, particularly on their final year. Currently they have individual practicum tutors who go to the schools, observe STs’ classes, and check their lesson plans. Still, student teachers would like to have a wider range of opportunities to be supported and reflect on what they are experiencing at schools. This would imply adjusting the current IC final-year modules to be able to acknowledge the teaching practicum experiences in a systematic way.

7.6 Summary

In this chapter, I presented STs’ perceptions of the integrated curriculum and the exit profile. Their views are highly influenced by the IEL strand, i.e. language and topic integration, rather than strand integration. With regards to the IEL strand, they understand the teaching materials as the PowerPoint and the readings. They perceive
that the readings may be a bit overwhelming and they admit that they are complex, and sometimes they rank them low in their priorities. They would still like to have more grammar, particularly in the upper levels, since they realize that they do not know enough grammar as expected by schools.

STs acknowledge the possibility of suggesting topics for the IEL strand, yet they have to improve the way in which they organize among themselves. In terms of TEs' organization, they perceive that they need a high degree of coordination to be able to deliver the same lesson to all groups at the same time. They say that their lessons follow the same structure, which seems to be predictable and demotivating as the IEL is routinized. Finally, they suggest having more political views, and to have TEs that have a closer connection and knowledge of the school system.

7.7 Summing up: Part 2 conclusions

In the findings chapters, I have presented the main issues regarding the implementation of the integrated curriculum. The current teaching model implies working for an extensive number of hours to coordinate every day content and material design. The data shows that this extensive effort may not be worth it. As suggested by Kate in p. 155, the teacher rotation system could be made easier. Despite being exhausted, TEs are still dedicated to the IC, but most importantly, to their student teachers. This commitment is what drives them to go beyond the call of duty most of the time.

Looking at the classroom observations, there seems to be an inconsistency between the IEL structured class and the ideology embedded in the IC's exit profile. Tailoring content to student teachers' interests has implied looking for more materials and adapting them to STs' suggestions. However, STs still complain about the tailored-made units. They are accountable for this, since not all of them have devised an effective system to choose and communicate topics to teacher educators. There is a general agreement in terms of TEs' practices have become a repetitive routine, following the pre-while-post sequencing, and using mainly discussions to develop language skills.

In relation to the IEL content, both teacher educators and student teachers seem to agree that the focus of this module is on the content rather than on the language, which refers to CLIL. Undoubtedly, there is consensus of having an extensive array of topics in IEL, responding to bringing multiple perspectives into the classroom. IEL modules aim at not only teaching content, but learning about the language. Knowing about language form is a critical component, particularly when STs will become language teachers and need to learn about language form and theory, as foundational knowledge of their profession.
Moreover, the IEL modules are designed to cover an extensive number of units within a semester. Student teachers advocate having fewer readings in order to have deeper discussions than the existing ones, and to also take advantage of the texts from both content and language perspectives. Teacher educators, likewise, would like to have fewer readings since, all in all, their class preparation time is excessive and is one of the main reasons for their exhaustion.

In lessons, the PowerPoint is the compass to all activities and takes the role of a module book. Although some student teachers like to have this structure, they feel that classes have become monotonous and predictable, so it has caused demotivation, particularly in the upper-levels.

In respect to the exit profile, most community members know and agree with the profile. However, both teacher educators and student teachers share the concern of its feasibility in the mainstream school system in relation to how this new language teaching approach will fit into the traditional school classroom. Student teachers have become aware of their knowledge gap in their practicum, when asked by their own students and mentor teachers.

Another concern revolves around achieving the expected language proficiency (C1) at the end of the programme. IEL 9 appears to be a remedial module focused on EAP since there has been evidence that student teachers lack writing skills to write a good action research project towards the end of their degree.

Lastly, this PRESET is composed of staff as curriculum designers, teacher educators as implementers, and student teachers as receivers and future users. From their respective roles, they are all targeting the same goal: becoming a teacher of English. This process of formación, doing being, relies on the consistency of everyone’s actions towards the achievement of their self-imposed goals - bearing in mind that the IC has a bottom-up design. The IC graduates need to reflect the IC principles in their practices. They are the ones who will make the programme have external validity through showing that it responds to the ministry of education’s expectations for English language teachers. Teacher educators have to be aware of the mainstream school system’s realities to bring them into their own classes, and have credibility with student teachers. Staff members should learn about teacher educators’ concerns and student teachers’ perceptions of the IC to be better informed in their decision making, particularly now – at the time of writing up - when the IC has completed two rounds of implementation, and is due to start with possible curriculum adjustments.
In part 3, I discuss the challenges and lessons to be considered when implementing curriculum change.

Chapter 8 discusses the research questions in relation to the literature and the findings. Chapter 9 summarises the main findings and lessons to be learned. It also refers to the limitations and contributions of this thesis, and suggests further areas of research. It concludes with my learnings from the PhD process.
Chapter 8 Trying to see the wood for the trees: Discussing teacher education curriculum change

8.1 Introduction

The objective of this chapter is to elucidate the tensions within the IC and its implications for teacher education curriculum change in Chile. By examining and analysing these tensions, this discussion aims to shed some light on possible suggestions for the implementation of teacher education curriculum change not only for this institution, but for the Chilean context, and beyond.

This chapter is organised into three overlapping parts, drawing on the findings and the existing literature on the fields of language teacher education, language teacher cognitions, and curriculum change. First, I explore the paradox that although TEs try to live up to the ideology of the IC in their teaching of the Integrated English Language, the actual classroom implementation does not fully represent what the IC is trying to promote. This section aims at answering the first and second research questions:

What are teacher educators’ understandings of the IC and the exit profile?

How do TEs implement the IC in the integrated English language classroom?

Then, drawing on the first part, I aim at understanding the implementation mismatches, trying to balance TEs and staff’s points of view, addressing the third research question:

What impact has teacher educators’ experience had on the planning and implementation processes and on student teachers’ understanding of the IC?

Finally, I examine the implications of these research findings for ELT teacher education in the national and international contexts. I refer to the context appropriateness of the IC to reflect on factors that might need to be considered when designing and implementing changes to language teacher educator programmes. This section addresses the fourth research question:

How does the Chilean educational context, for which the IC is educating language teachers, influence the organization and content of the Integrated Curriculum?

8.2 Understanding and implementing curriculum innovation

The organizational structure of the institution providing the IC is composed of permanent staff (head of the English department, head of the PRESET), part-time teacher educators, and student teachers, as discussed in Chapter 2. However, TEs are the ones
who enact the IC in the Integrated English Language classroom with student teachers. Moreover, TEs are situated between the permanent staff – the innovation planners, and the student teachers – the receivers. The Chilean educational context, from where student teachers come as school students, and to which they will return as English language teachers, mediates the role that TEs are able to play in the classroom.

TEs’ cognitions, as defined by Borg (2015) (see 3.4), have been challenged by the implementation of the IC. Although TEs seem to agree with the principles underlying the IC, the practical implications of implementing the curriculum have put TEs’ cognitions to the test. The curriculum change literature (e.g. Kennedy and Kennedy, 1996; Wedell, 2003; Darling-Hammond et al., 2005; Fullan, 2007; Wedell, 2009; Wedell and Malderez, 2013; Fullan, 2014b) sees such implementers’ agreement with the goals of a change as an ideal condition for the implementation of curriculum change. However, it is important to distinguish between ‘ideal instructional practices (how things should be) and, instructional realities (how things are)’ (Borg, 2015, p.329).

In the IC, ideal instructional practices are manifested in a PowerPoint presentation (the lesson plan), aiming to provide the same content and activities to all STs. However, instructional realities vary, within the boundaries that the IEL planning allow, i.e. between each student-teacher group, their emerging needs in each session, and each TE’s teaching style – where their beliefs and practices are reflected. Therefore, although the planning aims to reflect the IC goals, it does not necessarily lead all TEs to teach in ways that reflect those goals all of the time, as the instructional reality. Drawing on the interviews with permanent staff, TEs and student teachers, in this section I unpack the different factors that TEs and student teachers consider when designing, planning, teaching and learning in IEL strand.

### 8.2.1 Teacher educators’ perspectives of the implementation

In theory, the IC meets some of ideal conditions for success (Fullan, 1993; Wedell, 2009; Deng, 2010; Fullan, 2014a), such as a bottom-up design, and support for implementers. However, here, while the implementer support, understood as the shadowing of more experienced TEs is important, it is not alone enough to make curriculum change successful. The data indicates that TEs’ main criticism of the implementation relates to the complexity and quantity of work needed to implement the curriculum as devised, which affects both TEs’ quality of work and quality of life (Freeman, 2006).

The IEL work is based on teamwork which bears the following shared goals in mind:

- teaching of English
- to student-teachers / future teachers of English
• aiming to achieve the characteristics described on the exit profile.

In order to reach these goals, TEs work together, through shared planning, and interaction with student teachers and the permanent staff. TEs share their commitment to the programme by having the exit profile as a compass, despite having different emphases in their interpretation, i.e. while some focus on enabling STs to become agents of change, others mainly focus on achieving the expected proficiency level. Below, I discuss how TEs seem to understand these three shared goals of the implementation of the IC, from the IEL perspective.

The data indicates that TEs mainly perceive the IC through their involvement in the IEL strand rather than taking a comprehensive view that embraces all the curricular areas – the IC essence, suggesting that there is a less-than-perfect implementation of the IC. The data shows that the information flow about what strands are doing is unidirectional, i.e. the information is shared from the IEL to the other strands, but not vice-versa. Therefore, the fact that IEL teacher educators have a partial view is unsurprising given the high number of hours that TEs spend on this strand; the influence that IEL has on the IC; and the relation between the IEL and the other areas in the attempt to coordinate cross-curriculum topics and contents.

Communication within the IEL TEs is another issue. The daily interaction among TEs appears to be heavily mediated by technology to make on-the-spot lesson planning decisions rather than to deepen knowledge of the contents and share expertise in teaching/learning. TEs reported that the use of WhatsApp was disruptive, particularly during lessons to ensure the uniformity of the teaching. Research on the use of WhatsApp in teaching is very recent, and it is mainly focused on student-student or teacher-student interaction (e.g. Bouhnik and Deshen, 2014; Ta'amneh, 2017). To my knowledge, no studies have explored teacher-teacher interaction, and future research is needed to understand how WhatsApp could contribute to improving teachers’ work.

Teaching English to future teachers of English under the perspective of the IEL needs some groundwork. Preparing TEs for the IEL teaching system is shared through the interaction between newcomer TEs and more experienced ones. The newcomers, as described by the Head of the PRESET, are trained to teach in the IEL through learning by doing, which is valued by TEs, as reported by Joe (see p. 127 for [Joe1: 3]) and Pat (see p. 121 for [Pat: 5 and 6]). The training, however, remains at the practical level: the everyday planning and teaching. TEs’ learning seems to be superficial, focused on the practicalities of the IEL implementation. Likewise, the integration of specialist content, e.g. phonetics, literature, and lexico-grammar is expected to be provided by TEs, but through interaction with and support of specialists, which is insufficient. Therefore, TEs are inadequately prepared to deal with specialist contents in the classroom.
However, TEs see themselves as the sources of knowledge as part of their preparation as TEs. Embedded in the Chilean educational system, there is the belief that teachers know ‘everything’. Joe believes that it is part of their responsibility as TEs to be well prepared as STs expects them to do so:

You shouldn’t show your students that you’ve given the materials to read, and you don’t know even know the title and the name of the author. They [STs] should see, that you have prepared your classes properly, because that shows you respect, part of your respect for students, and also that you can make mistakes, that you don’t know all the words in English. Because they expect you to know everything [Joe1:9].

Joe takes the classroom preparation as a personal and professional task to be well prepared in readiness to address emerging questions about the contents covered in the texts:

whenever I see something that I’m not, I would say, culturally or technically prepared to tackle with my students, in the event that a related question may surface up in the classroom, I spend a couple of hours looking at additional information on the Internet. That takes me to bed sometimes, sometimes around one, two o’clock, and I get up at 6 o’clock the following day [Joe1:10].

The data suggests that TEs do not feel prepared to teach the content knowledge that is covered through the IEL readings. In addition to the inadequate training in teaching the IEL, TEs feel an additional stress to know the contents that readings embed, which suggests that TEs are unable to fully use the texts as a vehicle for language learning, as anticipated by the IC designers (see chapter 6) and interviews (see p. 125 for [Kate1:11]). What Joe puts forward resonates what Freeman quotes from Grabe, Stoller, and Tardy (2000), who state:

Language teaching… is a complex endeavour. It is our strong feeling that exposure to and an understanding of knowledge from a range of disciplines [linguistics, anthropology, psychology, and education] provides teachers with tools to address those complexities and to meet the multifaceted needs of their students (Grabe, Stoller, and Tardy (2000, p.193) in Freeman, 2016, p.191).

I believe that Grabe et.al.’s view on LTE summarises the spirit of the IC by embracing multiple disciplines and knowledge in service of students. As such, Joe’s perspective of ‘owning’ the knowledge is reflected here, by trying to know as much as possible to feel ready to teach STs.
I posit that the nature of the IEL integration is complex, and so is language teaching (for language teachers), as suggested by Grabe et al., and even more so, language teaching for future language teachers. As put by Grabe et al:

Teacher educators must strive to help new language professionals understand the value of this knowledge and the critical role it will play in making sound pedagogical decisions, planning classes, developing materials, delivering instructions, evaluating student progress, and conducting meaningful action-research projects to improve one’s teaching (Grabe, Stoller, and Tardy (2000, p.193) in Freeman, 2016, p.191).

Grabe et. al.’s quote resonates with TEs’ description of their role in the IEL, putting TEs’ position as their mission, enhancing the nature of their role model, and justifying why TEs have to know what they know. However, the knowledge perspective is also embedded in the national expectations for newly qualified teachers, as expressed in the first national teaching standard:

[a teacher of English] knows the linguistic structure of the English language, and manages the fundamental components of the language (lexico-grammatical, phonetic, phonological, and pragmatic), and their application in the productive and receptive aspects of the language to develop his/her students’ linguistic competence that allows them to communicate effectively in English (MINEDUC, 2014a, p.23 my translation)

These ministerial guidelines are to be followed by teacher education institutions. However, there are no directives to guide PRESETs to enact them or how NQTs will be assessed. Therefore, each PRESET is free to decide how they reach this goal. In August 2017, the standards started a revision process, which is to be completed during the first semester of 2018.

In terms of collegial support and becoming a teacher educator, there is an increasing body of research about how teachers become teacher educators (e.g. Viskovic, 2006; Malderez and Wedell, 2007; Williams et al., 2012). For example, Williams et al. (2012) conducted an extensive literature review on the role of community in becoming a teacher educator. One key finding was that

the central importance of collegial, supportive relationships (…) nurture the construction of a strong professional identity as a teacher educator (Williams et al., 2012, p. 254).

The experience of Joe and Pat agrees with Williams, as they value the need to have supportive relationships and feel professionally appreciated among colleagues. In Chile, Montenegro Maggio (2016) explored the path of school teachers who become teacher educators, noting that beginning teacher educators found themselves in
autonomous and solitary experiences, and therefore collegial support is desirable. She suggests that

professional induction of beginner teacher educators implies the support mechanism needed in one’s transition to a different workplace and helps in the development of new professional practices related to teaching, research and supervision (Montenegro Maggio, 2016, p.540).

In this research context, I observed that TEs experience the change of paradigm in their teaching and learning practices. This transition between the school and the higher education systems, described by Montenegro Maggio, is reflected in the shadowing of and working with more experienced TEs, which is understood as the main support mechanism referred to by staff, yet based on what TEs report, seems to be insufficient.

In sum, the data seems to indicate that teacher educators agree with and support the ethos of the integrated curriculum, despite their criticisms of it. However, they raise several issues about the IEL implementation, and consequently, the IC. First, their own readiness to meet the IEL goals, e.g. being able to teach both thematic and linguistic contents being integrated in the IEL as a result of the curriculum integration to future teachers of English. TEs also question whether the IEL prepares STs’ to achieve the national standards for newly qualified teachers, and to face the school context. The critical challenge for TEs and the IC remains finding the balance between teaching and learning of multiple topics, developing STs critical thinking through learning English (and about English), meeting ministerial expectations for teachers of English, and trying to fit in the unchanged school context. In the next section, I discuss TEs’ classroom practices.

