Discourses of academic language development in a UK university

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A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements of

Sheffield Hallam University

for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

January 2023

Candidate Declaration

I hereby declare that:

I have not been enrolled for another award of the University, or other academic or professional organisation, whilst undertaking my research degree.

None of the material contained in the thesis has been used in any other submission for an academic award.

I am aware of and understand the University's policy on plagiarism and certify that this thesis is my own work. The use of all published or other sources of material consulted have been properly and fully acknowledged. In Chapter 7, which is an article based on a collaborative action research project, my role in the data collection was interviewer. I analysed the data, and I wrote the article. Any contributions from colleagues, for example, sense checking the interpretation of data, are explicitly referenced in the text.

The work undertaken towards the thesis has been conducted in accordance with the SHU Principles of Integrity in Research and the SHU Research Ethics Policy.

The word count of the thesis (excluding references) is 43,604 plus 22,830 words in the articles (Chapters 5, 6 and 7).

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Award	PhD
Date of Submission	January 2023
Research Institute	Education
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Abstract

Despite calls for explicit language development to be integrated into curricula, in the United Kingdom language development in higher education largely takes place in an ad hoc manner. This is problematic given the increasing diversity in students' linguistic backgrounds. Through this research I demonstrate that one of the reasons for the lack of university-wide approaches to integrated language development is that key stakeholders have different perspectives and different accounts of what the development of effective language use involves. Specifically, I illuminate key stakeholders' discourses of language development in higher education. By discourses I mean the use of language in social contexts which portrays the speaker or writer's position. Highlighting their different discourses reveals concepts, values and beliefs that influence their stance towards language development. This is important because stakeholders need to develop shared understandings to discuss institution-wide approaches to integrating language into the curriculum.

The research is guided by a constructionist epistemology and comprises a multiple case study of three interlocking cases, each bounded by a stakeholder group within a single UK university. Data collection methods are designed with my own multiple positionalities in mind and data analysis follows inductive thematic analysis. By illuminating the discourses of key stakeholders and applying a lens of language as a social semiotic, I create a framework which can change practice by building shared understandings on which university-wide approaches can be established. I also analyse potential causes of differences in understandings and include them explicitly within the framework. The potential impact of the research findings is that they set an agenda for constructive conversations between stakeholders to agree how language development can be integrated into curricula in an effective and sustainable manner. This research has the potential to change how universities think about language in the academy.

Acknowledgements

In the process of completing this research, I have benefitted from the support of many individuals. I would like to thank the team of supervisors who have supported me through the project at different stages: Dr Diana Ridley, Dr Roberta Taylor, Professor Guy Merchant, Dr Katie Dunworth and Professor Jacqueline Stephenson. I also could not have completed this work without the generosity of the participants, all of whom are also my colleagues. They kindly shared their ideas, experience, expertise, and time – you know who you are! Sarah Procter, in particular, has been a fantastic companion along this journey: thank you! Other colleagues have inspired me as researcher role models and have supported my research and made it possible for me to get to the point of submitting, especially Alice Oxholm and my line managers over the years, who did me the great favour of asking how the PhD was going, and thus kept my eye on the prize.

Then there are my close supporters and cheerleaders beyond the walls of the university: my friends and my family. Mum, Dad and Estelle kept asking me questions, and I'm sure I bored them senseless with my ruminations – but they kept on asking, and that has been priceless for my motivation. Gordon Nicholls was an inspiration, and I am proud to be able to say that I have kept my commitment to complete this doctorate. Lauren and Charlie understood it was my dream to complete this, and I want to thank them especially for their patience every time I hid myself off to study. Finally, my thanks go to Brendon, my informal sixth supervisor, always ready to answer my random questions about processes, practicalities, conceptual experimentations, word choices, and punctuation. You kept me on track and in good humour when it was tough, and kindly read through the whole thing.

Note on formatting and terminology

This thesis is submitted as a PhD by Article. As such, I have included three articles as chapters (5, 6 and 7) with a wraparound narrative that includes chapters on key concepts and literature, my methodological approach, methods of data collection and analysis, and a cross-case analysis. In terms of formatting, due to copyright requirements, I have included the articles in the format in which they were accepted for publication. As a result, article sub-headings, figure captions and table captions are not included in the contents list, or in lists of figures and tables. For completeness, the final reference list includes all references from both the wraparound narrative and the articles.

Throughout this thesis, much literature cited refers to writing and literacies. In recognition of the broader demands on students (e.g. presentations and other modes of assessment and learning) my focus throughout is on all verbal language of which written texts are an important but not the only element of language development undertaken in higher education.

Language notes: I use him/her/their and he/she/they depending on the context of whether gender identity is known. I prefer to use 'multilingual international' students to identify students whose first language is not English, and who come from outside of the United Kingdom. Where alternative phrases are used, e.g. 'English as an Additional Language' (EAL), 'second language' (L2), 'non-native', it is because I am repeating the language used in others' research which has its own contexts and preferred terminology.

To prevent confusion through the research narrative, I use 'constructionist' and 'constructivist' with distinct meanings. When I talk about my methodological approach, I refer to a (social) *constructionist* approach towards knowledge creation, that implies a relativist ontology, a subjectivist epistemology, and a dialectical methodology (cf. Guba and Lincoln (1989) who use 'constructivist' for this meaning). See Chapter 3 for a full discussion. I use the term *constructivist* to refer to an approach to learning that relies on interaction between individuals through linguistic and non-linguistic codes and signs. See section 2.2.3 for a full explanation.

Finally, I tend towards a British spelling, e.g. “-ise”, but have kept to the original spelling when quoting.

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Chapter 1 Introduction

1.1 Background

In this research, I explore the role of language in higher education, and how different stakeholders understand the development of academic language. Language is fundamental to the processes of learning (Vygotsky, 1986; Hasan, 2005, 2011; Coffin & Donohue, 2014), particularly in higher education where abstract concepts are key to the development of theories, models, and frameworks. Kaplan and Baldauf (1997) stress the importance of higher education institutions (HEIs) meeting their students' linguistic needs. Yet in the United Kingdom, language is rarely explicitly included as part of university courses' curricula (Murray, 2016; Wingate 2015), even though course level objectives may refer to communicative abilities. Discipline-specific examples of course level objectives are provided by the Quality Assurance Agency's (2022a) benchmark statements for degree level studies, which include expectations that students can demonstrate the "[a]bility to communicate their work to specialist and a diverse range of non-specialist audiences" in computing (The Quality Assurance Agency for Higher Education, 2022b, p.24) and the ability to "use the communication skills necessary to converse, debate, negotiate, persuade and challenge the ideas of others … write for different purposes, including … persuasion, explanation, description, evaluation and judgement, recount, recap, hypothesis and summary" in Early Childhood Studies (The Quality Assurance Agency for Higher Education, 2022c, p16), as well as the ubiquitous expectation that students can demonstrate criticality and analysis.

Historically, it has been assumed that students, like their lecturers before them, would assimilate the discourses and genres of their disciplines through a "pedagogy of osmosis" (Turner, 2011, p.21) that is embedded in a view of learning as "implicit induction" (Lillis, 2001, p.54). This model of induction based on an osmotic pedagogy relies on an assumption of sameness (Turner, 2011). An assumption of sameness may have been unproblematic when a small number of 'elite', largely privately educated students joined university, but it started to break down with the development of a mass higher education system in the United Kingdom in the mid-1980s (Lillis, 2001). In the context of increasing diversity in UK universities, due to a growth in international

student numbers (Higher Education Statistics Agency, 2022a) and widening participation (Higher Education Statistic Agency, 2022b), it is questionable whether a "pedagogy of osmosis" (Turner, 2011, p.21) is an effective or equitable approach to language development. Indeed, for many students, language only comes into focus when it is seen to be deficient in some way (Lillis & Scott, 2007). At this point students may be referred to some sort of support that is "remedial, not inclusive, and divorced from subject knowledge" (Wingate, 2006, p.467), often outside of their academic department and more recently outside of the institution, for example by private companies (Tuck, 2018).

Some anglophone countries, for example the U.S.A., have a tradition of including language development (especially writing) as part of their university programmes (Tardy & Jwa, 2016). Others, for example Australia, have government level quality assurance criteria which specify universities' responsibilities around recruitment, developing and assessing language (Edwards et al, 2021). In the United Kingdom, English language polices in higher education veer between stated respect for non-standard varieties and the use of other languages (Case study 1 in Office for Students, 2021a) and discourses of deficit and falling standards (Office for Students, 2021b). (See Chapter 2 for a full discussion). Some of this deficit discourse echoes a reductivist view of language that is evident in policies for primary and secondary school education, for example, the representation of language as simply a matter of understanding 'spelling, punctuation, and grammar'. The introduction of standardised assessment tests on decontextualised spelling, punctuation, and grammar (SPaG) in primary schools in England since 2013, and the expectation that teachers and pupils should use 'standard English' are two examples of an oversimplified view of a standardised language as a single set of rules for all spoken and written language which can lead to concepts of deficit (Snell, 2013) and a need to police students' language (Cushing, 2021). This view of deficit tips over into higher education and oversimplifies the complex linguistic demands of academic study with a deficit discourse that focusses on spelling, punctuation, and grammar (Office for Students, 2021b).

Discourses like these also reveal ideologies (Fairclough, 1995) and in this regard Snell (2013) promotes a useful alternative view of the full range of language choices available to an individual as their "repertoire" which can be understood and

manipulated by speakers. Snell (2013) uses Hymes' (1996) explanation of repertoire, as "a set of ways of speaking" (Hymes, 1996, p.33) which "comprise *speech styles*, … *contexts of discourse*, … together with *relations of appropriateness*" (Hymes, 1996, p.33, italics in the original). In other words, speakers can use different language (including words, syntax, pronunciation) differently depending on the context. Understanding language choices in this way and raising educators' and learners' awareness of register and appropriacy can challenge discourses of 'deficit' or 'difference' that are applied to speakers with non-standard varieties of English (Snell, 2013) and speakers of "languages beyond English" (Cunningham, 2019), not only in primary and secondary education where this research emanates from, but also in UK further and higher education where these discussions are dominated by deficit discourses (Murray, 2016). Recent research has begun to use the concept of linguistic repertoires in higher education (e.g. Gimenez, 2020). However, as Cushing (2021) highlights, "one of the reasons that the standard language ideology persists in education is that it *benefits* established hierarchies and dominant groups" (p.333, italics in original). By extension, we could ask whether there are any reasons for language *not* to be explicitly included in the curriculum in UK higher education?

Macro-level policies can have unintended consequences when they are interpreted at the meso-level (Cushing, 2021). However, one country where the government has introduced policies to increase students' chances of success through language assessment and development is Australia (see Moore & Harrington, 2016 for a review). Driven by the Australian government's push for institutions to take responsibility for their students' English language proficiency, several authors have described and evaluated different institutional models of language development provision in Australian institutions. These include: embedded approaches (Edwards et al, 2021; Murray & Nallaya, 2016); rhizomatic responses to the failure of a top-down initiative (Benzie, Pryce & Smith, 2017); centralised whole course approaches (Harris, 2016); as well as decentralised models (Murray & Hicks, 2016; Murray & Muller, 2018). Moreover, Murray (Murray (2010) in Murray & Hicks, 2016; Murray, 2016) offers a useful tripartite model to help university stakeholders to develop a common understanding of linguistic proficiency. The model distinguishes between general

proficiency, academic literacies, and professional communication and can help departments and lecturers to clarify their priorities in terms of language development.

A further set of literature explores specific pedagogical approaches to language development from a range of international contexts, including small-scale as opposed to university-wide provision (see for example, the edited collections by Lillis et al, 2015; MacDiarmid & MacDonald, 2021). Several studies specifically analyse collaborations between subject and language experts (e.g. Bergman, 2016 in Sweden; Chanock, 2017 in Australia; Clarence, 2012 in South Africa; and Wingate (2018) in the United Kingdom. See Li (2020) for a summary.) However, the challenges of collaboration are also noted, including the lack of a shared metalanguage (Chanock, 2017) and interestingly, the challenges of researching and publishing collaboratively (Whong & Godfrey, 2020).

Some scholars have tried to evaluate the effectiveness of specific provision on students' performance or retention, but as Chanock (2017) notes, it is extremely difficult to disentangle causal explanations which directly trace links between interventions and student outcomes. Chahal (2017) further notes that managerial demands for evaluation that depend on evidence-based practice can distort practitioners work by demanding (often quantitative) impact data based on positivistic views of education. Whilst some measurement of effectiveness of language development provision is essential for its improvement and continuance, that is not the focus of this research. Rather this research investigates how different stakeholders *understand* language development. Specifically, my research investigates key stakeholders' understandings of the role of language in learning and how *they think* effective language use develops.

1.2 The research question

I am a lecturer in English for Academic Purposes (EAP) in a post-1992 UK university. Partly because of this, I wanted to explore why language, which is often only discussed in terms of deficit (e.g. Office for Students, 2021; Minister for Higher and Further Education, Michelle Donelan in Office for Students, 2021b) and in oversimplified terms (e.g. spelling, punctuation, and grammar), is not overtly included across the board in

higher education curricula in the United Kingdom. Groups of academic language experts, such as the colleagues I work with, exist in all UK higher education institutions, yet their expertise is not utilised in systematic, university-wide approaches to language development.

In this thesis I highlight the key issue that despite many calls for university-wide strategies to include discipline-specific language development opportunities into the curriculum (Murray, 2016; Wingate, 2018), in the United Kingdom there are few examples of this. One reason for this anomaly is the lack of effective communication between key stakeholders (Dunworth et al, 2014). In turn, I suggest, this is due to stakeholders' different views on the role of language, the processes of language development, and the multiple priorities and boundaries of each stakeholder group's roles. This premise leads me to my research question: How do different stakeholders account for the development of effective language use in higher education? My contribution is to highlight how different stakeholders account for language development and how their differing discourses support or hinder the development of coherent university-wide strategies for language development. My ultimate goal is to present a framework which can enable communication between stakeholders and support language development provision.

1.3 Context of this study

In relation to the points outlined above, it is useful to outline the context of this research. The research comprises a multiple case study based on data from three stakeholder groups - academic leaders, subject lecturers, and EAP lecturers - in a post-1992 UK university. Post-1992 UK universities have historically recruited students with lower academic qualifications (Raffe & Croxford, 2015) from less-advantageous socio-economic backgrounds (Boliver 2015; Raffe & Croxford, 2015) with a goal of widening participation in higher education – and they continue to do so. The university in this study's commitment to social mobility and applied research is significant given the background critique of higher education's traditional "institutional practice of mystery" (Lillis, 2001, p.58) and its "pedagogy of osmosis" (Turner 2011, p.21). The three stakeholder groups comprise: those with power, academic leaders, and those with expertise, subject and EAP lecturers, identified by Dunworth et al (2014) as key

contributors to a successful university-wide approach. Coffin and Donohue's (2014) suggestion that an approach to learning that acknowledges the centrality of language, has the potential to "democratize education" (p.36) by providing "access to institutionally powerful knowledge" (p.36) would seem to map neatly onto the university's goals.

1.4 Potential contribution of this research

Despite the calls for university-wide approaches, and research into successful provision, there are very few UK universities with consistent policies or approaches to language development (Wingate, 2015), two exceptions being the inclusion of a compulsory, generic academic writing course for all undergraduates at Richmond, The American International University in London (Hathaway, 2015) and the Thinking Writing project at Queen Mary University (Mitchell, 2010). Moreover, despite the recent growth of literature in this area, prompted largely by the developments in Australia to make language development a quality assurance issue (Moore & Harrington, 2016), what remains unclear is how the individuals who lead, consult on, plan, and offer language provision account for the development of effective language use. In order for effective consultation and planning to progress, it would be a useful starting point for stakeholders to be able to express their own and understand each other's conceptualisation of effective language use. As Murray and Hicks (2016) indicate, without shared understandings, any university-wide initiative is unlikely to succeed. Moreover, Fenton-Smith and Gurney (2015) note that meso-level language development strategies may falter, because "communication between people with power and people with expertise could be improved" (p.84). Improving shared understandings is therefore the focus of my research. The contribution of this research is to explore the experiences of those involved in higher education to better understand their perspectives and experiences of language development and to reveal and illuminate the discourses used around language development in higher education.

More specifically, the contribution of this qualitative research project is the development of a framework that conceptualises different stakeholders' accounts of the development of effective language use in academic contexts. The framework of concepts illuminates barriers and enabling factors in the development of effective

language use from the various perspectives of the individuals involved in the leadership, planning, resourcing, and delivery of language development provision. The framework can be used to underpin discussions of a university-wide policy that acknowledges the fundamental role of language in learning in higher education (Turner 2011; Coffin & Donohue 2014; Wingate, 2015). It builds on research that aims "to offer a way forward for institutions to develop a sustainable, strategic and whole-of-institution approach to the issue of all students' English language capabilities" (Dunworth et al, 2014, p.522).

1.5 The structure of the thesis

This thesis is in the format of a PhD by article. Therefore, this document combines an overarching narrative and three articles (two published and one currently under review). The articles (Chapters 5, 6 and 7) present the single stakeholder group case studies for specific audiences – the readerships of the specific refereed journals in which they are published or under review. The narrative presents the overarching framework of the multiple case study, which comprises the three single cases. It also includes the background to the study, the methodological approach, a cross-case analysis and conclusions and recommendations.

Chapter 1 Introduction

Chapter 2 Language and learning in higher education

In Chapter 2, I outline different perspectives on the role of language and learning and varied approaches to language development provision. I also present the context for this study and the contribution of my research.

Chapter 3 Methodological approach

In Chapter 3, I present my underpinning philosophical approach to the question: social constructionism. I describe my own multiple positionalities in terms of identity, experience, context, and motives. I explore the ethical implications of these and of the specific power relations at play between my positionalities and my role within the research.

Chapter 4 Data collection and analysis

In Chapter 4, I explain how social constructionism and my positionality guided the decision-making processes of designing different data collection methods and building an inductive, qualitative data analysis that forms a grounded understanding of stakeholders' accounts.

Chapter 5 Case study 1: Academic leaders

Chapter 5 is the first case study. In this article I report on the data and findings based on semi-structured interviews with academic leaders. Through inductive thematic analysis I generate three key themes based on the data – language, learning and context - and I highlight inconsistencies and contradictions within those themes.

Chapter 6 Case study 2: EAP lecturers

Chapter 6, the second case study, shows how EAP lecturers understand the development of effective language use. The article uses an innovative variation on nominal focus groups to gather data and develops a new model to represent their theoretical and pedagogic expertise. My analysis leads to the creation of four EAP practitioner discourses: the what of language development; the how of language development; contextual considerations; and decision-making in language development. These four discourses can help to inform research-driven conversations about language development practices.

Chapter 7 Case study 3: The subject lecturer

Chapter 7 is based on a longitudinal action research case study in which I collaborated with a lecturer in Early Years. The data from semi-structured interviews across three years of collaboration highlight how the lecturer's understandings of academic language and literacies continuously evolve.

Chapter 8 Cross case analysis

In Chapter 8, I analyse the whole dataset in order to identify both shared stakeholder understandings of language development and differences between them. The purpose

of this analysis is to create a framework for discussion between the key stakeholders by highlighting the perspectives and priorities of each group.

Chapter 9 Conclusion and recommendations

Based on the cross-case analysis, Chapter 9 summarises the process and findings of the research, and it introduces a framework based on the recommendations from the research. The framework can be used to support conversations between stakeholders who are interested in establishing university-wide strategies for integrating language development into the curriculum. This chapter also includes an evaluation of the research and a summary of my contribution to knowledge.

Summary

In this introductory chapter I have outlined the background to my research, the research question, and the higher education context of this research. Researchers have identified the need for language to be explicitly included in higher education curricula to support a more inclusive pedagogy, in which the preferred linguistic choices of disciplinary discourses are made explicit to learners. However, in the United Kingdom, systematic approaches to the inclusion of language development are rare. This research investigates differences and similarities between stakeholders' discourses of language development in higher education. A multiple case study approach enables the collection of in-depth data collection from stakeholder participants who are critical to the success of language development approaches and with whom I have different professional relationships. The design of data collection methods of each case maximises insights into stakeholders' accounts of language development. The contribution I make to the field is to set an agenda for constructive conversations between stakeholders to agree how language development can be integrated into curricula effectively and sustainably.

Chapter 2 Language and learning in higher education

2.1 Introduction

In this chapter, I examine the issue of language development in higher education, and I explore the constructivist approach which underpins the research. I start by presenting four different perspectives on language in higher education. The four perspectives are: language as transparent medium; language as a problem of standards; language as learning; and language as a discipline. These perspectives are important to understand, because conceptualisations of language influence policies, strategies, and practices. I then investigate the implications of those perspectives for the place of language development within or outside of curricula, policy, or strategy.

2.2 Perspectives on the role of language in learning

The four perspectives on the role of language in learning provide an important context for this research and they are inevitably interrelated. The first perspective is of language as transparent medium – an invisible tool to which all have access. This is a persistent view of language that can be linked to the historical development of western scientific thought. The perspective of language as a transparent tool, which is accessible to all, has been challenged. However, it persists as a cause of deficit discourses, and it influences the perspective of language as a problem of standards. This second perspective of language as a problem of standards can be seen as a consequence of the first, because either individuals have failed to gain control over the language they are expected to use, or institutions have failed to educate learners about the rules of the language system. Current discussions in education in the UK more broadly, and in higher education specifically, are often framed in terms of the second perspective. An alternative to the reductivist perspectives in 2.2.1 and 2.2.2 is explored next: language as learning. This third perspective provides an educative counterpoint to the former perspectives. Viewing language as learning allows for the possibility that language development is part of the process enmeshed in learning, rather than a precursor to it. This perspective provides a potential 'solution' to the 'problem' outlined above. The fourth perspective - language as a discipline – highlights the considerable literature that investigates language use in academia. Viewing

language as an area of research and investigation provides further resources that can be called upon in the resolution of the ‘language problem’.

2.2.1 Language as transparent medium

The first perspective that I explore on the role of language in learning views language as a transparent conduit of meaning and can lead to discourses of deficit. It is based on the idea that language and thought are separate; thought is expressed unproblematically through language, enabling meaning to flow seamlessly from one person to another. One university pro vice-chancellor uses a revealing metaphor when he describes this prevalent view of language as, "a transparent medium in which we swim" (quoted in Coffin & Donohue, 2014, p.255). It seems to be transparent because of frequent unproblematic examples of communication through language. It ceases to be transparent when a breakdown of communication occurs between the producer and the recipient. Indeed, in higher education language is often only discussed when "the message is not successfully delivered, or the 'appropriate' message is not even attempted" (Turner, 2011, p.29). As a result, language is often referred to as a point of "deficit" (Lillis & Scott, 2007), or lack (see below for further discussion).

This perspective is common in media and political contexts, where language is poorly understood (e.g. Donelan in an article by Adams in the Guardian, 7 Oct 2021). The commonly used ‘spelling, gramma and punctuation’, also known as ‘SPaG’ which is tested in primary school Standard Assessment Tests (SATs) in the United Kingdom, is a common way of representing language in shorthand. However, this representation oversimplifies language as a system with unambiguous, unchanging rules that can provide a one-to-one representation of ideas through their simple application. (For an alternative view, see 2.2.3)

Numerous studies confirm the lack of transparency of language in higher education and they often highlight differences between academic teachers’ and their students’ interpretations. Many of the investigations focus on the language of assessment tasks, the language of assessment criteria, and the language of feedback. For example, Williams (2005) demonstrates that the majority of Chemistry students in his study did not have the same understanding as lecturers of key verbs in assessment tasks, e.g. define, draw, explain. Chanock (2000) found that only 51 per cent of history and

politics students had the same understanding of 'analysis' as academics. Lillis (2001) and Tuck (2018) investigate students' and lecturers' experiences of feedback that is not always understood, and Tuck (2018) describes lecturers' expectations that their carefully written feedback may not even be read. Sutton (2012) also writing about feedback specifically notes the challenge of "mak[ing] academic language accessible to learners from increasingly diverse backgrounds" (p.38). In contrast, Bharuthram and McKenna (2006) offer a positive, more dialogic "writer-respondent intervention implemented to develop the academic literacy practices of students" (p.505). Their research demonstrates that when lecturers work with the understanding that "meaning is constructed through language and that the rules that constrain language go far beyond those of spelling and grammar and include such issues as genre norms and discipline specific conventions" (p.505) (see section 2.2.4), the process can lead to improved writing, high marks, and positive comments from students.