8.2.2 Teacher educators in the Integrated English Language classroom

In the previous section, I shed light on some of the challenges that fully understanding the IC has posed for TEs. This section addresses TEs experience of teaching in the IEL, focused on the second research question: How do TEs implement the IC in the integrated English language classroom?

During classroom observations, I noted that there is a fixed three-stage lesson structure (pre-while-post), signposted in PowerPoint presentations, followed by all TEs teaching the same level at the same time. The implementation of the TE rotation system seems to aim at ensuring that all student-teachers receive the same content at the same pace, and that all teacher educators meet the IEL objectives, at the same time. This ‘coverage’ need seems to be similar with school practices when working with textbooks. Although the teaching style remains personal (hence the idea of providing different ‘modelling’ as
described by Kate in p. 155 [Kate2: 9] remains strong), TEs’ own initiative inside the classroom appears to be limited to what has been planned in advance by themselves as a group.

The daily rotation, in practical terms, puts great pressure on TEs. The minimal literature refers to teacher rotation focused on students’ results rather than on the implications for teachers (Engen et al., 1967; Schmelkes, 2008). The data hints that content coverage, i.e. as discussing the assigned reading for that day, is given more importance than addressing student teachers’ emerging needs in the classroom, i.e. an emphasis on covering content over teaching content, since not covering/doing what has been planned implies that another TE has to resume the not-covered contents the next day.

Consequently, TEs’ have limited scope for in-the-moment responses. Only Joe noted STs’ reactions and engagement, and modified his practices accordingly. In the observations, he would normally highlight emerging issues in order to deal with aspects of language form, however for the STs these were one-off instances with no follow-up in the subsequent lessons, so what the student-teachers’ take in from these formal explanations is unclear.

Observations suggest that language teaching, i.e. explicit teaching of language rules and skill development, is overlooked in the planning and teaching. I observed one IEL planning meeting, which had no references to language objectives, but mainly focused on consistency between the readings and the PowerPoint presentations planned for that week. Likewise, I wrote several reflective notes regarding the lack of language teaching besides the in-class discussions. The literature indicates that a sole emphasis on fluency or exposure is not enough when learning a language (Norris and Ortega, 2000; Lightbown and Spada, 2006; Cook, 2016; Yule, 2014). Dörnyei (2009, p.36) discusses the matter of language exposure in communicative language teaching:

The mere exposure to L2 input accompanied by communicative practice is not sufficient, and, therefore, we need explicit learning procedures – such as focus on form or some kind of controlled practice – to push learners beyond communicatively effective language toward target-like second language ability.

I am concerned about STs’ language knowledge in light of TEs’ comments. If STs are never explicitly taught or made aware of form or form/meaning relationships, how will they ever be able to teach it to their learners? I am not advocating for explicit grammar teaching. I believe that teaching language form aids to build a knowledge base for language teaching. As Trappes-Lomax (2002) poses, communicative proficiency and consciousness of the language are mutually dependent, particularly for language teachers.
In the IEL, language teaching provides few opportunities to develop STs learning about the language. As reported by Joe, the word grammar is forbidden (see p. 143 for [Joe1: 8]). While teaching, TEs provide examples of how and when to use a particular structure, yet the teaching of it is more implicit than explicit. As perceived by Héctor, ‘we know how to read, but we don’t know that much about English [Héctor5: 2].'

One possible explanation of Héctor’s claim is material choice. The Head of the PRESET explains why there is a preference for academic texts:

> there is an emphasis on academic sort of texts, and the reason for that is because academic texts are the ones that render more opportunities for students for a serious discussions of important issues that we are interested to develop […] that is usually the starting point to enter in this new (...) because for many [STs] is the first time that they enter into these topics, so you know, academic texts seem to be serious enough for a good crossing the threshold [HPRESET: 11].

As far as the selection and development of materials, the two most important criteria for doing so are the materials’ ‘effectiveness in achieving the purposes of the module and their appropriateness for the students – and the teacher’ (Graves, 1996, p.24). In the IEL context, I infer that the materials have been chosen for the content but not for the language learning opportunities that they offer, i.e. the material choice seems to be topic-driven, to develop critical literacy, regardless of proficiency or the year STs are in. I believe that the current texts are relevant to develop criticality, but maybe it would be more appropriate for STs to consider a gradual move from texts that illustrate forms in use, for example, to texts that promote criticality. Critical literacy (e.g. Janks, 2000; Luke, 2004; Luke and Dooley, 2011; Luke, 2012) is relevant in the IEL due to the close relation with the exit profile principles. Luke (2012, p.9) defines it as:

> the development of human capacity to use texts to analyse social fields and their systems of exchange—with an eye to transforming social relations and material conditions.

Luke’s definition offers support to the purpose that reading has in the IEL to develop student-teachers’ critical thinking, and to be better prepared to understand the Chilean ELT context where they will serve upon graduation. However, the fact that materials do not have a clear language learning objective within the selection suggests that the language component is not being integrated in the IEL decision making by TEs, but only the thematic content.

As far as graded readings and genre variety are concerned, there is considerable disagreement in the literature. Hedgcock and Ferris (2009, p.134) present different perspectives: they refer to Nation (2001) who advocates graded materials, whereas Young (1999) recommends the avoidance of abridged texts for beginner learners
because they ‘may actually inhibit the development of readers’ abilities to interpret authentic texts and process diverse genres’ (Hedgcock and Ferris, 2009, p.134). Finally, they state that ‘text complexity or difficulty should not rigidly determine how a literacy syllabus is graded’ (ibid.). Since there is disagreement among researchers about this area, Grabe (2004) suggests that in the context of teaching reading:

nearly all L2 students struggle with academic reading tasks at two foundational levels: (1) the amount of unknown or unfamiliar vocabulary in academic texts, which may include general vocabulary, academic vocabulary, and discipline-specific vocabulary; and (2) the amount of reading required, which is often far beyond their prior educational experiences in any language, but especially in L2 (Grabe, 2004 in Hedgcock and Ferris, 2009, p.55).

IC STs’ perceptions concur with Grabe’s research. They struggle reading academic papers for their complexity and their length, which may explain the low priority that they give to reading for the IEL compared to the other curricular strands, as also perceived by TEs. STs suggest reading fewer papers, and dealing with them in more depth (see [Juan4: 2] on p. 175).

The content and quantity of materials in the IEL strand heavily influence TEs’ practices and STs’ understandings of the IC implementation. Interviews suggest that TEs have different opinions about the texts, how they are used, and the achievement of the expected proficiency levels. On the one hand, TEs indicate, and observations show that student teachers are fluent and can develop their ideas as a result of the current practices, with the exception of IEL 9. The focus is on the discussion of the text contents rather than language learning. However, STs’ accuracy is not at the expected level of a teacher of English. Student teachers themselves question whether their own acquired language knowledge is adequate to respond to schools’ demands, based on their school internships. TEs and STs both agree that the coverage of the contents/topics read is currently superficial, and that improving the quality of the discussion could be addressed by reconsidering the quantity of texts read to also enable focus on a known language learning objective using the readings as a framework.

Prabhu (1990, p.165) when referring to the kind of balance that the IEL aims at having, between language instruction, and the values embedded in the exit profile, warns that:

Language instruction that attempts to cater directly to social objectives, learning needs, target needs, learners’ wants, teachers’ preferences, learning styles, teaching constraints, and attitudes all round can end up as a mere assemblage of hard-bound pieces of content and procedure – a formula that manages, with difficulty, to satisfy multiple criteria and therefore cannot afford to let itself be tampered with.
This seems to reflect the IEL, which tries to do too much and results in a ‘formula’ that fails to develop solid language foundations for language teaching.

To sum up, regarding the first and second research questions, i.e. TEs’ understandings of the IC and the exit profile and their implementation in the IEL classroom, I identify three different areas. First, TEs support and believe in the IC underpinnings, e.g. social justice, criticality and transformation. However, TEs are conflicted by the distance between what the IC tries to provide and reality, in terms of STs’ preparedness to thrive in the Chilean school context, particularly in terms of expected teaching/learning approach and personal language proficiency. Second, TEs' practices seem to be limited by an inflexible planning and teaching system that results in routinized and repetitive lessons. This system somehow, maybe involuntarily, limits TEs’ capacity to respond to student teachers’ emerging language development needs and puts an unnecessary burden on TEs. Lastly, the fixed planning and teaching limits their scope for action. They are mostly focused on the immediate present and are hindered from engaging in reflective practices to make informed decisions to improve their teaching and respond to STs’ learning better.

8.2.3 Teacher educators and student teachers’ collaboration: Working together for the integration

The views of student teachers as receivers of curriculum innovation are critical to understand its outcomes. Fullan (2007) reports that research that explores student experiences in curriculum change is scarce. I cannot conceive change in pre-service teacher education without considering student teachers’ voices. They are the ones who undergo change and who will put it into practice as graduate teachers. Apart from informing change from the teacher educators’ point of view, my work also aims at contributing to the curriculum change literature from the receivers’ viewpoint. My original data generation plan consisted of a total of five focus groups, one per level. The strike and sit-in described in 4.6.1 made me change my plan to a series of individual and small group interviews. By having more student teachers involved, I obtained a more varied perspective of STs’ perceptions about the IC. In this sub-section, I first refer to STs’ views of the integrated curriculum and the exit profile, and their overall IEL classroom experience. Then, I explore STs and teacher educators’ collaboration within the integrated English language strand from both standpoints.

Student teachers’ interviews suggest that they see the integrated curriculum mainly from the IEL point of view rather than from that of the IC as a whole. This is a shared perception among student teachers at all levels. Only a few notice or know that the IC aims to integrate all the curriculum strands. Likewise, not all STs are aware of or understand the exit profile. This fact echoes their lack of understanding of the IC as a whole, and questions how the IC has been communicated to student teachers. Despite
the permanent staff and TEs’ efforts to show the exit profile in presentations and documents, and inside the classroom through TEs’ practices, this effort has not yet paid off.

The IEL model concept of learning, clashes with STs’ previous learning experiences at school. Changing the beliefs about learning in general, language learning and education that STs arrive with represents a big challenge. In practical terms, it means making STs understand, embrace and live up to the exit profile goals by reshaping STs’ existing beliefs, based on their school and life experiences (see p. 122 for [HPRESET: 7]). A way of representing the challenge is by looking at what STs argue for when they think of the IEL topics. They would like to have more ‘tangible’ topics, i.e. more traditional topics such as ‘the environment’, or ‘shopping’ rather than the more abstract texts on, for example ‘language planning’ (see Appendix 2). One could also argue that the kind of topics they deal with in IEL do not show STs models of ‘real’ language lessons in the Chilean classroom, indicating a lack of connection with what/how the schools are teaching.

Involving students in decision-making is infrequent in any educational context. Fullan (2007, p.170) asserts that ‘[adults] rarely think of students as participants in a process of change and organizational life’. I consider student teachers’ involvement a unique characteristic of the IC, for it develops student teachers’ agency and engagement with their own becoming as teachers. Since it is so infrequent in both teachers’ and learners’ past experience, student involvement has become a learning experience for both TEs and STs. TEs have to learn how to work with STs as somehow peers, and be flexible about their contributions, as these impact on their planning and teaching. Similarly, STs in particular, have not experienced decision-making as conceived by the IC before, so they need to adapt to having a voice and working with TEs. This Freirean idea of emancipatory education was reflected in the IC from the beginning. In the second year of the implementation, STs’ started to be asked to suggest topics and tasks for assessment in the IEL only. To my knowledge, the IC is the sole programme within this institution that considers STs’ contributions when making decisions about teaching.

Mitra (2007) discusses some of the challenges in involving students in processes of change at school level:

Groups working to increase student voice in schools must find a way to remain focused on enacting their vision of change while at the same time taking steps to ensure the preservation of their group so they can continue the work that they started (Mitra, 2007, p.742).
Mitra believes that students’ involvement should be permanent and sustainable over time. In the IC, their participation seems to be one-off, i.e. only twice a year, when planning the following IEL modules, and only on the IEL strand.

Student teachers’ participation and involvement in the programme can be seen from two points of view. First, the emancipatory nature of the programme, embedded in the exit profile, and present in TEs’ speech (see, e.g. p. 117 for [Pat: 3]) is, perhaps inevitably, rather limited in practice. Freire (1970)’s idea of emancipatory education considers that

[It enables teachers and students to become Subjects of the educational process by overcoming authoritarianism and an alienated intellectualism; it also enables people to overcome their false perception of reality. The world – no longer something to be described with deceptive words – becomes the object of that transforming action by men and women which results in their humanization (Freire, 1970, p.67, capitalisation of 'subject' in original).]

Freire posits an integrative vision of emancipation, by looking at both teachers and students as part of the transformation enterprise. He invites them to work together being and acting critically to change the world. I concur that this intention is rooted in the IC principles and actions observed during my data generation. I believe that STs’ participation in making choices – even though by suggesting topics only - are initial steps to achieve a transformation on how STs perceive the classroom as a collaborative and shared learning space between students and teachers.

The world as an object of transformation is brought into the classroom through the discussion of critical topics of interest to STs and TEs. To do so, TEs are constantly facing cognitive dissonances (Festinger, 1962), as they have to balance the IC ideal and practicality, with what can actually be achieved and be useful for the classroom. TEs' interviews show their agreement with the IC, yet their comments on the soon-to-graduate STs are mainly focused on the tangible side of the proficiency dimension rather than the change agent dimension of being a teacher. TEs are constantly juggling between the ideals and the practical side of the IC, in their relation with the STs and the permanent staff.

Secondly, actually ‘participating’ in the implementation of curriculum change, represents a ‘cultural shift’ (Wedell, 2003, p.448) for student teachers. Both TEs and STs’ interviews imply that STs’ involvement is only at surface level, i.e. suggesting the thematic units that they would like to discuss / learn in class only. In practical terms, the cultural shift is superficial. STs have mixed views about their involvement in the planning, and the implementation of their suggestions, which reflect the complexity of negotiation and collaboration. Some think that it is a great and unique opportunity to be
involved in the planning. But some others acknowledge that they do not have the knowledge required to make informed decisions on the planning. Regarding the implementation of their suggestions in the IEL, STs are partially satisfied. Some say that TEs misunderstood their ideas, whereas other STs say it is student teachers who did not organise properly and/or promptly, and/or agree on a topic which represented the majority view of a specific cohort. Regarding TEs, student teachers are critical in terms of their preparedness to deal with certain topics.

From the above, I identify STs and TEs’ readiness for change as an issue. Firstly, the Chilean educational system has taken some small steps towards students’ involvement in decision making, led by massive national student-led demonstrations that resulted in, for example, the change of Ley Orgánica Constitucional de Enseñanza (LOCE - Constitutional Organic Law of Education) passed during the dictatorship to the Ley General de Educación (LGE - General Law of Education) in 2008 (Bellei et al., 2015, p.191) which has influenced the structure of the Chilean educational system, calling for free, quality and secular education. However, although the student movement is still active, it is still unthought-of to consider students’ viewpoints in schools’ everyday planning and decision-making. While the student movement has positioned itself as an active actor in the country’s educational policies decision-making, schools have not yet envisaged the involvement of their students’ bodies in their decision-making.

Although calling for student participation in decision-making is rare, there have been some attempts in promoting student teachers’ agency through exploratory practice. Allwright and Miller (2012) promote agency so learners become 

more explicit agents of their participation in teaching-learning processes, looking for opportunities to be taken seriously by the educational system (Allwright and Miller, 2012, p. 106).