These studies highlight the problem with the discourse of language as a transparent medium: it assumes that all users share an understanding of which language choices to make in which contexts. It assumes that all language users know the full range of language available to them, including lexicogrammatical choices, genres norms and disciplinary preferences.

Another phrase which represents this discourse of transparency is "language as an instrument of communication" (Christie in Boughey, 2002, p.298). Again, this separates the development of language from the development of thought and results in "pathologising the individual" (Boughey, 2002, p.305) rather than investigating the curriculum through which individuals learn. This is a deficit discourse that describes a language user's choices as limited: the individual is lacking (see 2.2.2 for further discussion).

In order to understand the prevalence of the transparency discourse in higher education, it useful to consider its origins. Lillis and Turner (2001) describe how the discourse of transparency derives from a "conduit model" (p.63), which has historical and epistemological links to rationalist, western, scientific thought of the seventeenth century. In this worldview, scientific discoveries were important; knowledge was stored in the mind; and language represented and communicated that knowledge.

Lillis and Turner (2001) further demonstrate the consequences of the concept that language is transparent: academics who have been inducted into the academy have learnt the norms of their disciplines and the associated discourses and therefore perceive their linguistic choices to be natural. These "rhetorical norms have become so ideologically powerful … that they are embedded, yet invisible, within higher education practices" (Lillis & Turner, 2001, p.65). Rhetorical norms are always culturally, and in academia disciplinarily, specific (Hyland, 2004). Without explication, students must be able to acquire the norms of disciplinary discourses through a "pedagogy of osmosis" (Turner, 2011, p.21) that is embedded within the "institutional practice of mystery" (Lillis, 2001, p.58). Lillis (2001) outlines how the "practice of mystery" (p.58) comes from a model of learning as "implicit induction" (p.54) which in the past "seems to have been successful both in relation to the teaching and learning of specific disciplinary knowledge and of academic literacy practices, not least because of the restriction of HE to small numbers of students from privileged backgrounds" (p.54). With widening participation and internationalisation, however, the homogeneous, privileged student cohorts and small numbers are no longer the reality, if they ever were. Therefore, expectations of implicit and osmotic processes adequately enabling the acquisition of discipline-specific language are questionable. Since many lecturers are likely to have been educated themselves through these implicit means, their own knowledge of their disciplinary discourses is likely to be tacit (Elton, 2010) or performative (Murray, 2016). Research has shown that academics can find it difficult to declare their disciplinary expectations (e.g. Bharuthram & McKenna, 2006; McGrath et al, 2019).

To summarise, language is often only referred to explicitly by lecturers when it is seen to be in deficit. When language choices align with a lecturer's expectations, which are based on their own experience of having acquired the appropriate discourses of their disciplines, those choices are invisible. 'Deficient' language may be viewed as an individual student's issue (Boughey, 2002) or the result of a broad decline in standards (see Murray, 2016, and section 2.2.2 below). A discourse of deficit leads to "the prevailing discourse of remediation" and "the predominant technicist model for language work which goes alongside it" (Turner, 2011, p.26). An alternative to the

discourse of deficit is a discourse of development and I explore that in section 2.2.3. (A subsequent discussion of models of language development is presented in 2.3.1.)

2.2.2 Language as a problem of standards

The second perspective of language relevant to my research into stakeholders' views of language development is the view that language is a problem of standards. Discussions of standards and standardisation of language in education often link back to the deficit discourse explored in the previous section.

In order to fill out the discussion of language standards, it is helpful to first look at how it is articulated in primary and second education in the United Kingdom. A critical discourse analysis of language policies in education in schools by Cushing (2020a, see also 2020b) shows that policies tend towards a prescriptive view of language where 'non-standard' use (e.g. dialects) are viewed as incorrect, "often using metaphors of crime" (2020a, p.427). Examples of crime metaphors from Cushing's (2020a) data include primary school teachers stating, "I like to think of myself as the grammar police …" (Claudia, p.437) and "sometimes I say the classroom is a crime scene [laughter]" (Theo, p.435). Moreover, Cushing (2020a) finds that following multiple interpretations between macro, meso and micro-level policies, teachers sometimes refer to curriculum policy to justify language policing; justifications for policing language relate to the suggestion that language is a proxy for academic achievement and standards; and media coverage tends to support prescriptive policies. This deficit approach neither supports an inclusive approach to education, including those with "languages beyond English" (Cunningham, 2019, p.285), nor follows sociolinguistic research that demonstrates 'non-standard' dialects or regional variations are used alongside 'standard' forms by individuals in a complex repertoire of semiotic resources (Snell, 2013). Snell (2013) suggests that even changing discourses from 'deficit' to 'difference' is inadequate, because varieties of English are not always used discretely: spontaneous speech is creative. Instead, educators should acknowledge the full "range of semiotic resources (including standard forms) within speakers' repertoires" (Snell, 2013, p.110), whilst being clear "that some linguistic resources are more highly valued than others, especially within the educational domain" (Snell, 2013, p.112). While this critical discussion of macro, meso and micro-level language policies and their implementation

in schools in the United Kingdom problematises the 'ideal' of linguistic standardisation, there has until recently been little informed discussion of linguistic standards in higher education. That which has been reported is almost always negative.

Representations of language as a problem of standards in higher education have sporadically appeared both in the media, for example, in the Independent's article titled "Universities take students unable to speak English" (Hodges, 1999) and amongst politicians, for example, the former Minister of State for Higher and Further Education, Michelle Donelan, who was "appalled by the decision of some universities to drop literacy standards in assessments" (British Broadcasting Corporation, 2021) in response to an Office for Students (2021a) report. The Office for Students' (2021a) report was based on a review of five case studies that according to the Guardian showed that, "Universities and colleges are failing to mark down students for poor spelling, grammar and punctuation, which is leading to grade inflation" (Adams, 2021). The reason apparently given for this approach to assessment was to improve inclusivity (Office for Students, 2021b) by not disadvantaging certain students. The Daily Mail reports that those students include: "ethnic minorities", "those who went to 'underperforming' schools", "students with conditions such as dyslexia", "disadvantaged students" and "students with English as a second language" (Henry, 2021). Beyond the reductionist representation of language as spelling, grammar and punctuation, such claims encapsulate two common representations of language: firstly, language is conceptualised as a ready-made skill that students should bring to university; secondly, students with certain demographic characteristics or individual needs are allowed to enter university without that ready-made skill. Similar complaints and representations have appeared in the United States of America since the open admissions movement in the 1960s and the description of 'basic writers' whose inexperience was sometimes portrayed as lower intelligence (see Fernsten & Reda, 2011, for a historical account) and in Australia where the English language skills of "international students are problematised as inadequate and the cause of falling academic standards" (Haugh, 2016, p.737).

In the United Kingdom, a recent example of this conceptualisation of language can be found in the aforementioned publication of a preliminary study by the Office for Students (2021a) and in the subsequent consultation and response (Office for

Students, 2022a). The original case study highlighted two concerns that "[s]ome providers' assessment policies are designed in a way that means spelling, punctuation and grammar are not assessed" (p2) and that the reason given for this decision was the "providers' interpretation of the Equality Act 2010" (2021a, p.2). References to "inclusive assessment policies" and "interpretations of the Equality Act and similar legislation" suggest students from a wide range of backgrounds and students with protected characteristics, for example, age, disability, and race. Interestingly, the Office for Students' (2021a) report on which a flurry of newspaper articles (e.g. Somerville, 2021; Tidman, 2021; Woolcock, 2021) was based, provided the following details from a fictionalised case study based on one or more actual universities which highlights "regional differences", suggesting bidialectical students:

> The policy [at University X] is clear that, provided a marker can assess the content of a student's written answer or other learning outcomes effectively, marks should not be reduced on the basis of written expression. This includes, for example, spelling, punctuation, use of grammar, overuse of subclauses, poor paragraph structure and *regional differences in expression*. Markers are actively encouraged to accept spelling grammar or other language mistakes that do not significantly impede communication. (Office for Students, 2021a, p6, italics added)

Whilst this fictionalised university's policy appears to be sympathetic to the fact that there are regional and standard variations of English expression, the Office for Students' (2021a) recommendation was that "most students on most courses should be assessed on their technical proficiency in written English" (p2). In her study of multilingual, bidialectical British students, Preece (2009) highlights how students negotiate their identities and language choices between 'posh' (standard) and 'slang' (local vernacular) English and that students from widening participation backgrounds should be supported by "policies and practices … that are sensitive to the 'linguistic journeys' that these students undertake while at the university" (p.26). Informed by Preece's (2009) recommendation, it is interesting to note that the above case study 'policy', which was paraphrased by the Office for Students in an attempt to maintain the anonymity of their participant universities, included the expectation that language mistakes may occur without "significantly imped[ing] communication" (2021a, p.6). The acceptance of mistakes is explicit, but the number and type of mistakes which are acceptable is necessarily subjective. The acknowledgement of mistakes maps onto linguistic expectations in challenging circumstances. In their chapter on sociocultural

theory and second language development, Lantolf et al (2015) highlight that "[e]ven the most proficient communicators, including native speakers … produce ungrammatical and incoherent utterances" (p.209) for example, or "may require assistance from another person or from objects such as thesaurus, dictionary, or exemplar of a genre specific text" (p.210). Interestingly, the Office for Students found the 'policy' to be a cause for concern. Their finding was that:

> … it seems plausible if not likely that some students are not being assessed on their proficiency in written English. This is because learning outcomes do not include this requirement. In these circumstances we would have concerns about whether the provider's courses are well designed and provide a high-quality academic experience. We would also have concerns about whether the qualifications awarded to students are valued by employers or enable further study. We would consider whether such qualifications represent value for money for students and taxpayers. (2021a, p.11)

The Office for Students (2021a) further indicated they were undertaking a wider review of a larger number of universities, and they stated the specific conditions - B1, B2, B4 and B5 (p.12) – in relation to which "the practices we have seen would be likely to raise concerns" (see Figure 2.1 for details of the conditions). However, there was a significant gap in their paper. Despite the Office for Students' call for assessment to explicitly include linguistic proficiency, nowhere in the document is there any reference to language development being explicitly included in the curriculum. It is a basic tenet of constructive alignment that "we systematically align the teaching/learning activities, as well as the assessment tasks, to the intended learning outcomes … by requiring the students to engage [in] the *learning activities* required in the outcomes" (Biggs & Tang, 2011, p.11, italics in original). This is the situation I represent diagrammatically in Figure 2.4 where effective language use is explicitly assessed and explicitly included as one of the lecturer's objectives.

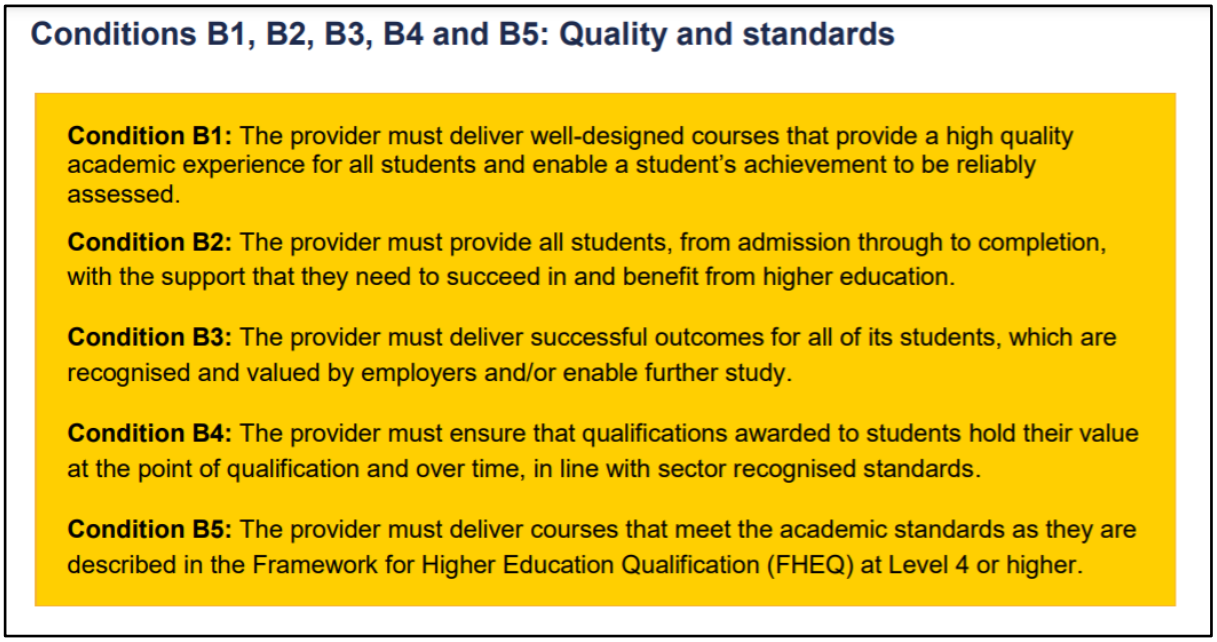


Figure 2.1 Conditions B1 – B5 of the Office for Students' Regulatory Framework (Office for Students, 2018, p.88)

An additional paragraph from the fictionalised case study stated that "technical proficiency in written English should only be assessed if it has been identified as a learning outcome for a module or course. This means that there is no general or universal requirement to assess students' proficiency in written English" (Office for Students, 2021a p.5). This 'policy' extract clearly states that if there are no learning outcomes in relation to language proficiency, students will not be assessed on their language proficiency. Despite any concerns we may have about the extent to which this is possible, the case study at least allows for curricular alignment. In other words, under this policy students are assessed on the content which they will have been taught: students in the case study institutions will not be assessed on language use which they have not been taught.