However, informed decision making that involves students, as proposed by Allwright and Miller, is rare in Chile. Likewise, documented experiences about student participation are scarce. One exception is presented by Prieto (2001, 2005) who investigated school students taking part in a research project in a school. Students were involved in all the stages 

freely expressing their ideas, sharing power in taking decisions, interviewing their peers and analysing data, designing a school programme, acting as monitors in the realisation of the programme in their own schools, evaluating the experience, participating in the redesigning of the programme and presenting findings in conferences. All of these activities turned them into agents of change in their schools, thus, going far beyond the normal and ordinary activities they were used to being asked to do in schools (Prieto, 2001, p.90).
Prieto’s research suggests that students can be part of any educational process, getting engaged, making learning experiences meaningful, being treated as peers, and achieving emancipation and empowerment. Considering Allwright and Miller (2012)’s proposal and Prieto (2001, 2005)’s experiences, I argue that the approach of including STs that the IEL has implemented is feasible at a deeper level, which fosters student teachers’ agency and autonomy towards their professional learning. For example, by including the evaluation of the programme on a more regular basis in more informal yet systematic manners, or by monitoring their own learning through an assessment system that considers the intermediate and exit profiles and the national standards. Referring to my third research question, i.e. what impact teacher educators’ experience has had on the planning and implementation processes and on student teachers’ understanding of the IC, TEs, as key players in the student-teacher involvement, would have to document their challenges, e.g. by leaving a trace of their experiences including STs’ suggestions in their planning and teaching, and what the outcomes have been, could inform the institution’s future decisions and make adjustments as needed.

Student-teachers’ representatives may also need some training by TEs and/or staff to fully understand what being involved in the planning means, not only for the IEL strand, but beyond. This IC feature could be maximised for student-teachers’ benefit, e.g. enabling them to learn about the implications of planning a module, engaging in their own learnacy (Claxton, 2004), learning to learn, as part of their becoming teachers, and to gain a fuller understanding of the IC.

To consolidate such a change, Fullan speaks about reculturing, i.e. ‘transforming the culture - changing the way we do things around here’ (Fullan, 2014a, p.44). He expands on the purpose of reculturing as being to develop

the capacity to seek, critically assess, and selectively incorporate new ideas and practices all the time, inside the organization as well as outside it (ibid.).

This reculturing process applies not only to student teachers and teacher educators, but to all involved in the implementation of the IC. As TEs are able to develop their understanding of the IC over time, student teachers could be given the same opportunity to do so, progressively, i.e. increasing their participation and involvement as they advance in the programme, similar to what they do in their school internships: where STs transit from being an observer (3rd year), to a helper (4th year) to finally be a teacher (5th year).

Student-teachers’ participation also demands TEs who are ‘ready’ for the IC. TEs argue that an IEL teacher educator should be committed to the student-teachers’ process of becoming a teacher, e.g. be willing to work in teams, and change their beliefs about language teaching. However as Dave expresses: ‘Not every single teacher accepts that
grammar is not the core of English language teaching’, which is a critical contradiction. In section 8.2.1, I mentioned that TEs are conflicted between teaching content and teaching language form. However, the data indicates a degree of TEs’ resistance to not teaching grammar, since doing so has some validity in the Chilean educational context. This suggests that all actors involved in the IC implementation should embark on a reculturing process, by spending time sharing an understanding of the IC in terms of the beliefs and knowledge underpinning the programme. This, however, is easier said than done.

The process of reculturing and truly understanding takes a long time (Wedell, 2009; Wedell and Malderez, 2013). The IC context is particularly complex, for there has been a high TE turnover since its implementation (see Table 5). Wedell and Malderez (2013, p.223) advise that coherent and effective communication across the ‘system’ is critical in this process, so all actors can inform each other, learn from each other, and ensure their practices respond to the emerging needs of the context. Therefore, communication among TEs should not only be about the everyday practical issues of planning and teaching. Ideally, it should also reflect on why TEs are doing what they are doing, how student teachers react and act in a cyclical and regular manner. Again, this is easier said than done. In an ideal scenario, there would be time for the three parties involved, i.e. the permanent staff, the TEs, and the student teachers, to all be involved in using their experiences to make timely adjustments and improvements to the IEL implementation. For this to become possible, there needs to be somebody responsible for this reflection to be prompted and, most importantly, time for this to happen.

Due to the variety of the teacher educators, their specialisms, and their contract situations in the different curricular strands, I do not think it is feasible to extend student teachers’ involvement to all the strands in the way the IEL has conceived it. On the one hand, the other strands have a more fragmented body of TEs, i.e. non-tenured with fewer teaching hours. Therefore, their availability is even more limited than the IEL TEs. On the other hand, the other strands’ contents do not have the flexibility of thematic units due to their specialist nature, e.g. philosophy, teaching methodology, or psychology. Under the conditions I witnessed, such coordination is unlikely to occur.

In sum, I believe that most critical issue is how student teachers, at the end of the day, understand, make sense of, and meet the needs and expectations of the Chilean educational context as a result of their journey through the IC. The IEL strand has devised an instance of student teachers’ involvement, translated into suggesting topics for their IEL modules. However, that involvement in practical terms is superficial. Although the participation is valued, STs are not in full agreement about how this experience has reached their own classroom.
The IC, through helping STs to understand and make sense of the Chilean educational context, expects them to become transformative agents in an educational context that advocates autonomous and professional teachers, while controlling and standardising teachers’ practices more than ever (Ruffinelli, 2017). This resembles the inner reality of the IEL strand, maybe unintentionally.

Throughout this section, I have argued that the newness of this pre-service teacher education programme has led to a ‘gut instinct’, experimental decision-making process. The permanent staff and TEs have implemented what they think is best for this programme, in a trial and error modality, which has led to innumerable changes over the years. The fact that there is no preceding or existing IC model has meant that permanent staff and teacher educators’ decisions could not be informed by previous or similar experiences. More broadly, this study suggests that permanent staff should now take the opportunity to use TEs and STs’ experiences to take stock, and to inform their decision making as the programme moves forward.

In the next section, I consider all the actors in this innovation. I discuss how TEs and STs experiences inform the IC’s overall decision making in order to answer the third research question: What impact has teacher educators’ experience had on the planning and implementation processes and on student teachers’ understanding of the IC?

8.3 Unpacking the curriculum implementation

In this section I refer to the critical role that the IEL teacher educators have when enacting the integrated curriculum in the classroom. I talk about the extent to which TEs’ views, experiences and opinions are considered as part of the permanent staff’s decision making, and in their relation with student teachers, addressing the third research question: What impact has teacher educators’ experience had on the planning and implementation processes and on student teachers’ understanding of the IC?

As mentioned in 8.2, the IC lacks a methodical support system that focuses on TEs and STs’ deep understanding of the IC underpinnings. I believe that more systematic ongoing support would ease the understanding of the IC ethos, and its enactment in the classroom. In an ideal scenario, the permanent staff, e.g. language coordinator, and senior TEs, would share their own understandings and expectations of the IC with TEs, so that they can all unpack their views of the IC teaching and learning. However, currently, the permanent staff is not able to provide that support. At the time of the data generation, the internal and external conditions of the permanent staff, such as heavy administrative load, and the limited number of permanent staff available, hindered their actions, diverting their attention and time from supporting TEs’ development. Hence,
they rely on TEs’ collaboration and autonomy to build a support network among themselves, which is represented by their weekly meetings and WhatsApp group.

### 8.3.1 Reflective practice as support

A feasible option to provide the needed support in the IC context would be reflective practice. Reflective thought is defined by Dewey (1933, p.6) as

> active, persistent, and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge in the light of the groups that support it and the further conclusions to which it tends.

Farrell (2012) analyses the works of Dewey and Schön to discuss reflective practices. For Farrell, Dewey sets the ground to move from teaching a class to teaching students. This reminds me of what Valentina [Valentina4: 3] on p. 173, reflects on when describing the IEL class, as a result of the routinization of TEs’ practices, where she perceives that her lessons were not ‘alive’. Schön, on the other hand, speaks about reflection-in-action, i.e. while teaching, and reflection-on-action, which is the systematic inquiry of one’s practices to lead to change and professional development (Farrell, 2012). Farrell emphasises the collective nature of reflective practices, through systematic enquiry, to inform one’s practices and decision-making in favour of students’ learning. I can see reflective principles embedded in the IEL practices, for they are consistent of what the exit profile calls for: a reflective teacher. As such, they should be nurtured and encouraged among TEs, student teachers, and permanent staff.

Prabhu (1990) critiques routine when teaching. He favours teachers’ sense of plausibility, defined as ‘how learning takes place and how teaching causes or supports it’ (Prabhu, 1990:172). Teachers’ awareness of students’ learning is the basis of this process. As such, plausibility goes beyond teacher-learner rapport. It asks for noticing and willingness to change one’s teaching. Teachers’ sense of plausibility’s worst enemy is mechanical teaching, which emerges as an ‘overroutinisation of teaching activity, and teaching is subject to great pressures of routinization’ (Prabhu, 1990, p.173). Becoming aware of student teachers’ learning prompts teachers to ask essential, yet overlooked questions: What is the purpose of my teaching? What is my students’ response to it? (Hanks, 2017a). It seems to me that the IEL has fallen into this overroutinisation due to the controlled lesson structure, i.e. pre-while-post; the fact that TEs do the same in their lesson; the focus on content coverage rather than depth, and STs’ perception of the routine. Prabhu is very critical about overroutinisation, calling it ‘an enemy of good teaching’ (Prabhu, 1990, p.174). The routine, therefore, hinders teachers’ capacity of reflection to inform their practices.
As TEs’ one-to-one support, e.g. mentoring, is not possible due to financial constraints, it appears that sustained and sustainable reflective practice would help TEs to unpack their understandings and implementation of the IEL. Such reflection would help to limit the routine to respond to student teachers’ learning within the IC restricted resources. In an ideal scenario, with more time, embedding reflective practices to TEs’ daily practices and weekly meetings would support their professional development to address emerging and standing issues regarding their practices, knowledge, and STs’ rapport.

One form of reflective practice might be exploratory talk as a group. Chick (2015, p. 299) describes it as ‘constructive engagement with each other’s ideas, a spirit of enquiry and intellectual openness, and by an atmosphere of trust’. Chick considers this reflection as one where participants can verbalise their constructions, so they can advance their understanding of the ‘teaching and learning processes while concomitantly bridging the theory-practice gap’ (Chick, 2015, p. 300). Although Chick’s research focuses on the relation between teacher educators and learner teachers, I believe that this kind of dialogue could certainly be translated into the context of teacher educators’ learning and development.

Mann and Walsh (2017) also highlight talk as a central activity to learning. Dialogic reflection, i.e. ‘bottom-up, teacher-led, collaborative process entailing interaction, discussion and debate with another professional – can lead to professional learning’ (Mann and Walsh, 2017, p.217). They suggest that dialogic reflection ‘may lead to longer-lasting professional development and can facilitate the appropriation of good practice’ (Mann and Walsh, 2017, p.203).

I believe that reflective practice can be nurtured and encouraged in the IC. In practical terms, TEs’ existing planning meetings seemed to me to be more a reactive rather than reflective response to their everyday teaching lives. Instead, these meetings could serve a two-fold purpose: a reactive one, to address pressing matters; and a reflective one, to become a space for shared, in-depth dialogue. That would help inform TEs’ teaching practices, in service of their own and their student teachers’ learning. Collegiality and trust are two of the most praiseworthy characteristics of the IEL TEs that I observed: and so they already possess an essential condition for reflection to happen. There is mutual trust built in TEs’ practices and among themselves, and with their STs.

Time for such reflection might be found by acting on some of TEs’ suggestions for improvement. I believe that adopting not-so-complex actions, such as reducing the amount of reading (quality vs quantity) and modifying the TE rotation system (weekly, monthly, per unit) would give TEs more time to meet to reflect, improve and professionally develop for the benefit of the IC as suggested by Kate. Kate’s suggestion
still aims at covering/doing the same, but without TEs having to rotate and coordinate daily as this coordination does not seem to bring major obvious advantages to student teachers’ learning. Since TEs themselves put forward these suggestions, which need to be agreed with the permanent staff, I believe it is them who would have to take the first step to transit from reactive to reflective teaching. The complex step to take, after this first step, is acting on the ‘talk’. If the talk led to only good intentions, but no actions, the reflective process would go back to square one.

8.3.2 Improving work conditions

The work conditions of the IC do not differ much from other HE institutions in Latin America (Pérez Zorrilla, 2016). Having a contract in HE institutions is usually a privilege. In my view, the IC’s most complex limitation is that it can only hire part time, non-tenured TEs, who are paid for 10 months a year. Hiring non-tenured teachers has become an extended practice in HE institutions, so teachers have started raising their voices to ask for better working conditions (Boletín Nuestra Clase, 2017; Contreras et al., 2017; Reyes and Santos, 2017), yet it is very unlikely that things will change in the near future. Hence, the permanent staff, as shown in findings, acknowledge TEs’ loyalty to the programme and are grateful for their actions, and are doing the best they can with limited resources to make TEs’ working conditions ones that will help the programme succeed.

However, being part-time gives TEs a sense of insecurity as expressed by Joe, particularly after witnessing a high turnover of TEs during the three years he taught at the programme. I believe that Joe’s [2: 5] is a very powerful statement:

I see myself as a disposable cob\textsuperscript{1} here. They can use you; they squeeze you like a lemon. I’m going to prepare something, a cup of tea, so squeeze my lemon, there, I get my juice. The day I’m not a lemon, they put me in the garbage basket.

Joe witnessed a great deal of change since he started teaching in the programme. He was uncertain of what his working conditions were going to be like, and how long he was going to be hired for. During and after the data generation, I learned that some TEs left for personal/professional reasons, some did not cope with the ongoing changes and demands that the new IC posed on them, and some found better working conditions in some other university.

Although I argue that TEs are committed to the programme, their interviews also show there is some degree of disagreement between their values and feelings and their

\textsuperscript{1} Joe refers to a corncob that is disposed after having been eaten.
commitment to the IC. The data suggests that TEs struggle to set boundaries between what they are asked for, what they are willing to do, and the implications of (not) doing or accomplishing tasks. Given that the permanent staff is aware that what they ask TEs to do goes beyond the call of duty, the data seems to reveal that institutional awareness might not be enough to provide appropriate conditions for TEs to implement the curriculum innovation and reflect on the teaching and learning process.

Bearing in mind that the IC followed an intended bottom up design, and that the IEL system was devised and implemented by TEs and the IEL coordinator, it is difficult to understand why TEs have not done something to change it to a more manageable model, as proposed above by Kate. I question to what degree TEs are independent to make their own decisions in order to lessen their workload, have more time to improve their own teaching practices, and address STs’ needs. If TEs had actual independence to make decisions on their pressing matters, e.g. daily planning and amount of reading, I believe that they would have changed the system to something more convenient and manageable. Although the data did not show it, my feeling is that there is some kind of pressure that TEs have which they did not acknowledge during the interviews. Drawing on Fullan’s concept of reculturing, the continuous changes to the programme and observed implementation, and constant TEs’ turnover may not allow TEs the time and space both to situate themselves and act at the pace that the permanent staff would like the IC to move forward. The issue of time is raised by Wedell (2011, p.284):

Sustained context sensitive effort over enough time to enable those affected to develop sufficient genuine understanding of, and confidence in, new ELT practices to make some form of these practices visible in most classrooms, is rare.

The IC was conceived as part of a wider national ELT reform. Although its design emerged as part of a bigger project, the version adopted by this particular institution took less than a year to design, and the implementation started the following year, upon approval by its university authorities. Therefore, there was little time to sit down and reflect on the implications that such a different programme for the Chilean ELT context would entail, particularly for TEs. It is therefore unsurprising that there has been little context sensitive effort over time, as Wedell puts it, to provide TEs with the support and conditions needed to do their job in a manner that meeting the IC’s expectations and aspirations.