Responses to the consultation on the Office for Students' recommendations to formally assess English language as part of standard practice highlight some of the concerns described in earlier sections. For example, "[s]everal respondents … suggested that requirements for English language proficiency should vary depending on the type of course, its learning outcomes and the 'graduate destinations' of the course" (Office for Students, 2022, p.42). Others were concerned that the recommendation looked unwelcoming to "students from overseas who combine

learning English with their chosen subject" (Office for Students, 2022, p.42). The relevance of taxpayers and employers was questioned, particularly for international and transnational education students. Moreover, potential contradictions between the recommendations and the public sector equality duty and the Equality Act 2010 were raised, with the specific examples of dyslexic students (e.g. University Alliance, 2021), students "for whom English is a second language" (Office for Students, 2022, p.42), and "those from more disadvantaged backgrounds or those who have come to higher education through less conventional routes and who have less 'cultural capital'" (Office for Students, 2022, p.42).

The Office for Students' response to the last point is that "an approach which does not assess these students in terms of their technical proficiency in the English language does not benefit them and only serves to entrench their disadvantage further" (Office for Students, 2022, p.46). Moreover, the response states, "[i]f a cohort on a course are from particular backgrounds and need greater academic support to succeed, a provider should be taking all reasonable steps to support them in accordance with its condition B2 obligations [to provide students with necessary support to succeed]" (Office for Students, 2022, p.46). Superficially, this seems to be a policy shift in the explicit inclusion of language development provision for students from wide-ranging backgrounds. From October 2022, for the first time in the United Kingdom, higher education institutions will be required to demonstrate that "technical proficiency in English" (Office for Students, 2022, p.49) is assessed. However, the term 'technical proficiency' is not yet defined, and it could be interpreted 'merely' as appropriate spelling, punctuation, and grammar. Moreover, the B2 requirement to provide students with the support they need to succeed is not new, and therefore, is unlikely to instigate new language development provision.

In summary, the Office for Students' publications move from a warning that it is problematic if universities deliberately choose not to assess language – signified as spelling, punctuation, and grammar in written language – to a stated duty that they must assess students' "technical proficiency in English" (Office for Students, 2022, p. 49), although this is not defined. The later document, based on responses to the consultation, acknowledges for the first time (when citing consultation respondents) the complexity of assessing language amongst students from a diverse, non-traditional,

or international (multilingual) background. The improbability of students beginning their higher education with the language they need to succeed is neatly summarised by Bourdieu and Passeron (1994) in their chapter about French students, when they state, “academic language is … no-one’s mother tongue” (p.8). One of the reasons for the persistent discourse of language as a problem of standards, comes from the assumption that language is separate from ideas: language is a conduit, or transparent medium. If instead language was understood as a constitutive part of learning, the importance of explicit language development may gain greater attention in the HE curriculum. This alternative perspective of language development as an integral element in the process of learning is investigated next.

2.2.3 Language as learning

The third perspective on language in higher education offers an alternative to the view that language is a transparent conduit and that texts function ‘autonomously’ (as suggested by Street (1985) and others, for example, Olson in Street (1995)). This third perspective is that language functions to mediate meaning between speaker and hearer, or writer and reader: meaning develops in the process of interactions between people, whether those interactions are mediated through speech or writing. Linguistic codes, e.g. words and intonation, and non-linguistic codes, e.g. body language, visual signs, and silence, are all involved to develop mutual understanding. From this perspective, language is involved in meaning-making through interaction and language develops as understanding develops. This view of language as a constitutive part of learning is promoted by both Vygotsky (1986) and Halliday (1993). Although the content and goals of their research differ, due to their respective psychological and linguistic emphases, “both Halliday and Vygotsky see the use of semiotic tools, and particularly language, as the means whereby, in the course of everyday activity and interaction, the culture is simultaneously enacted and socially ‘transmitted’ to succeeding generations” (Wells, 1994, p. 59). In other words, language and culturally accepted knowledge develop together through interaction. Vygotsky highlights this process:

> “[t]he relation of thought to word is not a thing but a process, a continual movement back and forth from thought to word and from word to thought. In that process, the relation of thought to word undergoes changes that

> themselves may be regarded as development in the functional sense" (1986, p.218).

This captures the essence of the constructivist approach that language is simultaneously a key component of communication and a fundamental element in the development of ideas and therefore learning. The constructivist approach underpins my understanding of the field of study (language development). It is important to note that both Vygotsky and Halliday's research centres on early childhood development. However, others have utilised their theories in educational contexts and more recently in the field of higher education, which I outline below.

In higher education, language development occurs for students as they become acquainted with, and confident using, the discourses of their discipline and of the university in general (see Biber (1996) for a discussion of multiple registers at use in universities). More than three decades ago, Ballard and Clanchy (1988) highlighted that:

> Just as modes of analysis vary with disciplines and with the groups that practise them (physicists, psychologists, and literary critics), so too does language. For the student new to a discipline, the task of learning the distinctive mode of analysis … is indivisible from the task of learning the language of the discipline … One area of development cannot proceed without the other (in Hyland, 2013, p.165).

This quotation indicates two key points that build on the ideas developed above. Firstly, disciplines have their own languages or discourses which students in higher education need to learn. Those discourses are shaped by the disciplinary modes of analysis, for example, how an engineer or a philosopher tackle questions in their disciplines. Secondly, the activities of learning the language and learning the mode of analysis are intertwined.

Coffin and Donohue's more recent work on "language as a social semiotic" (LASS) (2014, p.4) also describes how "knowledge, behaviours, and language develop symbiotically" (p.4). They acknowledge that whilst language is just one of many modes of communication, it is central to the meaning-making process because "it mediates and orchestrates other semiotic modes" (2014, p.258). (See Richards & Pilcher (2018) for a discussion about the importance of non-linguistic modes.) Coffin and Donohue (2014) propose that an approach to learning that acknowledges the centrality of

language, has the potential to “democratize education” (p.36), because it provides “access to institutionally powerful knowledge” (p.36). This is particularly important in universities with diverse populations for whom, as Bourdieu and Passeron (1994) point out, “academic language … is no one's mother tongue” (p.8).

Building on the work of Vygotsky (1986), Bernstein (1996) and Hasan (2005, 2011), Coffin and Donohue (2014) provide useful visual representations of the processes of semiotic mediation in two higher education scenarios: when a lecturer explains something to a student; and when a student presents their understanding to a lecturer, for example, during an assessment.

In the process of teaching and learning, one of the key inputs is the lecturer communicating to the student (alongside reading materials, online resources, and peers, etc.). This communication is a form of *intermental* semiotic mediation – the making of meaning between people (see Figure 2.2). The lecturer’s goal is to reconfigure the student’s conceptual structures and processes: “to support their learning” (Coffin & Donohue, 2014, p.28). The student’s role is the “internalization of concepts and the relationships between them: it is this process we call understanding” (Hasan, 2011, p.69). This latter step is a form of *intramental* semiotic mediation, where the work of interpretation is done internally.

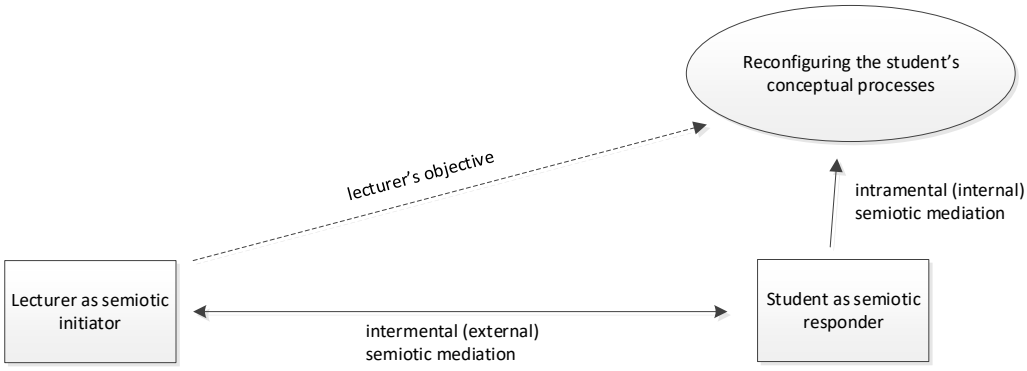


Figure 2.2 Semiotic mediation in lecturer-led communication (based on Coffin and Donohue, 2014, p.28)

The second scenario (see Figure 2.3) involves the student presenting their work (written or spoken) to their lecturer in order for the lecturer to understand what the student has understood. The intermental semiotic mediation between the student and

the lecturer in this scenario should lead to a better understanding of what the student now knows. In both scenarios (represented in Figures 2.2 and 2.3), language is fundamental to the processes of teaching, learning and assessment.

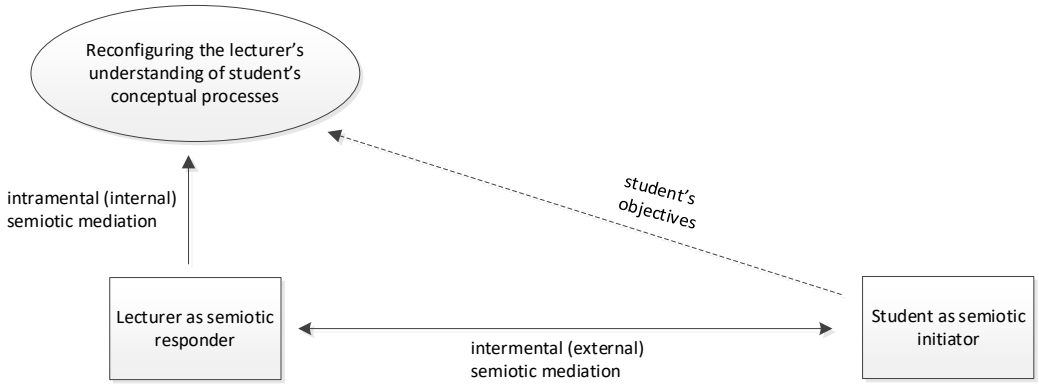


Figure 2.3 Semiotic mediation in student-led communication for assessment (based on Coffin and Donohue, 2014, p.29)

In the context of assessment, however, there is a further way in which language is key. In my adaptation of the previous figures (Figure 2.4), I make visible the point that either explicitly (if language or communication are included in assessment criteria) or implicitly, the lecturer is also evaluating the student's effective language use. In order to allow for constructive alignment within the curriculum (Biggs and Tang, 2011; see 2.2.2), the lecturer's objectives would also need to include the development of effective language use in order for students to have a fair chance of succeeding. Indeed, this seems to be the expectation of the United Kingdom's Office for Students (2018; see section 2.2.2).