To sum up, I would like to reflect on the impact that TEs’ experience has had on the planning and implementation processes and on student teachers, addressing my third research question. Both permanent staff and student teachers acknowledge the critical role that TEs play in the implementation of the IC inside and outside the classroom, and in the relationship that they build with student teachers.
However, having acknowledged the critical role that TEs play, the TEs’ role does not seem to have included the capacity to lessen their own workload and improve their experience in the IC. STs are aware of the TEs’ workload and the implications of the rotation system, for example, in terms of coordination among themselves. As TEs mentioned in their interviews, they aim at becoming models for STs’ future practices, yet it seems that the ones provided are not sustainable in the long run. Instead, TEs would benefit from having a more sustainable planning, teaching and reflection system in which they would dedicate more quality time to their teaching, addressing student teachers’ needs, and making the most of the existing materials. Making small changes that do not imply extra costs or complex logistics seem realistic within the institution and PRESET boundaries. In practical terms, what I suggest is not reinventing the wheel, but simplifying the teaching load in terms of quantity of content and complexity of organisation, e.g. daily rotation, in order to provide time to reflect about the quality of teaching and how to become more responsive to STs’ learning and needs, and/or incorporate more ‘structured’ language teaching into IEL.

Also, lessening TEs’ workload would foster sustainable reflective practice. Hence, teacher educators would inform the permanent staff about their classroom experience in relation to the teaching, student teachers’ rapport, and intake, for ongoing revision and modifications. Also, TEs’ professional development would be supported by taking advantage of the existing collegiality among TEs to reflect on relevant issues within their own groups. The issue of time, however, is still prevalent among TEs, and puts this suggestion at risk if it is not embedded within each individual team of TEs. The collective reflection, i.e. all TEs working in IEL instead of a particular level, could still be done at the end of the semester to assess results, and discuss feasible immediate changes. I argue that the reflections of the individual groups of TEs can provide more relevant information to the decision making of the institution, than those of the collective. Individual groups of TEs can offer a more thorough account in relation to the different year groups, raising students’ needs, and can have a direct impact on both TEs and STs’ experiences of teaching and learning in the IEL/IC.

8.4 The Integrated Curriculum, the Chilean educational context, and beyond: Lessons to be learned

As introduced in Chapter 1, the concept of an integrated curriculum was the result of multidisciplinary work by a group of universities wishing to change their curriculum to prepare better language teachers (Abrahams and Silva, 2016). Some universities have recently implemented new curricula, but less radically than the one reported on this thesis. To my knowledge, the IC, as devised by this institution, remains a unique case within the Chilean educational context, since it has dared to remove specialist modules, i.e. grammar, phonetics, (English / American / Post-colonial) culture and civilisation, and
reduce the number of literature modules in favour of the Integrated English Language module.

Barahona (2015) argues that PRESET programmes in Chile ‘are characterised by a plan that has a special focus on language, language acquisition and linguistic disciplines’ (Barahona, 2015, p.29). What Barahona points out is true for existing PRESET programmes in Chile. As a result of the rapid expansion of private universities and the unregulated HE market that emerged after 1990, in 2016, there were 93 teacher education programmes across the country, administered by 40 universities and two professional institutes (SIES, 2016). Since there are so many institutions, I doubt that there are enough qualified TEs to staff all the PRESETs, or if PRESET programmes offer professional development to their existing teaching staff.

The newness of the IC, and the challenges that have emerged during the implementation have been difficult to understand and process. This PRESET is a novelty in a national context where academics with deeply-rooted beliefs seem unable to reduce or adapt their areas of expertise according to the needs of the national context (Abrahams and Farias, 2010; Barahona, 2015). However, change and social justice are key tenets in official rhetoric, the national curriculum, the language teaching standards, and the ongoing curriculum reform (Glas, 2008; Matear, 2008; MINEDUC, 2014a; MINEDUC, 2016a; MINEDUC, 2016b). This PRESET, therefore, attempts to step aside from the norm, and try to act on the espoused values of social justice to reduce inequity in the country.

Perhaps contributing to teacher educators’ criticisms of STs’ proficiency level, the Chilean system requires English language teachers to have a C1 proficiency level. The sixth standard of national standards for teachers (MINEDUC, 2014a) reads

> the future teacher is proficient in the language structure of English and demonstrates fluency in the management of the four integrated skills at the level established in the C1 standard, which allows him to be a model for his students.

(MINEDUC, 2014a, p.29 my translation).

Based on this standard, Chile, like other Latin countries (Díaz Maggioli, 2013; Banegas, 2017), aims at both teachers and learners achieving a high standard of proficiency of English. However the last teacher proficiency evaluation was carried out in 2012, on a voluntary basis, and only 30% teachers of English met the standard, and, 58% ranged between B2 and B1 (MINEDUC, 2014b). These disappointing figures put great pressure on PRESET to raise STs’ proficiency level to meet the national goal of becoming a bilingual country by 2030 (MINEDUC, 2014c).
There is extensive debate about the language proficiency factor in ELT education (e.g. Richards, 2008; Seidlhofer, 1999; Pennington and Richards, 2016; Freeman et al., 2015; Banegas, 2009). The literature agrees that language proficiency supports teachers’ confidence, and so enables them to address wider and more diverse groups of students. More recently, Richards (2017) argued that

the present reality is that most of the world’s language teachers do not have nor need a native-like ability in their teaching language to teach their language well: they need to be able to teach with the language, which is not the same thing (Richards, 2017, p.9).

Richards advocates for teachers’ efficacy, defined as their ‘ability to effectively perform in their role as language teachers’ (Richards, 2017, p.10). Teachers’ efficacy, seen from teachers’ own perception of their proficiency, influences what they think about their own success as language teachers, i.e. the more English I know, the better teacher I am. In pre- and in-service teacher contexts, the proficiency factor would seem to influence recruitment processes at schools. To test this, I informally asked some of my former student-teachers, now teachers, what their recruitment process had been like. I was particularly interested in learning if they had been asked for a proficiency test and if the interview had been in English. Out of the 21 responses I gathered, five teachers reported to have had their interview in English, ten in Spanish, and six in both languages. With regards to the proficiency test, 18 teachers reported not to have been asked for a test, and three were required to have done it. Five of them said that the school required them having an FCE / CAE within a year should they not have it. In my own experience, I have had interviews in Spanish only when I applied for school positions. What I conclude from the above is that the proficiency factor, which is important to consider when becoming a teacher of English, seems more relevant to the universities educating teachers, to meet the ministerial requirements for newly qualified teachers, rather than to the school system hiring teachers. However, no matter what teachers’ proficiency is like, schools will still be focused on achieving high scores in high-stake examinations, such as the national SIMCE exam.

In that regard, the national teaching standards consider teachers’ English proficiency as an individual standard, which comprises teachers’ ability to teach and assess the language. Until 2014, the assessment of teacher proficiency the INICIA test (MINEDUC, 2015a) was voluntary, and was divided into four parts: language knowledge/proficiency (35%); planning of the teaching-learning of English (25%); knowledge and skills to implement the teaching-learning of English (35%) and reflection on their pedagogical practice (5%). Currently under discussion, new policies for initial and in-service teacher education contemplate the use of the standards as part of a diagnostic evaluation to be carried out by the Ministry of Education a year before graduation. This evaluation, only for newly qualified teachers, will be a requirement to graduate, but it is not an gatekeeper test, i.e. teachers will be still be able to teach at a school if they fail it.
From the above, I identify the focus on language proficiency as a face validity issue for pre-service teacher education programmes. I argue that both student teachers and teacher educators are concerned about the visible outcomes of the IC. On the one hand, student teachers are the ones who will need to perform in school contexts, and interact with peers from other educational and professional backgrounds. Once they begin teaching in real classrooms, student-teachers may be questioned, as asserted in their interviews, about their own proficiency and knowledge about the language, which could impact on their confidence in their teaching skills. Similarly teacher educators, although they do support the exit profile and IC values, focus on the proficiency that student teachers need in the Chilean context. This suggests an overall mismatch between the IC exit profile and TEs’ beliefs about what STs need.

This research looks at a pre-service teacher education programme bottom-up curriculum innovation, situated in the Chilean context, where the government sees English as a very important subject for the country and its people’s development. The educational system seems to claim for social justice, yet there is still a high focus on standardisation and high-stake evaluations that reveal great inequity among the different social groups. The IC is situated in a national context where change has been installed as an unthoughtful and reactive practice. Failure or struggle in change projects is not unusual in the Chilean context, where there is a constant urge to change, at a local and a national level. Chile constitutes a special scenario, considering the historical background of Chile, with a somehow recent transition to democracy after a 17-year-long dictatorship, including four cycles of educational reforms.

The national context incoherence seems to be reflected in the IC. My findings suggest that permanent staff, teacher educators, and student teachers interpret the IC in different ways. The permanent staff state that they are educating language teachers to become critical agents of change through working in language teaching. Teacher educators see language teaching as a means to achieve this transformation, yet their ultimate focus is on language proficiency. Student teachers see the IC narrowly, from the Integrated English language module, and most of them are not aware of the IC’s goals. I believe that, as a change project, while well intended, (at the time of data generation) failed to achieve their stated goals and aspirations. I argue that the speed of the change, the lack of forward planning and existing models, have limited the IC achievements.

As of 2014, there has been a new set of reforms where the government is aiming for education to become a social right (Bellei et al., 2015, pp.194-197). Sometimes it feels that change is promoted as a slogan, change for the sake of changing, without developing or offering an understanding of the reasons why changes are needed.
(Allwright and Hanks, 2009). Therefore, there is no or insufficient time and space given for the current ‘changes’ to grow, and mature, as actors learn, take stock, and adjust in the light of experience from there, decide what can be done about them.

The IC is trying to thrive in this incoherent national setting. The IC implementation offers several lessons to be learned and to be potentially considered by other institutions planning a similar curriculum change. In the words of Macalister et al. (2013), the essential role of teacher education programmes is to be change programmes, in order to

create dissonance between what is already known and has already been experienced and what is expected to be known and has yet to be experienced (Macalister et al., 2013, p.314).

The IC tries to challenge the existing educational paradigms in, making student teachers question their own contexts and backgrounds, and take a new perspective on the role that a language teacher has in the classroom. In my experience as a student, I never experienced leaving my comfort zone in the way the IC intends to, which I believe it seems to be the norm. I believe the IC teaching practice aims to follow the principles of pedagogy of discomfort, which is explained by Zembylas as

a teaching practice that can encourage students to move outside their ‘comfort zones’ and question their ‘cherished beliefs and assumptions’ (Boler, 1999, p.176). This approach is grounded in the assumption that discomforting feelings are important in challenging dominant beliefs, social habits and normative practices that sustain social inequities and they create openings for individual and social transformation (Zembylas, 2015, p.163).

The IC experience aims at building a strong awareness and knowledge of the local context, its social dynamics and issues to promote transformation. The IC experience, within and beyond the IEL strand, aims at shaking student-teachers’ (thinking) foundations, taking them out of their comfort zone e.g. through questioning and analysing their own identity. The IC aims to go beyond the everyday topics, found in a regular textbook by using PARSNIP (Politics, Alcohol, Religion, Sex, Narcotics, Isms, and Pork), challenging student-teachers’ and teacher educators’ beliefs. My own judgement is that this challenging of beliefs is still ongoing and has to still be fine-tuned internally and externally. Internally, this fine-tuning would have to consider the student-teachers’ entry profile, and the work that TEs are permanently undergoing to make sense of the IC goals, particularly the new TEs that join the programme. Externally, on the other hand, the basis for adjustments would come from learning from the graduates’ experiences in the school contexts, from their strengths and limitations of/with their own students, their relation with other colleagues, and the school community. With only three cohorts of graduates at the time this thesis was written, it may still be too soon to gauge
the external variables, but as more cohorts graduate, they will certainly provide rich information about how IC graduates insert into school context.

The transition that student teachers make from the school system to the IC, and then back to the school system asks the IC to pace that journey in such a way that it is manageable by both TEs and STs. I see it as a ‘slowly but surely’ shift, where student teachers’ pre-existing views of the world start interacting with the IC philosophy. This also applies for TEs who enter the IC and are coming from that ‘external’ world. Having a slower pace would give both STs and TEs time to understand both visions, acknowledge their previous and current beliefs and experiences, and eventually change their beliefs and their practices through meaningful experiences. Having a smooth transition between the world and the IC, keeping the world-ness, i.e. reality, in mind would prepare teachers to have the credibility that the school system requires, with a touch of subversiveness to make things happen differently.

I take the stand that referring to the local context involves discussing the locally generated knowledge in the classroom as aimed for by the IC. The Chilean educational system is well-known for looking for models abroad to be imitated. Chilean ELT is usually looking at English-speaking, Britain, Australasia, North American (BANA) countries. However, Chile is very lucky to have English textbooks that have been designed based on the Chilean context and are distributed to all state and semi-private schools in the country. But these textbooks are highly criticised by in-service teachers, for there are discrepancies between the textbooks, the national curriculum, and students’ proficiency levels (Venegas, 2017). I argue that, although there is a government intention to make the local textbooks meaningful, there is still a long way to go. All PRESETs teach how to design and use locally-binding materials in their methodology modules (Martin, 2016). Also, there is emerging body of literature based on the Chilean ELT context (RICELT, 2017), which could become a resource for PRESETs. While having local knowledge and materials accessible, they are not fully acknowledged or disseminated by the PRESETs to their student teachers. I am not making a specific reference to the materials used by the IEL in particular, but at a national level. I believe there is a need to value, maximise and use locally-generated knowledge for the benefit of local users to keep teacher education grounded, meaningful and well-informed. Hence, maintaining a conversation with the local knowledge, as proposed by Canagarajah (2005), raising the localness in the classroom would enhance the experience for not only all IC actors, but teacher education in general, in any context. Classroom materials and local research are a first step to bring the local to the classroom. More widely, understanding the local can expand the understanding of the world, envisaging wider networks and new perspectives of emerging issues within one’s community, city, country and beyond, benefitting the country, its needs, the teacher education institutions, and in the case of the IC, its graduates’ future learners.
To sum up, I return to the fourth research question which bonds the Chilean educational context and the organization and content of the IC. This research has indicated that the context plays an important role in the discussion that TEs and STs have in the IEL classroom. In practical terms, there is an intention to address emerging issues in the school context and the local society. However, this curricular innovation clashes with the visible and invisible layers of reality. It is not only the context of materials or assessment, but the assumptions, expectations and attitudes that contribute to the mismatch with reality. The change of paradigm of language teaching and educational values competes with a non-changed educational system that quick absorbs newly qualified teachers (see Ávalos, 2009; Vaillant, 2010; Tagle Ochoa et al., 2017a; Geeregat Vera et al., 2016; Farrell, 2003; Farrell, 2016). This research shows that the IC is under an ongoing revision of the Chilean educational context, and trying to adapt and operationalise a change of paradigm. Both TEs and STs are aware that the school contexts play a critical role in their IC, and that the gap between universities and schools need to be narrowed (Barahona, 2017). Learning from the experience of both IC graduates and employers will be critical to understand and revisit the programmes’ decision making, so the whole IC community can embark on an informed, reflective, and grounded process of decision-making to keep improving the programme.

8.5 And so?

In this chapter, I have unpacked teacher education curriculum change in the IC in the Chilean educational context. By analysing the interviews and classroom observations in relation to the educational context, this study’s main findings can be divided into four areas, as detailed as follows:

- Teacher educators’ perspectives of innovation:

  The IC’s curricular integration implies to knowledge about: linguistics, the Chilean educational context, and subjects.

  TEs’ support, understood as shadowing more experienced TEs, appears not to be enough to provide a comprehensive understanding of the IC.

  TEs, therefore, feel unprepared to teach all the expected topics and knowledge(s) in the IEL strand.

  The information flows from the IEL towards the other strands, rather than bi-directionally.

  There seems to be an awareness-raising about what being a teacher of teachers is, yet there is still some uncertainty about meeting governmental standards in initial teacher education.

- Teacher educators in the IEL classroom

  TEs agree that that the existing working system puts an unnecessary pressure on them to cover contents.
The teaching of language appears to react to student teachers’ emerging needs in the classroom. There appears to be an imbalance between teaching reading and developing critical literacy when developing language proficiency skills. IEL lessons are over-routinized, demotivating student teachers, and limiting TEs’ scope for acting on STs’ emerging needs in the classroom.

- Influence of TEs’ practices on the IC’s decision-making and on STs.

TEs’ experience in the IEL strand is acknowledged by the permanent staff, yet there have not been significant improvements to their work conditions, i.e. time and support.