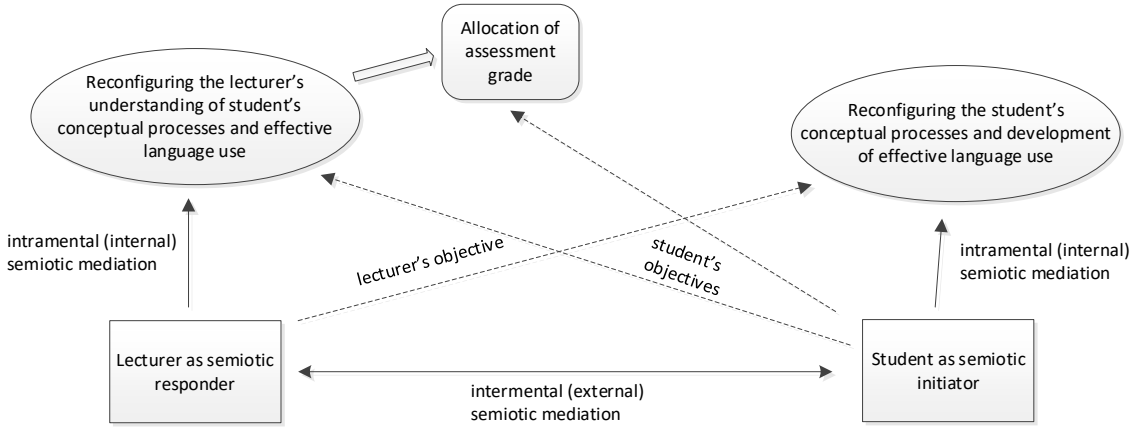


Figure 2.4 Semiotic mediation in student-led communication for assessment (adapted from Coffin and Donohue, 2014, p.29)

The perspective of language as learning which I have explored here highlights the centrality of language in learning. From this perspective, language is a semiotic tool enabling meaning-making through interaction. The learning of disciplinary content and the learning of disciplinary discourses are intertwined. However, typically only the former, disciplinary content, is explicit in the curriculum. An approach to learning that acknowledges and "gives due recognition to the role of language and literacy in the construction of academic knowledge" (Wingate, 2015, p.99) and which has the power to contribute to the democratisation of education contrasts with much current practice in which the roles of language and linguistic choices go unnoticed (Turner, 2011; Coffin & Donohue, 2014; Wingate, 2015). The explicit teaching of academic language and literacy in context will be discussed further in section 2.3 and the lens of language as a social semiotic provides a framework for analysis throughout the research (see Chapter 4 for data analysis details).

One advantage of this model of language as a social semiotic, as described above, is that it specifically relates language development to processes of learning (intramental semiotic mediation in Figure 2.4). This is extremely useful in the higher education context of this research. It is also useful in providing a definition of "effective language use" which is part of my research question. In this model "effective language use" means the reconfiguration of someone else's understanding. A further advantage of the model of language as a social semiotic is that it makes invisible processes visible through its diagrammatic representation. It enables discussion of an abstract concept. However, this model of language also has limitations. One limitation is that it does not represent dynamic processes of language change through interaction; language appears to be static. In an alternative model, Canagarajah (2013) describes the dynamic process of language use as when "semiotic resources in one's repertoire or in society interact …, become part of an integrated resource, and enhance each other" (p.8). Canagarajah's (2013) alternative model of language as "translingual practice" provides insights into linguistic practices such as "codemeshing" (p.113) by which students "merge diverse codes" (p.113) as a way of maintaining their voice. His model resonates with the context of this research in its acknowledgement that even, "[t]hose who are considered monolingual are typically proficient in multiple registers, dialects, and discourses of a given language" (p.8). However, he also acknowledges that this

approach is risky, because “dominant orientations to literacy are not friendly to translingual writing” (p. 127). For that reason, whilst I acknowledge the importance of enabling transformative, rather than normative practices, for the purposes of this research, I have used the lens of language as a social semiotic.

The discussion of alternative models of language brings us to the next perspective of language: language as a discipline. This perspective explores the wide-ranging research that has been published on language in higher education. This final perspective extends the idea that there is a ‘solution’ to the ‘problem’ of language, by highlighting ways in which research into language in higher education can contribute to language development.

2.2.4 Language as a discipline

The fourth perspective on language in higher education views language as a disciplinary area of study itself. The three perspectives outlined earlier – language as transparent medium, language as a problem of standards, and language as learning – sit alongside 40 years’ worth of research and scholarship on language in higher education (Hyland & Jiang, 2021). This research and scholarship is captured in journals, books, conferences, and over a dozen professional bodies (BALEAP, 2021) are dedicated to its furtherance. The discipline is referred to in the United Kingdom and elsewhere as English for Academic Purposes (EAP). English for Academic Purposes developed initially as a branch of English as a foreign or second language (EFL or ESL) as a response to the increase in international second language students in UK universities and in the USA in the 1970s (Benesch, 2001; Ding & Bruce, 2017). Interestingly this contrasts with the pattern of language development provision triggered by goals of accessibility for American students in north America since the 1970s, specifically Writing across the Curriculum (WAC) and Writing in the Disciplines (WID) (Russell, 2002). In its development as a discipline, English for Academic Purposes has incorporated research from a range of theoretical approaches including: systemic functional linguistics (based on the work of Halliday, e.g. Coffin & Donohue, 2014); corpus studies (e.g. Biber, 2006; and Coxhead’s (2000) Academic Word List); discourse and genre analysis (e.g. Hyland, 2004; Nesi and Gardner’s work on student genres, 2012); the development of genre knowledge (Tardy, 2009); critical EAP (Benesch,

2001; Harwood & Hadley, 2004; Khany & Tarlani-Aliabadi, 2016); academic literacies based on 'New Literacy Studies' (Lea & Street, 2000; Lillis, 2001, Wingate & Tribble, 2012); and aspects of Legitimation Code Theory, which provides a framework that can be used to analyse social practices (e.g. semantic waves which trace the moves between abstract, decontextualised concepts and concrete, context-dependent meanings, see Maton, 2020). Each form of linguistic analysis offers descriptive and/or theoretical information about the language choices that are valued in higher education. Each contributes to language experts' decisions when planning and delivering language development provision. As close linguistic analyses have increased in number, our understanding that lecturers' preferred linguistic choices are dependent on disciplinary, genre-based and epistemological contexts has become increasingly nuanced. Even apparently cognate disciplines can exhibit significantly different language choices and genres, as demonstrated by Gimenez's work (2008, 2012) on nursing and midwifery discourse practices. As a result, any suggestion that a generic academic language exists outside of specific contexts has been quashed (Wingate, 2015; Hyland, 2018).

Although linguistic theories draw on a variety of different epistemological stances, some researchers and practitioners have tried to bring them together. For example, Wingate and Tribble (2012) highlight that whilst EAP has developed many linguistic and pedagogic approaches to language development, it has focussed too closely on the needs of international multilingual (second language) students, whereas academic literacies have focussed on the needs of non-traditional (e.g. widening participation) students. Significantly, the latter approach, academic literacies, provides a sociocultural view which expands the focus on language choices to include the identities of individuals in and knowledge-construction contexts of higher education in which those choices are made. Wingate (2015) calls for "inclusive practice" in which theoretical and pedagogic EAP expertise can be made available to all students, regardless of nationality, language, or background.

Whilst an inclusive approach is appealing in terms of democratising access to education, it also has challenges. Hurst (2013), writing about the South African university context, highlights students' experiences in which a university-wide approach to including academic literacies development was deemed useful but

insufficient: students for whom English was an additional language requested language proficiency development as well. In this scenario, where multiple linguistic needs are identified, Murray's (2010, 2016) tripartite view of language proficiency can play a useful role. The tripartite model caters for the wide range of background issues which I have touched on – widening participation and internationalisation – as well as the demands on higher education to prepare a workforce for the future. Murray (2010, 2016) recommends the tripartite model of linguistic proficiency as "a strategic response to the 'English language question'" (2016, p.88), because it identifies specific aspects of language use development for higher education: "General proficiency; Academic literacy; [and] Professional communication skills" (2016, p.88, capitals in original). This, he suggests, provides a framework on which to base institutional provision, although he acknowledges the challenges in terms of culture change, funding, and professional development that it entails. As a point of contrast to this model, current approaches to the development of effective language use are presented in sections 2.3.1 and 2.3.2.

For those involved in the delivery of language development provision, for example, EAP lecturers such as myself, research into discipline-specific language use, language pedagogies, and models of language provision, are fundamental to our professional expertise. The research detailed above underpins our practices and offers us models and theories that we can share with other stakeholders, for example, to elicit colleagues' tacit knowledge (McGrath et al, 2019) or to collaborate (see Chapters 6 and 7 – case studies with EAP lecturers and a subject lecturer). The perspective of language as a discipline is important to emphasise, because it has the potential to challenge and to 'solve' the 'problem' of language.

This section has explored four perspectives on language in higher education: language as a transparent medium; language as a problem of standards; language as learning; and language as a discipline. These perspectives are important because they have different implications for the provision of language development. For example, if language is perceived as a ready-made tool that everyone has access to, there should be no need for any developmental provision: remedial 'support' might be made

available for those viewed as lacking. If, in contrast, language development is viewed as part of the process of learning a discipline, it might be included within the curriculum. I explore and critique different approaches to language development provision in the following section.

2.3 Approaches to language development provision

Differing perspectives on the role of language in learning suggest different forms of provision for the development of effective language use. If a higher education institution wants to develop a coherent policy towards the development of effective language use, the policy would ideally be informed by a clear conceptualisation of language development. A clearly stated conceptualisation – whilst not necessarily shared by all – could guide policy and inform provision, which could then be monitored to gauge impact. Impact is always difficult to measure in complex educational contexts, but having a clear conceptualisation of the goal, could help policy makers to evaluate provision.

This section discusses forms of language development provision that are based on the idea of 'support', language development provision based on the idea of 'integration' and the role that policy or strategy can play in language development provision.

2.3.1 Language development as support

When language choices align with a lecturer's expectations, which are based on their own experience of having acquired the appropriate discourses of their disciplines, those choices are usually invisible. When they do not align, lecturers sometimes struggle to describe what the problems are and may focus on "surface features" (Lea & Street, 1998, p.162) such as "syntax, punctuation and layout" (Lea & Street, 1998, p.162) or refer to concepts such as "'structure and argument' … 'analysis'" (Lea & Street, 1998, p.163) which "have more to do with issues of epistemology than with surface features of form" (Lea & Street, 1998, p.162). Language use which differs from lecturers' expectations may be viewed as an individual student's issue (see Boughey, 2002, in 2.2.1 above) or the result of a broad decline in standards (e.g. Office for

Students, 2021a, in 2.2.2). In either case, lecturers may refer students to support services, which may be central to the institution (for example a skills centre), more locally within a department or faculty, or even externally, to outsourced private companies who give feedback on student writing (Tuck, 2018), for example, Studiosity (Benzie & Harper, 2020; Gurney & Grossi, 2019). Viewing language as a deficit therefore implies that language development should be provided by support 'services' that 'treat' the individual 'problem' (Tuck, 2018).

Language support in higher education can take a number of forms. Many forms of provision fall outside of a student's main course of study, including: generic skills workshops, generic language-focussed workshops for multilingual students, one-to-one appointments, online resources, and printed materials (Barthel in Arkoudis et al, 2012; Wingate, 2015). All of these sources of support may be useful to the student, if the student can absorb the information or feedback provided to them and can then relate it to their studies. Students may also be more likely to access such provision if they feel it is personally relevant, accessible and in a safe space away from lecturers whom they do not want to feel embarrassed in front of. However, students can find it difficult to see how skills presented in "bolt-on" provision contrasted with "built-in" provision (Wingate, 2006, p.457) are transferable to their degree programme when those skills are "taught in a generic context" (Sloan & Porter, 2010, p.202). Moreover, the presentation of a generic academic language "trivialises and marginalises the role of academic language and literacy" (Wingate, 2015, p.40). Even advisors who provide generic one-to-one support opportunities can themselves become frustrated with the apparent role of a "Mr Fix-it" (Tuck, 2018, p.36). This is because their work is often unappreciated if students do make progress, or worse, they feel that they let the student down if they can see that the student's 'problems' cannot be 'fixed' by a session from someone who is not a specialist in the student's disciplinary field (Tuck, 2018). Gurney and Grossi (2019) further critique the separation of Academic Language and Learning (ALL) advisors from disciplinary colleagues in the structures of some Australian universities. They highlight the conflict between the agendas that ALL advisors are tasked to meet in providing one-to-one consultations, ie. "to improve accessibility of higher study and retention of diversifying student cohorts" (p.940), and their own understandings of deep approaches to learning, understood here as a

prioritisation of understanding meaning and content over performance (Prosser & Trigwell, 1999). Participants in Gurney and Grossi's (2019) study also indicated that the one-to-one consultation format frames "academic literacy skills as able to be taught without reference to content" (Gurney & Grossi, 2019, p.947) and increases the possibility that students "come to rely on advisors to 'fix' their work" (Gurney & Grossi, 2019, p.947). The same risks could clearly apply to outsourced feedback companies.

A key challenge here is that lecturers and students absorb discourses of deficit (Fernsten & Reda, 2011; Tuck, 2018). They may also be unaware of the expertise available to them within the institution (Gurney & Grossi, 2019). Perhaps most significantly, however, institutionally, "it is much easier to apply solutions that are skills-based" Badenhorst et al (2015, p.2) than to effect change across a whole university curriculum (Wingate, 2006). Examples of integrated curricula do exist, however, and they are explored next.

2.3.2 Language development integrated within the curriculum

An alternative to providing language development as an extra-curricular activity for students 'in deficit' is to integrate language development within the curriculum. In the United States, two approaches to the curricular development of writing are Writing Across the Curriculum (WAC) and Writing in the Disciplines (WID) (Russell, 2002). The former is exemplified by a compulsory English for Academic Purposes module taken by all undergraduate students in a UK university (Hathaway, 2015 writing about the American International University in London); however, only one UK university uses this approach. In the US, composition and rhetoric modules also exemplify this WAC approach (Tardy & Jwa, 2016). Whilst the WAC approach nominally embeds one aspect of language development into the curriculum and whilst there is scope in this type of course for students to make links with writing on the rest of their course, there is also a risk that WAC models which take a generic approach to writing as a skill reinforce the idea that language is transparent (Russell, 2002). Improving writing through WAC modules separates the development of effective language use away from any disciplinary context, making it difficult for students to transfer what they learn to their discipline-based courses.

A discipline-specific approach, in contrast, enables students to learn the discoursal expectations of their disciplines. This approach is referred to as Writing in the Disciplines (WID) in the United States of America. Discipline-specific provision is reported internationally and includes: discipline-specific credit-bearing courses (e.g. Lobo & Gurney, 2014); integrating writing in course curricula (e.g. Mitchell & Evison, 2006; Thinking Writing, 2020); or even a shift toward a "whole of course approach" (e.g. Harris, 2016). Wingate (2015) provides a useful framework for this kind of work: "academic literacy windows" in which windows of time are regularly given to highlight specific aspects of language in a student's main course. A key aspect of many disciplinary-specific approaches is collaboration. Clarence (2012), for example, demonstrates the benefits of a collaborative approach between language experts and academics when they have the opportunity to talk and can agree that "critical reading, thinking and writing are literacy acts rather than generic skill and must therefore be learned and practiced in the disciplines" (Clarence, 2012, p.127), although she, and others, acknowledge the challenges this raises in terms of academics' confidence and capacity.

Four significant barriers to this approach can be identified: the perception of lack of time for teaching content which subject lecturers often feel (Murray, 2016); the lack of explicit or declarative discourse knowledge (Elton, 2010; Murray, 2016; McGrath et al, 2019); the lack of confidence amongst some academics in developing students' language (Tuck, 2018); and the lack of enthusiasm for additional top-down change in the face of regular demands to meet national or local agendas e.g. the employability agenda (Murray, 2016; Murray & Nallaya, 2016).

Collaboration between language experts and subject experts to embed language development activities into the curriculum can begin to counter lack of declarative knowledge and confidence. Numerous small-scale projects to embed language development activities into the curriculum have been reported (e.g. Lillis et al 2015) and very many are collaborative endeavours (see Li, 2020, for a review). Collaborations have been reported in the United Kingdom (e.g. Sloan & Porter, 2010; Mitchell & Evison, 2006), in South Africa (e.g. Clarence, 2012; Jacobs, 2005, 2010), in Sweden (e.g. Bergman, 2016), in Singapore (e.g. Jaidev & Chan, 2018), and in Australia (e.g. Chanock, 2013; Maldoni, 2017). Collaboration between language and subject experts

provides the latter with opportunities to articulate what they want from students (Purser et al, 2008). In addition, the "unpacking" of disciplinary discourses by a subject lecturer and the further "unpacking" of disciplinary-specific language by a language expert means, "that students are able to bypass the slow process of 'osmosis' that is the more common means of acquiring such skills and can more quickly and systematically learn the skills appropriate to their discipline" (Hampton et al, 2003, p.26). Moreover, the integration of effective language use into the curriculum indicates its importance to students (Murray, 2016). As Li (2020) points out, however, language-content collaborations have not become common practice for a number of reasons. These reasons include: the time needed at all stages of collaboration (Thies, 2016); different understandings about academic language and literacies (Thies & Rosario, 2019); difficulties in relationships (Jacobs, 2010); the persistence of a "deep-rooted deficit view of literacy" (Li, 2020, p.504); and internal institutional politics (Murray & Nallaya, 2016).

In the face of scepticism and cynicism amongst academics of another top-down demand for curriculum change Murray and Nallaya (2016) suggest that for it to be received positively:

> It requires more than a good idea that is theoretically well informed; it also requires leadership (even charisma), good networking skills, an understanding of the local political climate, astuteness, the active support of senior management, a clear roll-out strategy, good channels of communication, clearly articulated consequences for failure to comply and a good deal of perseverance on the part of those driving change. (p.1306)

The above requirements are important for any university-wide approaches to language development to succeed. The next section provides further discussion of policy or strategy level approaches which can support the successful implementation of language development provision.

2.3.3 Policy-level approaches to academic language development

The above section demonstrates that there are numerous forms which language development provision can take. However, without a university-wide commitment and approach to language development, students' access to the opportunity to have explicit teaching about the linguistic expectations of their lecturers will be local, small-

scale, and ultimately piecemeal. This is amply demonstrated by the very large number of small-scale projects reported in the literature (see 2.3.1 and 2.3.2).

In terms of creating access to language development opportunities and the implementation of institution-wide policies, the most wide-ranging and influential study to date was funded by the Australian government and led to ten good practice principles for universities to use with second language students (Department of Education, Employment and Workplace Relations, 2009). These principles were later used as the basis for the introduction of quality assessment of institutional English Language Proficiency development provision for all students (Tertiary Education Quality and Standards Agency, 2013; see Moore and Harrington (2016) for a detailed discussion). Despite subsequent reforms limiting the authority of TEQSA (Moore and Harrington, 2016), the direction of language policy is one acknowledgement that language development is not solely concerned with second language speakers and that institutions, not just individual students and staff, have a role to play in developing opportunities for students to access language development. From the original study across a range of institutions in Australia, Dunworth et al (2014) identify eight factors that are key for the successful implementation of a university-level language policy: leadership, expertise, consultation, time, unity, resourcing, educational integrity, and sustainability.

Leadership is also highlighted by Murray and Hicks (2016) alongside a shared understanding of what the goal is. Having an institutional understanding of what constitutes effective language use is particularly important in the decentralised model of language provision suggested by Murray and Hicks (2016). Other research highlights the variability of Australian universities' responses to the requirement for university-wide language development provision. Much of this literature focusses on implementation structures, including “rhizomatic” or distributed management (Benzie, Pryce & Smith, 2017), “decentralised” management (Murray & Muller, 2018) and centralised management (e.g. Fenton-Smith & Humphreys, 2015). The challenge of implementing a university-wide systematic approach, while maintaining local (disciplinary or course) relevance unites all meso-level policy approaches. Without a steer from the Office of Students, it will be a forward-looking UK university that is prepared to offer leadership and resources to embed language development across its

provision. However, regular reviews of student feedback, course structures, support systems and staffing do take place, and it may be that they provide the opportunity to start conversations about language development within the curriculum.

2.4 Summary

This chapter highlights different perspectives on the role of language in learning in higher education and the implications of those perspectives for different forms that language development provision may take. Views of language as a transparent conduit can lead to the separation of language as a set of skills that can be taught as if language can exist without context. This is institutionally easier than a consideration of language development as part of the curriculum. However, language is either explicitly or implicitly evaluated when lecturers grade written or oral assignments. Therefore, courses should include explicit instruction in order to at least raise students' awareness, if not encourage practice of new discourses and genres. This chapter provides the contextual and theoretical background to my research question: How do stakeholders account for the development of effective language use in higher education contexts? The following chapter presents the methodological approach I used to answer my question, including a description of the specific context of provision at the university which forms the overarching "quintain" (Stake, 2006, pp4-6) for the multiple case study.

Chapter 3 Methodological approach

3.1 Introduction

In this chapter, I introduce the overall methodological approach that I have used to answer the research question: how do stakeholders account for the development of effective language use in higher education contexts? I describe how the approach is based on a constructionist epistemology that underpins my understanding of the field of study, language development, and my research design. In Chapter 4, I explain the data collection methods used across the three cases which comprise the multiple case study and I outline the inductive, qualitative data analysis that I have used. For now, the current chapter includes an exploration of my own positionality in relation to the research, ethical considerations, the changing context in which the research took place, and how these factors influenced the research design. I also indicate limitations of the research and areas for improvement in relation to the research design.

3.2 Constructionist paradigm and qualitative data

Guided by the open-ended research question, "How do stakeholders account for the development of effective language use in higher education contexts?", I work within a constructionist paradigm. A constructionist paradigm is a worldview which rejects the positivist notion that there is a singular reality which can be observed and understood purely objectively by a neutral, value-free observer as if it were possible to understand reality by watching, detached, through a one-way mirror (Guba & Lincoln, 1989). As Gergen (2023) notes, "our understandings of the world – what we claim to be real, rational, and good – emerge from the social processes in which we participate" (p.5). There are ontological, epistemological, and methodological implications of researching within a constructionist paradigm. Ontologically, constructionists accept that there are multiple realities which are shaped by the ways each of us interacts with the world: people, experience, nature, and ideas. As such, realities are constructed and "phenomena are defined depending on the kind and amount of prior knowledge and the level of sophistication that the constructor brings to the task" (Guba and Lincoln, 1989, p.86). Epistemologically, there is no duality, or separation between observer and the observed that allows for purely objective and uncontaminated study. Hence, I

acknowledge, “the findings of an investigation are the *literal creation* of the inquiry process” (Guba & Lincoln, 1989, p.84, italics in original). In Gergen’s (2023) words, “[w]hatever the nature of the world, there is no single array of words, graphs, or pictures uniquely suited to its portrayal” (p.72). A different researcher with a different process would generate different findings. Therefore, transparency and self-reflexivity are essential: data collection and analysis processes are made explicit throughout this thesis. Methodologically, as well as ensuring that interactions are transparent and self-reflexive, research in a constructionist paradigm “leads to successively better *understanding*” (Guba & Lincoln, 1989, p.89, italics in original) by eliciting existing constructions, “sense-makings” (Guba & Lincoln, 1989, p.89) and aims to gather, critique, consolidate and develop “improved (joint) constructions” (Guba & Lincoln, 1989, p.90, brackets in the original). The iterative approach of gathering data from stakeholder groups across three case studies and recursively analysing that data through “constant comparison” (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) is outlined below. In short, this constructionist approach entails a subjectivist epistemology, a relativist ontology, and a dialectical methodology.

A constructionist approach considers the data collected for research as a collaborative production of meanings (Toma, 2006). For example, transcripts of interviews do not represent a series of singularly true facts that have been revealed as series of questions and answers. Instead, they represent the co-creation of meanings through shared understandings (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009). Those understandings are shaped by existing discourses, metaphors, and imagery which the researcher (me) and the participants utilise to respond to each other’s interactions. A constructionist approach considers not only what has been said, the content of the data, but how it has been said, for example, what values, beliefs, or discourses – by which I mean ways “of signifying a particular domain of social practice from a particular position” (Fairclough, 1995, p.14) - are brought into play during the gathering of data. This approach concords with the aims of the research project: to illuminate stakeholders’ experiences and discourses of language development in higher education.

In this research, the ultimate goal of creating a framework of concepts based on the data is premised on the understanding that themes are not found to be pre-existing in data, but are produced by me through a series of dialogues. These dialogues started

between myself and other experts in the field as I read across a range of relevant literature; they carried on between me and the participants as I collected data; and they continued as I codified and thematised the data; and re-engaged with the literature. The dialogue now extends beyond this process as readers of this thesis interact with my texts and apply their own knowledge, experience, and interpretations to the work. It is important for me to make explicit the constructionist research paradigm because that requires me to be transparent about my multiple positionalities in relation to this research (see next section).