STs perceive the integrated curriculum as the IEL rather than as a whole. The collaboration between STs and TEs has been a learning experience: it responds to the programme’s views on critical pedagogy. However, change is still at a superficial level, that could be implemented in deeper layers, e.g. through a systematic evaluation of the programme, and evidencing learning to meet governmental standards of initial teacher education.

STs’ collaboration could be progressively increased as they transit through the programme, as part of the permanent reculturing that the programme experiments.

- Relation of the IC with the educational context

The IC is a programme that embraces social justice and change to address the high levels of inequality in the country (OECD, 2017). There are some discrepancies between the educational context and the IC’s expectations, including what schools expect from teachers of English.

Some changes that could be made in the context of this case study are:

- Promoting reflective practice as an embedded practice in TEs’ routines, would imply making smaller changes to the rotation and planning system, so reflection becomes a sustainable practice.

- Taking advantage of the existing collegiality and trust among TEs to promote reflective practices

- Acknowledging TEs’ and STs’ experiences on the existing rotation model. By rotating once a week or after every unit / topic, would have the same ‘variety’ impact on STs, without compromising the delivery of contents or needing extra resources.

- Promoting a closer relationship between the Chilean educational context and the IC by learning from the graduates’ and employers’ experiences; similarly, providing a stronger scaffolding process for STs to transit from and to the school context.

- Valuing, promoting and using the locally generated research on the Chilean ELT context to inform TEs’ practices and decision-making.
In this research, I have considered the perspectives of all the IC actors, with particular attention to TEs as they are the enablers, and to student teachers, as receivers. Their views and experiences have offered rich insights to have a clearer view of the state of the IC implementation.

This research focuses on the Integrated English Language strand since it represents most of the teaching hours and number of TEs working in the Integrated Curriculum. Unsurprisingly, this strand is of utmost relevance for this programme, despite the criticisms presented above, it is the main means for STs to become English language teachers.

This programme is called Integrated Curriculum, and is composed of the IEL, education, practicum and methodology/reflective workshop strands. Vertical curricular integration, i.e. among the different curricular strands seems still to be work in progress, mainly due to time, budget and communication reasons. At the time of the data generation, May to July 2015, there had been only one graduate cohort, and at the time of submitting this thesis, three cohorts will have finished, and the IC will be on its sixth iteration.

Complex curriculum change takes time. Hence, this research aims to contribute to the reflection on the implementation of the curriculum, and to suggest possible adjustments that need to be considered to achieve the aims, amidst a national educational reform. Apart from time, the funding of curricular changes has to be considered, particularly in the current economic climate. The curriculum designers have been juggling to innovate with no or little resources. They cannot expect to get anything additional from the outside world to help carry out their project, beyond the commitment from the people they work with. Making a curriculum change of this magnitude fuelled by little more than strong will power is remarkable.

My thesis positions the IC as a teacher education programme, aiming at educating proficient English language teachers, who pursue reducing inequality in the Chilean school system. I position myself from a teacher educator point of view, and I advocate for them, as the enactors of a complex curriculum change, who have had to experience a roller-coaster process of constant changes, adjustments, and rediscovering. I acknowledge their teaching journey, and hope it becomes more fully acknowledged in future IC decision-making to ease their workload. I refer to the permanent staff who designed and initiated this change, from their need to do something to address the inequality and the need for social justice in the Chilean educational system. Most importantly, I look at the student teachers, who will become English language teachers as they make the transition from and to the school system, previously, as students and, after the IC, as teachers.
In the following chapter, I recap my research aims, the methodology, and contributions of this study. Further, I explore the implications for curriculum change as well as offering some suggestions for future research. I conclude with research limitations and some final remarks.
Chapter 9 Conclusions

9.1 Introduction
My aim in this final chapter is to highlight the contributions of this study to curriculum change and teacher education. I first present the contributions of this research by exploring the implications of change in different areas of teacher education and the integrated curriculum. I then analyse the limitations of this study poses, followed by some suggestions for further research. I then refer to the changing nature of the Chilean context, and report an update about where the IC is now. I conclude this chapter with some final thoughts about curriculum change and education.

9.2 Contributions of the study
This study has offered some important insights into different dimensions of teacher education and curriculum change. I explore these in this section.

9.2.1 Implications for teacher education and curriculum change
The IC as such is an ambitious, yet laudable project. It is a daring, and one-of-its-kind innovation project. With little or no resources, this institution made a brave attempt to radically change language teacher education to something strongly based on social justice and critical pedagogy.

I argue that the IC is still a new project, and that since it has only completed three iterations at the time of submitting this thesis, it is still far from being fully institutionalised (Fullan, 2007). The actual implications for understandings of language teacher education and curriculum change are still to be learned, through the follow up of the IC graduates in the years to come. Regardless, this research has provided valuable insights of change from the TEs’ perspective. From the data, I interpret that TEs’ focus is still on the tangible layers of the IC, i.e. language proficiency over the transformative dimension of becoming a teacher. This suggests that the face validity that language proficiency has externally prevailed as an imperative factor on which PRESETs are externally assessed –mainly by other in-service teachers, other universities, and high-stake examinations. Likewise, language proficiency, as a dimension, hinders the transformative values embedded in the exit profile, as the agent-of-change discourse dilutes as student teachers approach their graduation.
9.2.2 The practicalities of integration

Implementing the IC which embraces such wide variety of topics, and contents is an incredibly complex task. This research demonstrates how difficult the curriculum integration is. Integration within the IEL, and among all curricular strands is indeed one of the most ambitious features of the IC. In the IEL, student teachers have to learn English, about English, and other contents included in the reading materials. The focus is ambitious: learning how to speak/use a language (at a proficient level), about the language (because it is the subject area, and to inform methodological decisions), and also how to teach it.

In their daily experience, STs have perceived that the attempts to integrate contents among the strands results in overlapping, making it repetitive, instead of offering multiple perspectives of the same topic. On paper, the content integration seems to be a great idea, but the practical implications of this feature have not yet succeeded as intended. This particular area needs some revision, including the actual feasibility of it along the five years of the PRESET with the limited TEs available.

9.2.3 Teacher educators

The IC implementation has been informed through TEs’ experiences inside and outside the classroom. There is little research on TEs as curriculum implementers. Their journey in the IC has advised that there is a need to provide support before and while TEs experience change. Since they bear the responsibility of teaching future teachers, TEs’ work will influence the work of others exponentially. Therefore, the way the TEs interpret the IC and its values, and make sense of their own cognitions has a direct impact on every single student teacher.

TEs’ experience is one of the strongest contributions of this thesis. Their experience has documented how change takes place inside and outside the classroom in pre-service teacher education, and how their work has been influenced by the exit profile and the educational context. Their role as mediators and enactors of the innovation proves it to be challenging, and expects TEs to constantly adapt to new situations.

Agreeing with the literature, lack of time emerges as a critical factor in different areas: the complete planning process, the implementation in the classroom, the constant adjustments to the daily planning, the amount of time spent reading and understanding the teaching materials leaves very little time for reflection and actions.

To the same extent, teacher educators’ lack of preparedness for the IC and the contents that they need to teach emerged frequently in the data. One of the big tests, then, is preparing TEs to teach those topics that the IC is covering in its lessons. The IC
combines a series of language teaching approaches, but in practical terms, it is based on ideas from CLIL and TBA. This research has evidenced that the CLIL dimension of the IEL is the most challenging one due to the broad variety of topics it covers. CLIL has been partially implemented due to the imbalance of the content and language dimension. Although it seems ideal for the IEL, the way it has been conceived and enacted has been problematic. Moreover, topics are not necessarily part of TEs’ own interest or previous knowledge, in addition to knowing the linguistic content that has also been integrated to the IEL strand. Programmes considering curriculum change and content integration should bear in mind how TEs get prepared to teach those contents, how long this preparation would take, and what resources and support can be offered, not only during the planning stage, but also during the actual teaching.

9.2.4 Student teachers

This study has contributed to the curriculum change literature since there is scarce research that involves student teachers’ voices in pre-service teacher education curriculum change.

The involvement of student teachers has been through suggesting topics for the IEL strand. I believe that their involvement needs to be more informed, so it could be planned in a more sequenced, progressive way as they experience the IC from the different curricular strands. As they gain more knowledge and experience in education and teaching, they would be better prepared to make more feasible and informed contributions to their own learning (and teaching) process. As Claxton (2004) poses, this learnacy experience, learning to learn, resembles STs’ future planning and teaching experiences, e.g. at a school. I found that the intention of giving student teachers a voice is still superficial, reflected in one-off instances with little or no follow up.

Student teachers’ reaction to materials also provide valuable information about the chosen readings for the IEL strand. STs indicated their demotivation about reading, and showed a preference to read fewer texts, prioritising quality over quantity. Their reflection advises the priority that the IEL strand is given by STs over the other strands. Materials need to be more significant, representative, explored at the fullest, both from the content and language teaching perspective, and related to STs’ previous and current knowledge and experiences.

9.3 Significance of this research

This research is situated in the Chilean educational context, particularly into initial language teacher education. However, the experience of the IC can be translated to other contexts that are contemplating change.
9.3.1 The IC and other HE contexts in Chile

The IC’s experience agrees with the other contexts experiencing educational change. The need of time and support before and while implementing change remain strong. Supporting the key players is critical to make change be sustainable and successful over time.

9.3.2 Integrated language teacher education curricula

Integrated teacher education curricula appear to be a fascinating proposal for initial teacher education. The IC experience has shown that it is a daring programme that has been driven by good will, and with no previous models to draw on. As such, the provision of any similar integrated teacher education curriculum is also likely be a trial and error experience.

On paper, integrated language teacher education seems to be a collaborative and enhancing journey for all those involved in it. However, the practicalities of it, as shown in this research, are complex and ever-evolving, which requires a great degree of adaptability and resilience. As shown by Paran (2013), in the context of content and language integration, there are a series of factors that need to be met to have a successful implementation of CLIL. Considering CLIL as a model of integration, it appears that curricular integration requires the same amount of coordination, knowledge and expertise to be as successful as it is intended.

9.3.3 Role, dominance and hegemony of English in globalisation

The local historical, political, social, cultural, and educational contexts play an important role in situating English in the Chilean context. English became the only compulsory foreign language taught as a result of 1998’s educational reform. The government sees English as a language for economic development and internationalisation.

Although this research does not address English in the context of globalisation, it does raise issues of identity by actively highlighting how the IEL context is at least partly based around topics of STs’ interest and does not use commercial textbooks. Somehow implicitly, there is a sense of the IC decolonising English (Kumaravadivelu, 2016) through taking responsibility for its own decisions about which texts to use for teaching purposes.
9.3.4 Participatory pedagogy

The IC is inspired by the values of social justice and critical education. Their approach of enacting participatory pedagogy can be seen in their attempts to include STs in their decision-making process in the IEL strand. There are good intentions behind student teacher involvement when conceived as emancipatory education. Other higher educational contexts can learn from this experience by considering students’ involvement that provides clear guidelines and an induction for STs to organise among themselves, and then, collaborate with TEs. Therefore, the outcomes of including students’ voices in the decision making provides STs with a coherent, significant and memorable experience as part of their educational journey.

9.3.5 The disconnect between teacher education and future practice

Although there is an intention to refer to the Chilean educational context as part of the IC, the practicalities of narrowing the gap between teacher education and future practices are still present (Barahona, 2015). This research has strongly suggested that using, valuing and disseminating local research as subject content can lead to research-informed teaching and learning. Similarly, TEs need to actively look for teaching, learning, and researching opportunities to have an up-to-date knowledge of the school context and the ever-changing policies for schools and teacher education programmes.

9.4 A never-ending change

As mentioned in the discussion chapter, Chile is a country that is facing never ending changes. In ELT, at a national level, the national standards are being revised and will be published during the first half of 2018. PRESET programmes have been adapting to the standards published in 2014, and they will soon have to re-adapt to the new ones coming.

At school level, SIMCE, as the national high-stake examination is also being revised. After three iterations, using two different test instruments, a new test will be used, designed by an external agency to the Ministry of Education, and it will be a sample test instead of a national examination, every three years. It is known that high-stake examinations put a lot of pressure on school teachers, and schools tend to teach ‘for the exam’. I am unaware about how PRESETs teach about high-stake examinations as part of their curricula, or how in-service teachers learn about these instruments.

In 2018, there will be a new government in office, this time right wing. There will surely be new governmental measures in education, which will impact pre- and in-service teacher education, and the practices at school. This is a vicious circle: there may be changes to what has already been discussed by the current government, which may imply undoing what has been done at schools, affecting what PRESETs are doing.
9.5 Where is the integrated curriculum now?

As a result of writing a book chapter proposal, I got in touch with Dave, the only TE that is still working at the IC since my data generation. From our conversation, he updated me about some of the changes that the IEL has experienced since my data generation. He kindly agreed to allow me to include them in my thesis.

The main changes in the IEL strand have been related to the lesson structure, materials, and assessment. The lesson structure is the same, i.e. it still follows pre-while-post format. However, there is now one reading per week which is discussed in depth. Each TE plans a whole week of lessons, instead of individual lessons every day. Although they still rotate on a daily basis, they use the same planning made by one single TE, so there are fewer daily adjustments.

TEs feel there is much more autonomy in their decision making. The new IEL coordinator supports TEs' decisions, and things are more TE-led than before. Due to the changes in the planning system, there is less dependence on the use of WhatsApp to communicate immediate decisions.

Language teaching has now become part of the IEL lessons. TEs realised that there was no clear sequencing of the objectives being taught. Grammar is now integrated in the teaching of each class, yet it is still a complex issue. It stills depends on each TE. Dave is still unsure what the grammar contents are, and the impact that the grammar teaching is few and far between. At the beginning of first year, there is now a grammar-in-use baseline test to determine STs’ previous grammar knowledge, which is now advising what contents need attention in relation to STs’ level.

The discussion about proficiency is still present. Some practicum schools have complained due to the low proficiency level of some student teachers. As a result, the actions that IEL 9 was doing to address proficiency as a sort of remedial module are trying to be incorporated to the whole IEL strand. Likewise, at the end of each year, a standardised test from the Cambridge examination battery is being used as an instrument to assess student learners’ progress in the language.

Reflective practices are still scarce, considering all the TEs involved in the IEL strand. Once a semester, there is still a meeting to look back at the semester event and make suggestions and decisions. However, each TE team meets more autonomously, to plan and think what is going on to prevent reactive decisions, but promote more thought-through actions.
Student teachers’ suggestions are now intended to be solicited once a year only, so teacher educators have more time to choose among the suggested topics, and plan accordingly. Suggestions have been limited to one topic per semester. The procedure is still similar: Student teachers and teacher educators meet at the end of the year, and brainstorm and decide together, so the chosen topics become part of an informed, known, and shared decision. Although the decision-making model has changed, it seems that it still follows a one-off instance rather than a systematic collaboration between STs and TEs.

I believe that these changes favour TEs’ quality of life and they seem to have acknowledged TEs’ experiences in the past years. I am pleased to hear that the conditions for TEs have improved two years after my data generation, and that TEs have rethought what the purpose of the IEL is in light of their trial and error process. I am sure that more changes will be put in place as time goes by.

9.6 Limitations of the study

This study has provided important insights in understanding curriculum change in the context of a pre-service language teacher education programme in Chile. However, there were some limitations which needs to be considered when reading and considering the implications and suggestions of this present study.

As a case study, my sample looks at a single PRESET programme in Santiago, the capital of Chile. In the Chilean context, this programme is the first of its kind. Therefore, the sample size is small. My particular interest in the Integrated English Language strand, and having four TEs on that strand, makes the focus of this research very specific. My intention in doing this research is to understand and inform the complexities of curriculum change in such challenging context, with no model to base their design or implementation on. Therefore, this experience expects that other educational programmes of any kind, and in any context, can inform their decision making based on the implementers' learnings.

My data generation was extremely complex, as reported on 4.6. I acknowledge that the data generation is a snapshot of a particular moment of time and place. Had I done my data generation a month earlier would have been probably less problematic, as the strike had not started yet. However, 2015 was a particularly complex year for the IC and the institution in general. After the strike finished, that second semester was problematic. The fire restricted the use of the second busiest classroom building. Many lessons were replaced by online tutoring since there were not enough classrooms to hold lecturers for all BA programmes at the university. Additionally, right after the start of that second semester, Joe was admitted into hospital and never returned to teach.
TEs had to adjust their schedules to cover his lessons for the whole semester. After he passed away in October 2015, all the IC community was deeply affected. All in all, 2015 was a particularly complex year for the IC.

The IC is a programme that has changed rapidly. I believe that another limitation is the scarce updates I managed to obtain after I completed the data generation. I am aware that I did not succeed to keep in touch with the IC community as often as I would have liked, and that affected my member checking process. Although I did send interview transcripts and conference presentations, I did not receive further comments on my data analysis. Therefore, I did not stay in the know about the adjustments made to the IC after I completed my data generation. I only had informal conversations with the head of department and one of my participants, to whom I am deeply grateful.

9.7 Further research

This research opens the door to different areas of further research. First of all, further investigation is needed to understand the actual relation among all the different strands and their TEs under the current conditions. I believe that gaining some additional insights about the integration not only in one strand, as presented in this thesis, but as the whole IC, would help unpack the actual meaning and state of the integration from multiple perspectives.

Another area for investigation is the nature of TEs’ work dynamics. First, the literature rarely refers to teacher rotation in the way it is understood by the IEL. I only found two studies that discuss this and their focus is on students’ results rather than on the implications for teachers (Engen et al., 1967; Schmelkes, 2008). Likewise, to my knowledge, no studies have explored teacher-teacher interaction using WhatsApp, and future research is needed to what extent teacher practices are improved by its use.

In terms of academic reading and its contents, to my knowledge, there are no studies that support the use of academic readings in the learning of EFL in the manner in which the Integrated English Language strand views their use. Further research is needed to understand the impact of reading in the way the IEL approaches it. Also, although there is some research about personal content knowledge, there is limited research on how much content teachers know, as Paran (2013) puts it, in the contexts using CLIL.

In wider terms, I believe that the IC graduates need to have a systematic follow up, maybe in a longitudinal study. This would provide information and updated understandings of their involvement in the school system in regards to the knowledge learned and their belief system, particularly after a few years of their graduation. Also, it
would be interesting to understand if or to what extent they have applied a participatory teaching approach in their educational settings.

9.8 Final thoughts

I strongly believe that the IC is a programme that can make a difference in the way language teachers are educated and how they will work in the school classrooms. It is not only being language proficient but having good language teachers, as defined by the head of department (see p. 112 for [HELT: 1]) i.e. that through language teaching can make a different in their students’ lives. Costa and Norton (2017) discuss the issue of what being a good language teacher means, and it is a complex task, since there are many overlapping perspectives on this matter, such as teachers’ identity (Ponte and Higgins, 2015; Tsui, 2007), language socialisation (Wenger, 2000), teachers’ emotions (Kramsch, 2014), teachers’ agency (Atkinson et al., 2016), among others. The context factor also highly influences the definition of what a good teacher it. As Wedell and Malderez (2013) state, describing a context is an impossible task due to its dynamic nature, changing by day, week, or year.

I believe that emancipatory education is necessary in a national and international context that is continually facing reforms, corruption and havoc to different extents. Chile is seen, to some extent, as a safe and politically stable country in Latin America. However, while Chilean people are standing for their rights on the streets joining demonstrations, the number of voters has plummeted in the last few elections. Language teachers that can embed the values of commitment, citizenship and become actual agents of change is an aspirational aim. It would be naïve to think that all IC graduates would become that teacher described on the exit profile. The graduates, again, are the ones to search for their own teaching contexts, and within its strengths and limitations, have to look at the means to make that difference. At the IC level, I call for having a closer connection with the school context from the TEs’ point of view, not only the practicum supervisors, but all of them. I am aware that this would be ideal, yet currently unrealistic under the circumstances reported in this thesis. If only TEs and the permanent staff had first-person recent classroom teaching experience, it would give them more of a voice, and would inform their teaching practices and decisions as to what the Chilean school system needs. However, for the time being, it is more realistic to think that some of the graduates will be able to make a difference in their own language classrooms, and that is where change starts.
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### Appendix 1. The Integrated Curriculum (2011-to date)

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<td>IV: Assessment for learning</td>
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## Appendix 2. IEL syllabi – Academic Year 2015

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Module</th>
<th>Listening</th>
<th>Reading</th>
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</thead>
</table>
| IEL 1  | a. identify specific information in familiar contexts;  
|        | b. identify the main message of simple short oral texts in familiar contexts | a. identify specific information stated in a text;  
|        |                                                                           | b. identify the main ideas explicitly stated in a text;  
|        |                                                                           | c. organize and classify information from a text. |
| IEL 2  | a. identify specific information in familiar contexts,  
|        | b. identify the main message of simple short oral texts in familiar contexts | a. Reading: a. identify specific information stated in the text  
|        |                                                                           | b. identify the main ideas explicitly stated in the text  
|        |                                                                           | c. organize and classify information from the text |
| IEL 3  | a. identify specific information in contexts of their interest  
|        | b. identify the main message of text in contexts of their interest        | a. identify specific information suggested in the text  
|        |                                                                           | b. identify the main ideas even if they are not explicitly stated |
| IEL 4  | a. identify specific information in contexts of their interest  
|        | b. identify the main message of text in contexts of their interest        | a. identify specific information suggested in the text  
|        |                                                                           | b. identify the main ideas even if they are not explicitly stated |
| IEL 5  | a. identify specific information in specific contexts,  
|        | b. identify the main longer stretches of message corresponding to academic situations. | a. Identify author’s intention stated in the text,  
|        |                                                                           | b. Infer different types of messages from academic texts |
| IEL 6  | a. identify specific information in specific contexts,  
|        | b. identify the main longer stretches of message corresponding to academic situations. | a. Identify author’s intention stated in the text,  
|        |                                                                           | b. Infer different types of messages from academic texts |
| IEL 7  | a. listen for explicit and implicit details on course topics  
|        | b. listen for general information on course topics                         |                                                                         |
| IEL 8  | a. identify specific information in specific contexts.  
|        | b. identify the main longer stretches of message corresponding to academic situations. | a. Identify author’s intention stated in the text.  
<p>|        |                                                                           | b. Infer different types of messages from academic texts |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Module</th>
<th>Speaking</th>
<th>Writing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IEL 1</td>
<td>a. exchange oral information applying known models to communicate within specific, concrete, and familiar situations; b. request information and answer questions based on familiar topics; c. use a general pronunciation which does not interfere with communication; d. use accurately the English sounds studied in the course.</td>
<td>a. Write a series of short sentences and phrases linked with basic coordinating conjunctions about familiar topics and the course topics; b. use basic punctuation (frequent uses of commas, full stops / periods, exclamation marks and question marks) correctly; c. be able to peer and self-edit a written text.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IEL 2</td>
<td>a. exchange oral information applying known models to face specific, concrete and familiar situations b. request information and answer questions based on familiar topics c. use a general pronunciation which does not interfere with communication d. use accurately the English sounds studied in the course</td>
<td>a. write a series of short sentences and phrases linked with basic coordinating conjunctions about familiar topics and the topics of the course b. use basic punctuation (frequent uses of commas, full stops / periods, exclamation marks and question marks) correctly.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IEL 3</td>
<td>a. exchange oral information in familiar situations b. express ideas coherently using language that is appropriate to the context c. use a general pronunciation which enhances communication d. use accurately the English sound studied in the course</td>
<td>a. write simple and complex sentences with the correct punctuation. b. write paragraphs simple short well—structured paragraphs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IEL 4</td>
<td>a. exchange oral information in familiar situations b. express ideas coherently using language that is appropriate to the context c. use a general pronunciation which enhances communication d. use accurately the English sound studied in the course</td>
<td>a. write simple and complex sentences with the correct punctuation. b. write paragraphs simple short well-structured paragraphs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IEL 5</td>
<td>a. produce longer stretches of speech respecting elementary elements of sounds and prosody. b. give orally explanations and providing arguments in conversations or other instances of oral discussion.</td>
<td>a. write a variety of sentences linked with linking words b. use basic mechanics (frequent uses of commas, full stops / periods, exclamation marks and question marks) correctly.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IEL 6</td>
<td>a. produce longer stretches of speech respecting elementary elements of sounds and prosody. b. give orally explanations and providing arguments in conversations or other instances of oral discussion.</td>
<td>a. write a non-canonical variety of sentence types linked with linking words b. use basic mechanics (frequent uses of commas, full stops / periods, exclamation marks and question marks) correctly.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IEL 7</td>
<td>a. speak clearly using appropriate intonation a stress b. speak clearly and interact with others in group and class discussions using appropriate discourse markers and range of vocabulary on course topics</td>
<td>a. write an academic essay using appropriate format and referencing conventions b. write a problem solution essay</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IEL 8</td>
<td>a. produce longer stretches of speech respecting elementary elements of sounds and prosody. b. give oral explanations and provide arguments in conversations or other instances of oral discussion.</td>
<td>a. write a variety of sentences linked with linking words. b. use basic mechanics (frequent uses of commas, full stops / periods, exclamation marks and question marks) correctly.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Module</td>
<td>Pronunciation</td>
<td>Lexico-grammar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
| IEL 1  | a. identify and produce accurately the English sounds covered during the course;  
       b. understand the relevance of pronunciation as a key language component for successful communication;  
       c. read a simple sample of a transcribed text. | a. Identify, understand and use content words (verbs, adjectives, nouns and adverbs) within the context of the course topics.  
       b. |
| IEL 2  | a. identify the English sounds of the course.  
       b. (re)produce accurately the target English sounds.  
       c. understand the relevance of pronunciation as a key language component for successful communication.  
       d. read a simple sample of a transcribed text. | a. identify word types  
       b. understand the semantic level of the words and structures  
       c. use content words (verbs, adjectives, nouns and adverbs) in the context of the topics of the course |
| IEL 3  | a. identify and produce accurately the English sounds of the course.  
       b. understand the relevance of pronunciation as a key language component for successful communication.  
       c. read a simple sample of a transcribed text. | a. use correct word order.  
       b. use correct tenses, adverbs and adjectives. |
| IEL 4  | a. identify and produce the following English sounds: /dʒ, ʃ, ʃ/, long vowels, /ɪə/ in  
       b. -ing verbs, Basic tones: Fall - Rise / \, / in Wh-questions  
       c. understand the relevance of pronunciation as a key language component for successful communication, read a simple sample of a transcribed text | a. use correct word order  
       b. use correct tenses, adverbs and adjectives |
| IEL 5  | a. recognise and utter specific sounds and intonational patterns.  
       b. Know concepts and terminology to identify prosodic features. | a. analyse syntactically structural patterns of a series of sentence types  
       b. identify parts of the sentence |
| IEL 6  | a. analyse syntactically structural patterns of a series of sentence types in texts.  
       b. identify parts of the sentence | a. appreciate the value of reading literary pieces by linking their content to personal experiences  
       b. social and cultural trends  
       c. Identify literary elements such as character, plot, setting |
| IEL 7  | a. pronounce target sounds clearly  
       b. use appropriate intonation and stress | a. use the appropriate lexical and syntactical items in written and oral texts related to the course topics including:  
       Narrative tenses for experience, incl. passive, passive forms, all Phrasal verbs, especially splitting; Wish/if only regrets |
| IEL 8  | a. recognise and utter specific sounds and intonational patterns.  
       b. Know concepts and terminology to identify prosodic features. | a. analyse syntactically structural patterns of a series of sentence types.  
       b. identify parts of the sentence. |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Module</th>
<th>Literature</th>
<th>Critical thinking</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| IEL 1  | a. Appreciate the value of reading literary pieces by linking their content to personal experiences, social and cultural trends;  
         b. understand the connection between literary work and the context within which it was created | a. Distinguish facts from opinions on course topics;  
         b. relate course contents to personal experiences, social and cultural trends. |
| IEL 2  | a. appreciate the value of reading literary pieces by linking their content to personal experiences, social and cultural trends  
         b. understand the connection of literary work with the context where it was created | a. distinguish facts from opinions on topics of the course  
         b. relate course contents to personal experiences, social and cultural trends |
| IEL 3  | a. appreciate the value of reading literary pieces by linking their content to personal experiences, social and cultural trends  
         b. understand the connection of literary work with the context where it was created | a. observe reality from several points of view  
         b. relate course contents to personal experiences, social and cultural trends |
| IEL 4  | a. appreciate the value of reading literary pieces by linking their content to personal experiences, social and cultural trends  
         b. understand the connection of literary work with the context where it was created | a. observe reality from several points of view  
         b. relate course contents to personal experiences, social and cultural trends |
| IEL 5  | a. appreciate the value of reading literary pieces by linking their content to personal experiences, social and cultural trends  
         b. Identify literary elements such as character, plot, setting | a. distinguish facts from opinions on topics of the course  
         b. relate course contents to personal experiences, social and cultural trends |
| IEL 6  | a. appreciate the value of reading literary pieces by linking their content to personal experiences, social and cultural trends  
         b. Identify literary elements such as character, plot, setting | a. distinguish facts from opinions on topics of the course  
         b. relate course contents to personal experiences, social and cultural trends |
| IEL 7  | | a. read a range of academic texts critically  
         b. write an academic essay using logical argument based on reading of academic texts. |
| IEL 8  | a. appreciate the value of reading literary pieces by linking their content to personal experiences, social and cultural trends.  
         b. Identify literary elements such as character, plot, setting, etc. | a. in relation to topics covered within the course; distinguish facts from opinions, support opinions with logic, academic texts and/or references.  
         b. relate course contents to personal experiences, social and cultural trends. |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Module</th>
<th>Social skills</th>
<th>ICTs</th>
<th>Pedagogical reflection</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IEL 1</td>
<td>a. Develop the ability to cope with mistakes so that they do not limit opportunities to communicate with others in English; b. develop the capacity to successfully contribute to the achievement of a collective objective; c. develop the capacity to conscientiously carry out individual tasks.</td>
<td>a. Make efficient and autonomous use of technology as a means to enhance individual and collective learning opportunities.</td>
<td>a. Develop a personal opinion on the effectiveness of the language learning activities carried out in the course based on a factual description of activities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IEL 2</td>
<td>a. develop the ability to cope with mistakes so that they do not limit opportunities to communicate with others in English b. develop the capacity to successfully contribute to the achievement of a collective objective c. develop the capacity to conscientiously carry out an individual task.</td>
<td>a. make efficient and autonomous use of technology as a means to enhance learning opportunities individually and collectively.</td>
<td>a. develop a personal opinion on the effectiveness of the language learning activities carried out in the course based on factual description of activities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IEL 3</td>
<td>a. interact with other students sharing ideas b. cooperate in team and group activities.</td>
<td>a. use ICT to assist learning; reading comprehension, listening, speaking and writing b. use ICT to present projects: PowerPoint, and videos</td>
<td>a. develop a personal opinion on the effectiveness of the language learning activities carried out in the course based on factual description of activities b. develop confidence speaking and presenting in front of others c. project voice and use gestures to assist communication</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| IEL 4 | a. interact with other students sharing ideas  
b. cooperate in team and group activities | c. make efficient use of technology as a means to enhance learning opportunities individually, collectively, guided or autonomously | a. develop a personal opinion on the effectiveness of the language learning activities carried out in the course based on factual description of activities  
b. develop confidence speaking and presenting in front of others  
c. project voice and use gestures to assist communication |
| IEL 5 | a. respect and value other’s opinions on topics of the course and understands the importance of critical discussions  
b. relate course contents to personal experiences, social and cultural trends autonomously | a. make efficient and autonomous use of technology as a means to enhance learning opportunities individually and collectively | a. make efficient and autonomous use of technology as a means to enhance learning opportunities individually and collectively |
| IEL 6 | a. respect and value other’s opinions on topics of the course and understands the importance of critical discussions  
b. relate course contents to personal experiences, social and cultural trends autonomously | a. make efficient and autonomous use of technology as a means to enhance learning opportunities individually and collectively | a. make efficient and autonomous use of technology as a means to enhance learning opportunities individually and collectively |
| IEL 7 | a. work in teams respecting others  
b. use language which is appropriate in a professional teaching environment  
c. show self-confidence and assertiveness  
d. show a self-critical and autonomous attitude | a. make efficient use of technology as a means to enhance learning opportunities individually, collectively, guided or autonomously | a. reflect on the effectiveness of the language learning activities carried out in class |
| IEL 8 | a. respect and value difference, understands the importance of critical discussions  
b. relate course contents to personal experiences, social and cultural trends autonomously | a. make efficient and autonomous use of technology as a means to enhance learning opportunities individually and collectively | a. make efficient and autonomous use of technology as a means to enhance learning opportunities individually and collectively. |
IEL 9 - Objectives

Professional and Academic Competencies

By the end of this course, participants will:
- have gained expertise, awareness and a critical attitude towards their teaching skills;
- be able to gain expertise in action research phases.