The research is qualitative because I want to explore individual people's experiences and accounts of language development. The aim of the research is to develop a conceptually 'credible' framework, rather than one based on statistical significance, frequency, or prevalence. Credibility is established when it has "truth value" (Miles, Huberman & Saldaña, 2014, p.312) for the audience. In other words, those reading the research find that it makes sense, or if participants are able to access it, they find that it "resonates" (Toma, 2006, p.413). Whilst quantitative approaches, such as text analysis of student work, or large-scale questionnaires investigating stakeholders' perceptions, or pre-and post- intervention assessments, may seem more suitable to those who seek a positivistic understanding of language development, my aim is to illuminate the complexities of the lived experiences and social constructions of the development of effective language use in universities. I use a multiple case study approach, as defined by Stake (2006), to do this (see section 3.4 below).

3.3 Positionality

An important consequence of choosing a constructionist paradigm is that I state my own positionality in relation to this research. Positionality theory is a complex area. For Kezar (2000), it is useful because "positionality theory … suggests that … power conditions shape perspectives" (p.723). In the production of knowledge, it is important that any such power and perspectives need to be acknowledged, and in some approaches to knowledge production, for example those with a critical or social justice perspective, they should be negated (Toma, 2006). Due to the fundamental role of the researcher as a research tool in qualitative research, it is particularly important that researcher positionality and researcher perspectives are made explicit. It makes sense

therefore that positionality is increasingly being explored and included as an aspect of methodology in qualitative research (Macbeth, 2001). Texts which consider positionality refer to issues of author subjectivity, reflexivity, and identity (Bourke, 2014). Authors who refer to 'positionality' in reports of qualitative research acknowledge the fact that their texts are influenced by the author's personal identity and experience. Macbeth (2001) provides a useful definition of 'positional reflexivity' as "tak[ing] up the analyst's (uncertain) position and positioning in the world he or she studies and is often expressed with a vigilance for unseen, privileged, or worse, exploitative relationships between analyst and the world" (p.38). To state my positionality, therefore, is to acknowledge the identities, experience, bias, interests, roles, and other influences which can and do play a part in all aspects of the research process. To state my positionality is also to acknowledge the possibility of potentially "exploitative relationships" (Macbeth, 2001, p.38) which may unconsciously exist between me and the participants, and between me and the understanding I seek in relation to my research question: How do stakeholders account for the development of students' language use in higher education contexts? More subtly, I also need to remain sensitive at points where I interpret data from different stakeholders. This sensitivity is important because I am also one of those stakeholders (see 3.3.3).

In reports of quantitative research, 'positionality' appears to be reported less frequently than in qualitative research. In line with the epistemological illusion of objectivity, the researcher is often less visible in the narration of the research activities and in the interpretation of results through linguistic choices "using language acceptable to quantitative researchers" (Creswell, 2014, p.221). An example of this different epistemological stance comes from an article on "Effective Reporting of Quantitative Data" from the British Journal of Occupational Therapy. It states that:

> Most journals expect quantitative papers to conform to a 'scientific' style of writing. This style puts the researcher firmly in the back seat, distancing the process of the research as much as possible from any influence of the researcher. Most research journals use the convention of writing in the third person passive (for example, "It was found that …" rather than "We found that ...") (Campbell, Corr, & Jones, 2005, p.495)

With increased studies of academic discourse, the use of the passive is now increasingly understood as a "rhetorical move that functions to *suggest* rather than to demonstrate rigour" (Cousin, 2010, p.10, my emphasis). My goal here is not to critique

these authors, but to highlight that different epistemologies have different expectations of what and how to report. Here I will explore the literature and my own positionality in terms of identity, experience, context, and motives, and then provide possible criteria for judging rigour and trustworthiness in this research.

3.3.1 Identity

Commonly, positionality is used to report aspects of a researcher's identity such as race, ethnicity, class, gender, and sexuality (Berger, 2015). This enables a reflexive approach, in which the researcher is aware of any biases they may bring to the research process and context. For example, I can state that I am a white, educated, female, British, cisgender, first language (L1) English speaker researcher. This statement may lead us to consider the effect of belonging to multiple categories, some of which may be defined as "oppressed" (Cousin, 2010, p.20) or "privileged" (Cousin, 2010, p.20). However, as Cousin, (2010) indicates, this simple categorisation can oversimplify an individual. Whilst any single category might make me an insider with a group of participants, it could make me an outsider with another group.

More important, perhaps, than a simple alignment of categories, is a sense of having something in common, for example, values or interests. Bourke (2014) highlights this in his reflective article on his positionality as a white male studying black students' experiences. Despite his initial assumption that he would gain insider status with the white group of participants, in fact, he ultimately felt that by emphasising his shared identity as a student nearing graduation, he developed a greater insider status with "students of color … with the end goal of graduation in sight" (p.5) than with the "White students who … were all first year students" (Bourke, 2014, p.5, capital in the original). This is perhaps even more surprising given that many of the former group were also women. He concludes that "mutual respect" (Bourke, 2014, p.6) is more important than personal categorising characteristics. It would, of course, be interesting to get the participants' perspective on this. Nevertheless, if we accept this viewpoint, the question for this research changes from "what is my identity?" to "what is the basis of mutual respect in this project?" I suggest that given the explicit information provided to participants about the investigative focus on language development (see sample information sheet in Appendix 1), I can assume a shared value of improved

student experience and performance as a common interest between myself and the participants. This in itself highlights the fact that through the process of informed consent, participants became self-selecting, and I need to remember the limitations of any findings I uncover from that sample.

I would like to suggest (in line with Bourke), that specific autobiographical experiences and motives are as pertinent to my own positionality as the identity categories outlined above, although I note that the identity categories to which I belong will have blinkered my view to some extent (e.g. being white in UK higher education). Macbeth (2001) points out this very awareness is essential throughout my work in order to ensure that my research does not lead to a "'levelling' [of] the world with a singular, objectivizing narrative voice …" (p.39). In reporting my research, it is important for me to ensure that the multiplicity of identities and voices of participants are represented.

3.3.2 Experience

If identity categorises only provide a partial understanding of positionality, then formative experiences must be one of the added aspects of positionality worth investigating. As Macbeth (2001) highlights, "[a] positionally reflexive view … implicates a disciplined view and articulation of one's analytically situated self, and for some researchers …, positional reflexivity has directly autobiographical … attachments" (p.38). For this research, therefore, it is relevant that I was in the first generation of my family to go to university. It is relevant that I studied in Japan as an international student (who was barely literate in Japanese) as part of my undergraduate degree. It is also relevant that as an undergraduate of Japanese Studies and Economics, I chose to write a dissertation on the largely hidden illiterate community of 'Burakumin' people in Japan for which I was supervised by a sociology lecturer. Almost every line of the draft dissertation I submitted was marked "Rewrite", as I struggled to negotiate the style, format, and discourse of what I subsequently realised was an undergraduate sociology dissertation. I had never read academic sociological texts. In retrospect, my choice of dissertation topic did not map onto the discourses I had studied: Japanese newspapers and economics texts. At the time, I was not aware of discoursal or generic differences between disciplines. There was no opportunity to discuss what needed to be rewritten, or why, or what effective

language use looked like in an undergraduate sociology dissertation. These biographical details contribute to my research question: How do different stakeholders account for the development of effective language use in higher education contexts? They also provide me with a shared understanding of what it can feel like to be an outsider in an academic context.

I note here the risk of my own preconceptions based on my own experience from entering and influencing the study (Berger, 2015). To overcome these risks, Hurst (2008) provides useful strategies from her own phenomenological research that my research benefits from: being clear in interview contexts that my role is to echo rather than lead conversations; to return to the data when I have developed my own conclusions; to compare with the literature; and to ask others. These could be summarised as good interview technique (cf. Kvale and Brinkmann, 2009, p.166-7) and member checking or auditing (Creswell, 2014, p.286). Berger (2015) adds that the use of a log in which a researcher notes "what was said … why it may mean …, and what he or she felt" (p.230) and allowing a time lapse between initial analysis and review can help identify influences from the researchers' own experience. I used these strategies throughout my research which I demonstrate in the descriptions of the data collection (section 4.1) and data analysis (section 4.2) below. See also Appendix 2, for a sample log.

Other transformative experiences include teaching on an English language pre-sessional course at an arts and social science based university in the United Kingdom where the theme of all the readings and lectures designed to develop students' language related to postmodern thought. This was my first educational encounter with a non-positivist tradition, and it changed my world-view. Teaching about the end of grand narratives (Sim, 1998) in an English language pre-sessional course upturned much of what I previously "knew". Following that, although less obviously relevant, I studied yoga for 4 months at an Ashram. These last two experiences clarified for me the importance of acknowledging the 'now'ness of our knowledge (Wood, 1954): what we know is transitory - research and knowledge creation are ongoing. My understanding of the research question has shifted since I started the study. Some aspects of my positionality are fluid, and the context in which the research has taken place is under constant change.

In relation to this research, these factors are important because the writing of my thesis follows the development of my contribution to knowledge, as opposed to presenting it as a fixed contribution upon completion.

3.3.3 Context

Beyond the historical detail, it is important that I disclose the fact that as well as being a PhD student, I am an academic at the university where I am studying: I teach and do research. I am also a junior manager, with responsibility for a subject area. This complicates matters. Mercer (2007) summarises the dilemmas of insider research as well as noting potential advantages (e.g. better access) and disadvantages (e.g. researchers' pre-conceptions). She acknowledges risks of "informant bias, interview reciprocity and research ethics" (p.13) in particular highlighting the potential significance of insider research by academic managers. She concludes that the "researcher's relationship with the researched is not static, but fluctuates constantly, shifting back and forth along a continuum of possibilities, from one moment to the next, from one location to the next, from one interaction to the next, and even from one discussion topic to the next" (p.13). These fluctuations are perhaps evidenced most explicitly in the iterative inductive thematic coding and analytic memos used across the three case studies (see Appendix 3)

My multiple roles mean that I had to be explicit with participants in every interaction that was related to my research. These participants included colleagues who I managed (EAP lecturers), colleagues who were hierarchically above me (academic leaders), and a colleague who I sat alongside in meetings as a peer (subject lecturer). My multiple role status as student-researcher-lecturer-junior manager was managed by explicitly mentioning my PhD student status in all communications relating to this research. For example, documentation given to participants explicitly included my PhD student status (see Figure 3.1).

If you are happy to join this research, I will arrange the focus group time and place to ensure that all interested can take part. If you have any questions about the study, please do not hesitate to ask me at the email address below. Please read the back of this sheet for information on what to do if you have a complaint.

Best regards,

Karen Nicholls, PhD student, Sheffield Institute of Education, Karen.Nicholls@student.shu.ac.uk
Principal Lecturer, Sheffield Institute of Education, ext. 3351

Figure 3.1 Extract from Case 2 (EAP lecturers) information sheet (see Appendix 4)

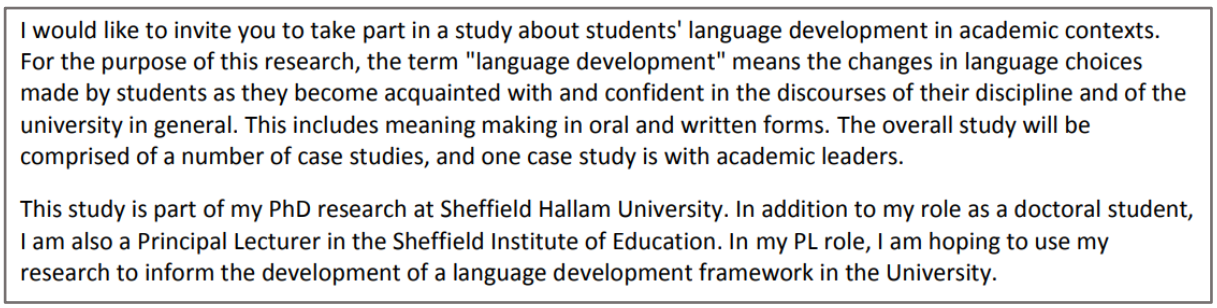
In addition to the multiplicity of roles that I occupied within the context, it is important to consider the multiple levels at play: the organisational context; the local context; and the personal context.