Language Skills

By the end of this course, participants will be able to:
- understand a wide range of demanding, longer texts, and recognize implicit meaning;
- express themselves fluently and spontaneously without much obvious searching for expressions;
- use language flexibly and effectively for social, academic and professional purposes;
- produce clear, well-structured, detailed texts on complex subjects, showing controlled use of organizational patterns, connectors and cohesive devices.

(Source: Common European Framework for Languages, C1 general descriptors/ Effective Operational Proficiency or Advanced)

Unit topics

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Module</th>
<th>Content</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IEL 1</td>
<td>• Identity</td>
<td>IEL 6</td>
<td>• Inclusive Education</td>
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<td>• Culture</td>
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<td>• Literature and films as tools for EFL</td>
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<td>• Education in Chile</td>
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<td>• Research methods:</td>
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<tr>
<td>IEL 2</td>
<td>• Citizenship</td>
<td>IEL 7</td>
<td>• Alternative pedagogies</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Sociolinguistics</td>
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<td>• Ethics and Professionalism</td>
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<td>• Current approaches to Religion</td>
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<td>• Terrorism</td>
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<tr>
<td>IEL 3</td>
<td>• Critical thinking</td>
<td>IEL 8</td>
<td>• Storytelling in the EFL Classroom</td>
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<td>• Cinema and beliefs</td>
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<td>• Introduction to Action Research</td>
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<td>• Language and power</td>
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<td>• Mythology</td>
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<tr>
<td>IEL 4</td>
<td>• World Englishs</td>
<td>IEL 9</td>
<td>• Action Research: what it is and how it works, formats.</td>
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<td>• Teenage issues in the EFL classroom</td>
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<td>• English Language accuracy and fluency at C1 level.</td>
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<td>• Alternative pedagogies</td>
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<td>• Academic Language skills</td>
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<td>• Language consolidation</td>
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<td>IEL 5</td>
<td>• Educational Research</td>
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<td>• Current Issues in Chilean Education</td>
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Appendix 3. Ethical Consents

Loreto Aliaga  
School of Education  
University of Leeds  
Leeds, LS2 9JT

ESSL, Environment and LUBS (AREA) Faculty Research Ethics Committee  
University of Leeds

25 February 2015

Dear Loreto

Title of study: Provisional title: Teacher trainers’ cognitions during the implementation of an innovative pre-service English teaching programme in Chile

Ethics reference: AREA 14-062, amendment Feb 2015

I am pleased to inform you that your amendment to the research application listed above has been reviewed by the Chair of the ESSL, Environment and LUBS (AREA) Faculty Research Ethics Committee and I can confirm a favourable ethical opinion as of the date of this letter. The following documentation was considered:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Document</th>
<th>Version</th>
<th>Date</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AREA 14-062 amendment Feb 2015 Amendment_form2015.doc</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>17/02/15</td>
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<tr>
<td>AREA 14-062 EDITED Head of programme - Participant information sheet.doc</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>17/02/15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AREA 14-062 EDITED indirect participant - Participant information sheet.doc</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>17/02/15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AREA 14-062 EDITED Language strand coordinator - Participant information sheet.doc</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>17/02/15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AREA 14-062 EDITED Teacher trainers - Participant information sheet.doc</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>17/02/15</td>
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<tr>
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<td>AREA 14-062 English - Formato de informe Loreto Aliaga Sales.doc</td>
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<td>18/12/14</td>
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<tr>
<td>AREA 14-062 Loreto Aliaga - Ethical Review.pdf</td>
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<td>02/12/14</td>
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<tr>
<td>AREA 14-062 Loreto Aliaga - Fieldwork.pdf</td>
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<td>02/12/14</td>
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<tr>
<td>AREA 14-062 Loreto Aliaga - Participant information sheet.pdf</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>02/12/14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AREA 14-062 Loreto Aliaga - Participant consent form.pdf</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>02/12/14</td>
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<tr>
<td>AREA 14-062 Loreto Aliaga - UAH Authorisation to carry out research.pdf</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>02/12/14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Chair made the following comments:

- If you to make direct quotes in publications, but have to include the promise of confidentiality within your consent form, you should define in the form what you mean by confidentiality. You might find the guidance at http://ris.leeds.ac.uk/ConfidentialityAnonymisation helpful.

Please notify the committee if you intend to make any further amendments to the original research as submitted at date of this approval as all changes must receive ethical approval prior to implementation. The amendment form is available at http://ris.leeds.ac.uk/EthicsAmendment.
Please note: You are expected to keep a record of all your approved documentation, as well as documents such as sample consent forms, and other documents relating to the study. This should be kept in your study file, which should be readily available for audit purposes. You will be given a two week notice period if your project is to be audited. There is a checklist listing examples of documents to be kept which is available at http://nis.leeds.ac.uk/EthicsAudits.

We welcome feedback on your experience of the ethical review process and suggestions for improvement. Please email any comments to ResearchEthics@leeds.ac.uk.

Yours sincerely

Jennifer Blaikie
Senior Research Ethics Administrator, Research & Innovation Service
On behalf of Dr Andrew Evans, Chair, AREA Faculty Research Ethics Committee

CC: Student’s supervisor(s)
Ethical approval of the host institution

UNIVERSIDAD

Acta de Aprobación

En Santiago de Chile, con fecha 05 de Marzo de 2015, el Comité de Ética de Universidad X, declara conocer el proyecto de investigación denominado "Teacher trainers' acquisition during the implementation of an innovative pre-service English teaching programme in Chile", cuya investigadora responsable es Loreto Alligua de esta Universidad; así como, los protocolos de consentimiento informado que forman parte del mencionado proyecto.

Esta documentación cumple con las normas éticas vigentes en esta institución y considera aspectos específicos del protocolo que deben seguir los sujetos que participarán en el mismo; resguarda su libertad, integridad y confidencialidad en el uso de información; no vulnera la dignidad de los sujetos; no constituye una amenaza bajo ninguna circunstancia ni causa daño emocional o moral a las personas que participen de la investigación. Proporciona información clara y transparente respecto de la investigación, asegurando el derecho a privacidad de los investigados. Asimismo, no se establece pago ni incentivo económico a la participación de las personas, las cuales lo harán a entera voluntad y podrán desistir de participar en cualquier momento mientras la investigación se realice.

Este estudio, pretende reclutar sujetos, por ello, se asegura la libertad de elección, dejando claramente establecido que pueden rechazar su participación, sin sufrir ningún menoscabo. Este proyecto de investigación respeta los derechos de los sujetos a consultar y cuida especialmente de invitar a los diferentes sujetos involucrados en el ámbito que se espera estudiar, señalando que de este estudio no se deriven beneficios individuales, sino para el desarrollo científico.

El Comité de Ética de Universidad, es la entidad institucional responsable de velar por los derechos de los sujetos involucrados en este proyecto -en caso que éste se realice. Por lo tanto, a través de este medio se pronuncia favorablemente respecto de este proyecto y suscribe esta declaración.

Presidente Comité de Ética
Physical copy of consent for Head of Department.

Dear Head of Department,

You are being invited to take part in a research project. Before you decide whether to participate or not, it is important for you to understand why this research is being done and what it will involve. Please take time to read the following information carefully. If you have any questions or should you need further information, please do not hesitate to contact me, Loreto Aliaga, at edlas@leeds.ac.uk

Who is the researcher?
Loreto Aliaga-Salas, PhD in Language Education candidate from the School of Education, University of Leeds in England.

What is the purpose of the study?
The purpose of this qualitative study is to understand teacher trainers’ cognitions and actual practices in the context of curriculum change in pre-service English teaching education. The main focus is on teacher trainers, yet other actors involved in the curriculum change will be consulted as staff and trainees.

The research questions are as follows:
1. What are teacher trainers’ understandings of the IC and the graduate profile?
2. How do TTS implement the IC in the language classroom?
3. How have TTS understandings and practices been influenced by the IC planning and implementation processes adopted by the organisation?

Why have you been chosen?
You have been chosen because you are the head of department of this initial teaching training programme where the Integrated Curriculum is being implemented.

Do I have to take part?
You have the right to choose whether to take part or not. If you do decide to take part via e-mail (edlas@leeds.ac.uk), you will be given this information and also be asked to sign a consent form. This consent form will be archived by the researcher and you will receive an electronic copy. Additionally, if you decide to take part, you remain free to withdraw at any time without having to give any reason. There are no consequences of any type if you decline or refuse to take part. In case of revoking this consent form, no material of your participation will be used in this research.
When does the research take place?
This study will be carried out in four phases, as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phase</th>
<th>Time period</th>
<th>Activities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>January-March 2015</td>
<td>Pilot study – interviews</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>April – May 2015</td>
<td>Interviews</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>May – June 2015</td>
<td>Classroom observations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>June 2015</td>
<td>Post-observation interviews</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

What will it involve?
In the case of the head of department, it will involve:

Interviews: You will be asked to have one face-to-face interview with the researcher which will take up to an hour. This will be arranged in a convenient time for you, and it will be audio-recorded with your permission.

Please note there might be further contact after the official schedule, for a focus group, or a new interview.

What are the possible risks and benefits of taking part?
There are no foreseeable risks of participating in this research, apart from the use of your time. In terms of benefits, your participation expects to foster reflection on your participation in the integrated curriculum implementation, and you may get a broader view of the programme. Your comments will help there improve this pre-service English teaching programme. I will share a summary of this research results upon completion.

Will the information I provide be kept confidential?
Participants’ confidentiality is of upmost importance. All the information will be kept strictly confidential, and all the data will be made anonymous by using pseudonyms. Only the researcher will have to the data before it is anonymised, and your name and institution will be kept undisclosed any future dissemination, either spoken or written. Moreover, the data will be safeguarded in password-protected files, for a period of four years on the University of Leeds database.

All the information you give will be treated confidentially, according to the Law 19.628 Act 1999 about protection of private life or personal data protection. No source will be disseminated, unless requested by justice. Only the researcher will have access to it.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Project title</th>
<th>Document type</th>
<th>Version #</th>
<th>Date</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher trainers’ cognitions during the implementation of an innovative pre-service English teaching programme in Chile</td>
<td>Participant information sheet</td>
<td>V.02</td>
<td>12/02/2015</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
When does the research take place? 
This study will be carried out in four phases, as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phase</th>
<th>Time period</th>
<th>Activities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>January-March 2015</td>
<td>Pilot study – interviews</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>April – May 2015</td>
<td>Interviews</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>May – June 2015</td>
<td>Classroom observations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>June 2015</td>
<td>Post-observation interviews</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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Will the information I provide be kept confidential? 
Participants’ confidentiality is of utmost importance. All the information will be kept strictly confidential, and all the data will be made anonymous by using pseudonyms. Only the researcher will have to the data before it is anonymised, and your name and institution will be kept undisclosed any future dissemination, either spoken or written. Moreover, the data will be safeguarded in password-protected files, for a period of four years on the University of Leeds database.

All the information you give will be treated confidentially, according to the Law 19.626 Act 1996 about protection of private life or personal data protection. No source will be disseminated, unless requested by justice. Only the researcher will have access to it.
Participant Information Sheet: Head of department

How will the findings be used?
The findings will be part of my PhD thesis for the PhD in Language Education at the University of Leeds. The research will be used for presentations at local and international conferences, and publications in journals.

Liaison with University X

Shall you have any query or complaint about the ethical procedures of this research, please contact Ethics committee at ?

Further questions?
If you would like to take part in this research and/or have further questions about this study, please contact Loreto Aliaga-Salas at edlas@leeds.ac.uk

Thanks for your cooperation in advance.
PDF agreement sent to TEs participants. I have deleted the participants’ initials, name and signature.
Participant consent form - Head of department

TEACHER TRAINERS’ COGNITIONS DURING THE IMPLEMENTATION OF AN INNOVATIVE PRE-SERVICE ENGLISH TEACHING PROGRAMME IN CHILE

Dear Head of Department,

You are being invited to take part in a research project. Before you decide whether to participate or not, it is important for you to understand why this research is being done and what it will involve. Please take time to read the following information carefully. If you have any questions or should you need further information, please do not hesitate to contact me, Loreto Aliaga, at edlas@leeds.ac.uk

Who is the researcher?
Loreto Aliaga-Salas, PhD in Language Education candidate from the School of Education, University of Leeds in England.

What is the purpose of the study?
The purpose of this qualitative study is to understand teacher trainers’ cognitions and actual practices in the context of curriculum change in pre-service English teaching education. The main focus is on teacher trainers, yet other actors involved in the curriculum change will be consulted as staff and trainees.

The research questions are as follows:
1. What are teacher trainers’ understandings of the IC and the graduate profile?
2. How do TTs implement the IC in the language classroom?
3. How have TTs understandings and practices been influenced by the IC planning and implementation processes adopted by the organisation?

Why have you been chosen?
You have been chosen because you are the head of department of this initial teaching training programme where the Integrated Curriculum is being implemented.

Do I have to take part?
You have the right to choose whether to take part or not. If you do decide to take
part via e-mail (edlass@leeds.ac.uk), you will be given this information and also be asked to sign a consent form. This consent form will be archived by the researcher, and you will receive an electronic copy. Additionally, if you decide to take part, you remain free to withdraw at any time without having to give any reason. There are no consequences of any type if you decline or refuse to take part. In case of revoking this consent form, no material of your participation will be used in this research.

When does the research take place?
This study will be carried out in four phases, as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phase</th>
<th>Time period</th>
<th>Activities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>January–March 2015</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>April–May 2015</td>
<td>Interviews ***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
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<td>Classroom observations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>June 2015</td>
<td>Post-observation interviews</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

What will it involve?
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Interviews: You will be asked to have one face-to-face interview with the researcher which will take up to an hour. This will be arranged in a convenient time for you, and it will be audio-recorded with your permission.

Please note there might be further contact after the official schedule, for a focus group, or a new interview.

What are the possible risks and benefits of taking part?
There are no foreseeable risks of participating in this research, apart from the use of your time. In terms of benefits, your participation is expected to foster reflection on your participation in the integrated curriculum implementation, and you may get a broader view of the programme. Your comments will help to improve this pre-service English teaching programme. I will share a summary of this research results upon completion.

Will the information I provide be kept confidential?
Participants’ confidentiality is of utmost importance. All the information will be kept strictly confidential, and all the data will be made anonymous by using pseudonyms. Only the researcher will have to the data before it is anonymised, and your name and institution will be kept undisclosed any future dissemination, either spoken or written. Moreover, the data will be safeguarded in password-protected files, for a period of four years on the University of Leeds database.

All the information you give will be treated confidentially, according to the Law 19,628 Act 1999 about protection of private life or personal data protection. No source will be disseminated, unless requested by justice. Only the researcher will have access to it.

How will the findings be used?
The findings will be part of my PhD thesis for the PhD in Language Education at the University of Leeds. The research will be used for presentations at local and international conferences, and publications in journals.

Liaison with: University
Shall you have any query or complaint about the ethical procedures of this research, please contact at, edlass@leeds.ac.uk
Further questions?
If you would like to take part in this research and/or have further questions about this study, please contact Loreto Alliaga-Salas at edlss@leeds.ac.uk

Thanks for your cooperation in advance.

*Required

I confirm that I have read and understand the information sheet explaining the above research project and I have had the opportunity to ask questions about the project. *

Please write your initials if you agree

I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without giving any reason and without there being any negative consequences. In addition, should I not wish to answer any particular question or questions, I am free to decline. If I withdraw, the information provided will be considered just as reference, and in an anonymised form. *

Please write your initials if you agree

I agree to take part in an one-to-one interview *

Please write your initials if you agree

I give permission for the interviews to be audio-recorded and for the classroom observations to be video-recorded. *

Please write your initials if you agree

I give permission for the researcher to have access to my anonymised responses. I understand that my name will not be linked with the research materials, and I will not be identified or identifiable in the report(s) that result from the research. I understand that my responses will be kept strictly confidential. *

Please write your initials if you agree

I agree for the data collected from me to be used in a PhD thesis, presentations, reports or publications in an anonymised form. *

Please write your initials if you agree

I agree to take part in the above research activities and will inform Loreto Alliaga (edlss@leeds.ac.uk) should my contact details change. *

Please write your initials if you agree

Name of Participant *
This will count as your signature

Participant e-mail
Optional
Date *

dd/mm/yyyy

Submit

Never submit passwords through Google Forms.

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This content is neither created nor endorsed by Google.

Report Abuse • Terms of Service • Additional Terms
## Appendix 4. Summary of all data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher educators</th>
<th>Staff</th>
<th>Student teachers</th>
<th>Teaching assistants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Interviews</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 individual</td>
<td>2 individual interviews</td>
<td>3 students</td>
<td>1 group interview</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>interviews</td>
<td>(3 online, 1 face to face)</td>
<td>(2 in a group interview – 1 individual)</td>
<td>(4 student teachers)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 post-observation interviews</td>
<td>head of department; head of TEFL programme</td>
<td>Year 1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Meetings</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 meeting observed</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Year 1 - 5 TEs)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Classes observed</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year 1 (Integrated English Language 1)</td>
<td>2 (1 TE – 1/5 group)</td>
<td>Year 2</td>
<td>7 students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year 2 (Integrated English Language 3)</td>
<td>4 (1 TE – 3/3 groups)</td>
<td>(3 in a group interview – 4 individual)</td>
<td>Year 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year 3 (Integrated English Language 5)</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>(2 in a group interview, 3 individual, 2 students sent their answers via e-mail)</td>
<td>Year 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year 4 (Integrated English Language 4)</td>
<td>4 (1 TE 2/3 groups)</td>
<td>(all individual)</td>
<td>Year 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year 5 (Integrated English Language 5)</td>
<td>4 (1 TE 2/3 groups)</td>
<td>Year 5</td>
<td>5 students (all individual)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## Appendix 5. Transcript conventions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>[...]</td>
<td>Intervening utterances which have been taken out</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>()</td>
<td>Unclear information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.()</td>
<td>Short untimed pause within an utterance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[sic]</td>
<td>Grammatical error</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>//</td>
<td>Phonemic transcription, instead of standard orthography, where pronunciation deviant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Adapted from Mann, 2016; Allwright and Bailey, 1991)
Appendix 6. Data generation prompts for interviews and observations

These are the interview prompts and classroom observation items considered during the data generation process.

Teacher educators: Pre-observation interviews

General questions about the post

- How long have you been working on this PRESET?

Curriculum implementation

- What is your understanding of the IC? – aims, its design?
- What is your understanding the meaning of the exit profile (EP)?
- Its underpinnings?
- How does it link to classroom teaching?
- What do you think about it purpose?
- What kind of support have you received from the English department (head of department; language coordinator) to do your job?
- What is your professional relationship with the staff and language coordinator? How often do you meet? For what purposes?
- If you need information about the IC or EP, where do you refer to?
- How do you organise your work in the language strand with other teachers? – preparing materials, designing tests, assessment…
- Can you please describe how materials are chosen and organised? Under what criteria? Does the EP play any role in your decisions?
- Have you had experience with student delegates in course design? (suggesting topics, readings) Can you please describe the role of student delegates in the course design?
- What’s your opinion about having students involved?

Classroom practices

- If somebody came to your classroom how would they see it reflecting the goals of the IC?
- In what way would the principles of the IC be visible?
- What do you do to try and ensure that IC is reflected?
- How would you describe a typical Integrated English Language Class?
- Refer to contents, activities, interactions, behaviours, roles, outcomes, evidence of the EP, language use, use of materials…
Teacher educators’ follow-up interviews (face to face interviews)

- Becoming a teacher educator: What is the role of TEs in the PRESET beyond language teaching? How did they get trained or prepared to become a teacher educator.
- What challenges have they faced as a teacher educator at the IC?
- What is the profile of a TE teaching at the IC? How does the organization support TEs to meet this profile?
- The role of ‘reading’ in class – based on what TEs reported in the interviews, i.e. reading is done at home, but classes have a pre-, while, post structure.
- What is the role of the level coordinator?
- Feed into the Friday coordination meetings. The role of the language coordinator in these meetings.
- Explain the decision-making process behind language assessment.
- Role of teaching assistants – how are these chosen? What is the relation between assistants and teacher educators? How are the sessions organised? How are they assessed? What relation is there between the course contents/themes and the assistantships? How often are they held?
- Phonetics and lexico-grammar workshop: how often, who does them? How are they connected to the overall achievement of the language course/expected level – feeding into the ‘accuracy’ issue raised over the interviews.
- Other possible emerging topics in these interviews.

Teacher educators: post observation interviews

Please watch these video segments: it called my attention that… can you please tell me what you think of it?

- In today’s class, can you illustrate some teaching/learning awareness moments? (as reported in the interviews)
- Can you exemplify some features of the integrated curriculum goals?
- Did you face any particular challenge today? Is there anything you might have done differently?

Have you got any other observations, comments, or reflections that you’d like to make as a result of your participation on this research?

Classroom observations

Classroom practices were reported as coherent and ‘the same’ by all TEs, and doing the same as in order to meet the same goals.

- Class structure: Pre-, while-, post-. Interesting to see the pre-reading when reading is actually done outside the class as homework / self-study.
- Teaching and learning awareness moments: how are student teachers prompted to reflect on the class steps and how they are being taught / how they are learning the language.
• Classroom interactions: teacher educator being only the guide, the facilitator.
• Other strands being integrated in the class. How are the class contents linked with methodology/education/practicum?
• Role of grammar: Grammar taught as as-required based and stems from the text that is being read/listened in class.
• Role of phonetics/phonology: How is pronunciation taught?
• Fluency vs. accuracy: They all reported that the first/second years were mainly focused on fluency, and then as time went by, they would polish the language. How is that actually tackled in the classroom?

Staff interview prompts

General question
• How long have you been working on this PRESET?

Curriculum implementation
• What is your understanding of the graduate profile? What limitations/implications do you see it has? (looking for their definition of the EP)
• Please describe the IC – its goals, objectives, expected impact on T. Ed in Chile.
• What challenges and issues have you faced in relation to the IC implementation?
• What is the desired relationship of the IC and the graduate profile? And the actual one?
• As a result of monitoring the IC implementation ending in December 2015, are you planning possible curriculum adjustments?
• What is the actual status of the integration among the different strands (methodology, language, practicum, education)
• To what extent do you think the IC is responding to the Ministry of Education teaching standards?
• Looking at the first IC graduates at the 2015, are you planning a follow-up to them in their future jobs?

Teacher educators
• What is the relation between staff and TEs? Looking into communication, support and involvement in the IC.
• What kind of support has it been given to TEs working on this PRESET?
• What do you look for in a teacher educator teaching at this programme?

Language strand
• Can you describe how the language strand has changed over these five years?
• Describe the role of TEs in relation to each course design.
• Tell me about how TEs are supported in their work in the IC language strand.
• Does the EP plan any explicit role in the language strand implementation?
• What is the role of the student delegates? Do you think they are important??
• How are you measuring students’ proficiency in order to meet the Ministry of Education’s expected C1 level? (also feeding into what TEs reported on interviews – focus on fluency more than accuracy)
• How do you choose materials? Why is there a particular interest in academic papers?
• What is the relation between the level coordinators and the staff in terms of support / involvement/ communication?

Student teachers’ delegates prompts

General questions

• When did you start studying at this PRESET?

Curriculum implementation

• What do you understand by the integrated curriculum?
• What do you understand by the graduate profile?
• Can you please describe a typical class of a language course?
• Can you please tell me about your personal experience in the language strand?
• What challenges do you think teacher educators have faced during the implementation? (what have they witnessed, e.g. lack of communication, permanent changes over five years)
• Can you give an example of the integration between language and other classes?
• Do you like having a role suggesting topics for the language classes? How do you organise yourselves to make the decisions?
• To what extent do you think students’ voice has been heard during the implementation?
• What do you think of the teaching assistantships in relation to the language classes?
• If it depended on you, what changes would you do in the curriculum?

Student-teacher assistants

• How are student-teaching assistant chosen? (Is there a particular profile of students filling this post in relation to the language classes/overall IC)
• How are the topics decided? Do you work on your own/with other assistants?
• Who do you report to? What is the actual relation with that person?
• What do you do in a teaching assistantship?
• What challenges have you faced as a teaching assistant?
Appendix 7. Member checking samples

Sample 1: Student teacher Carla – 5th year. She sent her comments highlighted in a different colour.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time span</th>
<th>Content</th>
<th>Speaker</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0:00:3-0:30:6</td>
<td>Thank you, Carla for being, for accepting to be part of my research. We are going to be talking about half an hour maximum the, about your experience in the integrated curriculum. I (unclear) know these five years but focused mainly on the language strand, and that's basically in a nutshell what the conversation is going to be about. The interview is going to be in English, but if you want to switch into Spanish, feel free to do so.</td>
<td>Loreto</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0:30:5-0:30:6</td>
<td>OK, thank you</td>
<td>Carla</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0:31:8-1:00:5</td>
<td>There are no consequences at all to do so, as and you read in the informed consent, confidentiality is very important, so what I'd like to tell me know is that, and that's the first question, whether you'd like to use your own name, or use a pseudonym</td>
<td>Loreto</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1:00:8-1:04:4</td>
<td>No, my own name.</td>
<td>Carla</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1:04:4-1:15:3</td>
<td>So, and if you want to skip a question, or feel uncomfortable at any time, just let me know, and that's totally fine. OK?</td>
<td>Loreto</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1:14:9-1:15:3</td>
<td>OK</td>
<td>Carla</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1:15:3-1:25:7</td>
<td>So, first question is what do you understand by the integrated curriculum?</td>
<td>Carla</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1:24:7-1:57:7</td>
<td>Now that I've been on, I understand that the course in which you develop all the skills in a very integrated way which means that basically you have, you don't have classes focused on just skill (unclear). You don't have writing courses. You just have something to develop language. Basically that, that's what I understand. I tried to say that you do not have classes focused on one skill or area of the language, you do not have specific courses because you acquire the language involving more than one aspect of it. When you take one specific course (for example, grammar) you forget other aspects of English, you put all your attention on being proficient but avoid the communicative fact maybe.</td>
<td>Carla</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1:57:7-2:04:5</td>
<td>And going beyond the language class, looking at the overall perspective</td>
<td>Loreto</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2:04:5-2:09:5</td>
<td>Integrated language</td>
<td>Carla</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2:09:5-2:13:6</td>
<td>No, but going beyond the integrated language, talking about the whole curriculum, all the subjects together</td>
<td>Loreto</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Sample 2: TE Pat offers handwritten comments to her transcript, correcting some words and expanding on her ideas.

| 76 | At the beginning it's shocking for them, in the sense, the topics and the activities are planned in such a way that it's like that we're destroying their breakings, basically. Because we are breaking all, all habits they bring from school or previous educational experiences, so they are... we are trying to get them out of their comfort zone, and they resist it. They resist it at the beginning, and that is very interesting phenomena because I would, I don't dare to say most of them, I think we would have to interview them. Maybe you can do it, maybe you can interview them as some students from first year, to see their opinions, and to know what they think of. Maybe some students of the... on their first semester, and some students and some students on their second semester. And some students that have already lived, the students that are now in their third semester, second year. That would be a nice idea I guess. |
| 77 | It's included in my, my data generation plan. |
| 78 | Excellent, excellent, but you know why they resisted? Because they are used to be in their comfort zone, and they are used to not think. I don't have to think. The teacher is giving me everything. The teacher gives me food. The teacher chooses the knowledge for me. With the spoon gives the knowledge in my mouth, so I just have to swallow, digest, and defecate it. I don't know if you can put it in your research, but it's, it's the sad reality. What we are doing as teachers for our students. We are not letting them; we're just giving them everything ready, so they cannot do anything for themselves, so we are not creating autonomous students, and you're not letting them think. So that's why they resist at the beginning because they have been socialised in school settings, or other educational settings in which they are taught like that. Teacher is the responsible person for all the things that are going on in the classroom, and for the knowledge, for the assessment, for everything. Once you, you come across an environment where the people are telling you, the teachers are telling you: you know what? I'm going to sit down, and watch what you do. You know what? I don't want you to reproduce the text. "I know the text; I know it by heart". I want you to tell me; give me a just little theoretical framework and give me your opinion! What do you think? What are your arguments? What, what is your conclusion? What are you reflecting? What is going on with you here? So when, when they have in their faces, it's like, it's like a slap because they, they are trying to tell facts, that's what you can see. But you have told me. But I have to reproduce this text. But this is, this is right, because it's in the text. You chose
I don't have info about ELT programs or any other edu. programs that offer a "follow-up" for teachers after they graduate. I don't think this is happening in Chile. We have a huge crisis in edu. in our country. I don't think there are any kind of budgets to sustain such a program. But we need it! Professors should receive support during their first teaching years; it's teaching. We're dealing w/ children and adolescents, it's not easy!
Appendix 8. Data analysis sample

Some notes from my interview with the head of the PRESET
Data analysis: Comparison between interviews about different emerging topics.
NVivo analysis: Nodes on all interviews
Node: The Integrated Curriculum – Including my handwritten comments

INTEGRATED CURRICULUM

Reference 1 - 3.01% Coverage

In my case, since the first day here in the university, first points about the (unclear) about the advantage, I don’t know, to, to teach English like integrated, and now all the apart from them, for example, in schools we learned about, for example, grammar, structures, structures, but, but it’s separate, it’s not integrated, integrated, and it’s more difficult for me now here in the university learn English like separated. It because I think it’s, it’s better learn language, or idioms like a totally language in not only part.

Reference 2 - 3.41% Coverage

I think the same because I have a lot of friends who are studying translation or pedagogy in English in another universities and they told me you are gonna, you are gonna cry when you will learn phonetics, and when I came here I, I was like afraid with phonetics and then teachers and basically Claudio, who was the first teacher who meet us, told us so, told us you will not phonetics, grammar, and structures at all, and I said, like, oh my God, this is a gift from God, I think that it’s very good and beautiful, and learn the language integrating with the context we are living now, and the reality, and also the dossiers is very important for our formation.

Reference 3 - 3.45% Coverage

For our training as future teachers because we learn about identity, culture and education and critical pedagogies, so in first year it’s very important to know these topics and to basically, to know what we are going to live in the future. It’s a totally different vision from others universities that because another university maybe, 50% of the universities in Chile including pedagogy in English, English pedagogy teach about structures and maybe in some of the psychological things, but it’s not like, they don’t focus on teachers in the future, and in maybe, in their life in class, so like (unclear).

Reference 4 - 4.40% Coverage

I think they reproduce a type and here in this university teachers who want to form other kind of teachers that today it’s in the classes, in the schools, but I think that yes, the, the curriculum, like English, like integrated English is a complement of the ours of social reality, like strikes, culture, Chilean culture, specifically. I think the teachers to, (unclear) work for that, because if I talk, or I write something, they correct me and they give me a feedback, then they explain it, and, and help me among the, the show me to develop our English, and it’s not like we don’t have structures at all because our classes as you see before, we all, all, we are all discussing about the topics, while we are talking teachers say, ok this word is like that, and maybe most of the time they write the phonetic symbols, so we know about that, and we are not like exploding these things.

Reference 5 - 0.16% Coverage

It’s like a complete learning