The organisational structure of my workplace plays a part in my research because my research is context-specific. In other universities where I have worked, academic language development was seen as relevant and useful to all students by many stakeholders, and its delivery was supported. In a very small university, for example, I taught monolingual international, multilingual international and monolingual British postgraduate design students in a single group; I also taught monolingual and multilingual British undergraduate education students together. In the very large institution where the current research took place, as in many UK higher education institutions (Wingate, 2015), the organisational structure has until recently limited the delivery of academic language development sessions (including generic, discipline-specific, credit and non-credit bearing) to multilingual international students, whilst colleagues situated in other centres within the institution, had the responsibility to 'support' the skills development of home/ monolingual students. Consequently, as in most UK universities (Wingate, 2015), there is no consistent developmental approach towards students' language development. There are, however, a lot of institutional politics, because people are concerned about job security. The lack of institution-wide, informed, open discussion about language development and its role in higher education is one of the motivations behind this research. One of the goals of this research is, therefore, to stimulate such a discussion. Another goal is to be able to present a framework of concepts from the different participants that will illuminate

the barriers and enabling factors in the development of effective language use which can inform that discussion (see 3.3.4 below for further discussion about motives).

It is critical, however, that my previous experience does not lead me to assume what the 'best' approach to language development is regardless of context. This is one of the reasons for the explicitly open focus of my research question, "How do stakeholders account for the development of effective language use in higher education contexts?" My aim is to capture stakeholders' experiences and beliefs in order to open up the discussion and explore the complexities involved.

Beneath the level of the whole university, I work in a specific subject area, embedded in a departmental structure. I have the role of leading a subject area, which means that I line manage English for Academic Purposes (EAP) lecturers and lecturers in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL). My role is a junior managerial one. I am also a lecturer. As I was both "studying up" (Lancaster, 2017, p.95) and down, it was important that I heed Cousin's (2010) reminder to ask, "what is my power relationship with the people I'm researching?" (p.11). This was particularly important when interviewing EAP lecturer participants given that a "power asymmetry" already exists in the interview context (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009, p.33). I reiterated my researcher roles in communications, written and spoken (see for example, Figure 3.2), and designed data collection methods that minimised the effect of power asymmetries (see section 4.1 Data collection methods). Observing ethical principles such as informed consent and the opportunity to withdraw were also important for providing reassurance to participants.



I would like to invite you to take part in a study about students' language development in academic contexts. For the purpose of this research, the term "language development" means the changes in language choices made by students as they become acquainted with and confident in the discourses of their discipline and of the university in general. This includes meaning making in oral and written forms. The overall study will be comprised of a number of case studies, and one case study is with academic leaders.

This study is part of my PhD research at Sheffield Hallam University. In addition to my role as a doctoral student, I am also a Principal Lecturer in the Sheffield Institute of Education. In my PL role, I am hoping to use my research to inform the development of a language development framework in the University.

Figure 3.2 Extract from information sheet provided to academic leaders (see Appendix 1)

At the personal level, I teach EAP to multilingual, international students and I contribute to undergraduate and postgraduate courses about Teaching EAP and Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TEAP and TESOL). I am constantly learning more about academic discourse, disciplinary differences, pedagogy, and theories of learning: I have an ongoing and active interest in these areas. This leads me to consider my motives.

3.3.4 Motives

Cousin (2010) states that it is important to identify questions around personal motives as part of the process of becoming reflexive: I needed to ask "Am I finding what I'm looking for?" (p.11) Specifically, I have a professional interest in doing something about academic language. I believe that teaching and learning about academic language can be transformative. I have seen students take on board what they learn about language choices in academic contexts and improve their performance. I have seen others who have not. I am interested to know what others think about this situation. Why do some people (academics and leaders) seem interested in academic language development provision, whilst others are sceptical, or uninterested at best? Why, when multiple calls have been made for institutional level policies to implement academic language development for all (Kaplan & Baldauf, 1997; Coffin & Donohue, 2014; Wingate, 2015; Murray, 2022), are there very few UK universities which have a policy? These questions underpin my interest in the overall research question, and in order to be explicit, I included my motive of informing the design of a language development framework in the information sheets provided to participants prior to them giving informed consent (see for example, Figure 3.2 which is taken from the information sheet provided to academic leaders).

In order to ensure that this research is not "exploitative" due to pre-existing roles, personal experiences and motives, I ensured that the process and the reporting of this research were rigorous so that the results could be trustworthy. My criteria for rigour and trustworthiness are explored below.

3.3.5 Criteria for judging rigour and trustworthiness

It is useful to consider how this research might be evaluated given its qualitative and reflective stance. The research relies heavily on my interactions with others. Researcher positionality has been shown to lead to different interpretations of data. For example, when six researchers "from varying different disciplinary, methodical, and theoretical groundings, as well as from varying personal backgrounds" (Dean et al., 2018) analysed the same three interview recordings and then shared their findings, they found a range of interpretations, analyses and conclusions. There were many similarities and some differences "due to paradigmatic and methodological preferences" (p.14). Dean et al conclude that the variations provided richness to the process that they all benefitted from. Given my own identities, experiences, context and motivations for pursuing this work, it is important to be explicit that the goal of this research is not to find a "truth" or to prove a hypothesis. Rather, it is to create a rigorous and trustworthy (Toma, 2006) analysis of stakeholder's accounts of the development of effective language use in academic contexts.

Assessing rigour in qualitative research is not a clearly defined process (Morse, 2018; Toma, 2006). Guba (1981) and Lincoln and Guba (1985) introduced a set of concepts and a language to assess rigour in qualitative research. The criteria are credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability. These were mapped as "a parallel set of standards" of qualitative research onto the quantitative and experimental standards of "validity, reliability, generalizability and objectivity" (Toma, 2006, p.406) (see Table 3.1 for details).

Quantitative research	**Qualitative research (case study)**
Validity (internal validity) the research tools measured what they were supposed to	**credibility** the findings of the research resonate with the participants
reliability different researchers would find the same result using the same approach	**transferability** other researchers can ascertain whether the case is similar enough to be relevant - thick description is key

generalizability (external validity) findings can be extended to individuals and settings beyond those studied	**dependability** the research design can accommodate changes in the environment studied "the process of the study is consistent, reasonably stable over time and across researchers and methods" (Miles and Huberman, 1994, as cited in Toma, 2006, p.416)
objectivity the influence of the researcher is negated	**confirmability** the data can be confirmed by someone other than the researcher and the route to the findings can be followed - clear audit trail - assumptions made explicitly

Table 3.1 A comparison of "parallel" standards on which to assess quantitative and qualitative research, based on Lincoln and Guba (1985), Toma (2006).

However, using parallel terminology is not consistent with the specific decision to use a qualitative approach as opposed to a quantitative or experimental approach. As Toma (2006) states, "I do not find the use of alternative terms by themselves to be satisfying" (p.413). The problems of attempting to map criteria between conflicting paradigms (e.g. positivist and constructionist) can be seen in the awkward comparison between reliability and transferability as shown in Table 3.1. Although transferability, which describes the usefulness of findings from one case being applied to similar cases, is matched with reliability, in fact it overlaps more with generalisability. Toma suggests that qualitative researchers are well placed to state the conditions and standards that should apply to their own research: "They need only explain their logic and approach clearly, which is always the responsibility of qualitative researchers given that standards of rigor are unsettled" (Toma, 2006, p.413). Tracy (2010) identifies the challenges of creating a set of criteria to judge the quality of qualitative research that may be applied across multiple paradigms and offers an alternative set of criteria (see Table 3.2). Tracy's (2010) criteria for excellent quality in qualitative research provide a more sensitive framework that is appropriate for the evaluation of constructionist,

qualitative research like this research. Her criteria include: worthy topic, rich rigour, sincerity, credibility, resonance, significant contribution, ethical, and meaningful coherence. In Table 3.2, I map evidence of this research's quality against each of her criteria.

Eight "Big-Tent" Criteria for quality (Tracy, 2010, p.840)	**Various means, practices, and methods through which to achieve (Tracy, 2010, p.840)**	**Location of evidence in this thesis**
Worthy topic	The topic of the research is: relevant; timely; significant; interesting	I set out the importance of the research in Chapters 1 and 2.
Rich rigour	The study uses sufficient, abundant, appropriate, and complex: theoretical constructs; data and time in the field; sample(s); context(s); data collection and analysis processes	The background literature (Chapter 2), the methodological approach, data collection and analytical methods (Chapters 3 and 4), the single case studies published as articles (Chapters 4 – 6), and the cross-case analysis (Chapter 8) provide details of theoretical constructs and analytical processes and the rationale behind the research design and coding decisions.
Sincerity	The study is characterised by: self-reflexivity about subjective values; biases; and inclinations of the researcher; transparency about the methods and challenges	My positionality is explored in detail alongside a transparent description of methods in this chapter, and related concerns are explored in the published case studies, as well as the cross-case analysis (Chapter 8).
Credibility	The research is marked by: thick description, concrete detail, explication of tacit (nontextual) knowledge, and showing rather than telling;	Thick description, concrete detail and multivocality are evidenced in the methodology, the case studies, and the cross-case analysis. Crystallisation of

	triangulation or crystallisation; multivocality; member reflections	multiple perspectives and patterns is evident in the cross-case analysis (Chapter 8).
Resonance	The research influences, affects, or moves particular readers or a variety of audiences through: aesthetic, evocative representation; naturalistic generalisations; transferable findings	Feedback from some journal reviewers evidences resonance and each case study article provides transferable findings, as does the cross-case analysis.
Significant contribution	The research provides a significant contribution: conceptually/theoretically; practically; morally; methodologically; heuristically	The methodological approach which takes into account power relationships in a multiple case study is new, and the publication of the three case studies evidences contribution to knowledge. The recommendations and conclusions from the cross-case analysis (Chapters 9 and 10) answer the research question and provide practical application.
Ethical	The research considers: procedural ethics (such as human subjects); situational and culturally specific ethics; relational ethics; exiting ethics (leaving the scene and sharing the research)	This chapter and the associated appendices evidence the ethical procedures and questions that have been met. Exiting ethics are met my publication of case studies (which will continue with the cross-case analysis in the future) including joint authorship of the third case study (Chapter 7).
Meaningful coherence	The study: achieves what it purports to be about; uses methods and procedures that fit its stated goals; meaningfully	The overarching constructionist paradigm and the overarching research question provide the bases for decisions made across the multiple case study.

	interconnects literature, research questions/foci, findings, and interpretations with each other	Findings and interpretations align with both.

Table 3.2 Application of Tracy's (2010) "Eight 'big-tent' criteria for excellent qualitative research" to this study

3.4 Multiple case study approach

In this research I used a multiple case study approach (as defined by Stake, 2006). The research was limited temporally, geographically, institutionally, and therefore the specifics of the context require detailed elaboration (Stake, 1995). A "case" is often described as "bounded" (Casanave, 2010, p.66): the focus of study has clear limits. However, "case" is defined variously, depending on the epistemological perspective and authorial purposes of the writer. The literature on case studies displays a range of epistemological stances which influence data collection, analysis, and reporting practices. Yazan (2015) investigates the consequences of these different stances for the researcher at each different stage of the process. For example, "Yin demonstrates positivistic leaning" (Yazan, 2015, p.136) when he mentions the goals of "objectivity, validity and generalizability" (Yazan, 2015, p. 136) and the fact that he "does not distinguish between qualitative and quantitative case study methods" (p.137). In contrast, Stake (1995) represents a constructionist, existentialist (non-deterministic) approach and acknowledges that qualitative researchers are gatherers of interpretation who report their "rendition or construction" (Yazan, 2015, p.137) from which readers will in turn construe something else. My research aligns with the latter.

The definition of case that I will use for this research is based on Stake's (2006) multiple case approach which distinguishes between the "individual cases" and the "quintain" (pp.4-6). Individual cases are nouns, not verbs (e.g. "nurses … not … 'nursing activity'" (Stake, 2006, p.1), whilst the "quintain is the arena or holding company or umbrella for the cases" (Stake, 2006, p.6). The overarching case (quintain) in this research is a single British post-1992 university and the multiple cases are defined by different stakeholder groups. The stakeholder groups I have chosen for this study are: those involved directly in the activities of teaching and assessment (subject lecturers);

those involved specifically in language development (EAP lecturers); and those charged with influencing the direction, quality and quality assurance mechanisms, including policies and their implementation (academic leaders). There are of course other stakeholders within the university – students, support staff, administrative staff – and stakeholders beyond the university, including funding bodies and quality assurance bodies. However, in order to establish a manageable dataset, it was necessary to limit the cases to a workable number. The choice of these three was also influenced by Dunworth et al's (2014) finding that "a viable strategy requires the involvement of both disciplinary and language experts, as well as competent leadership" (p.529). There are obviously possibilities for future research to involve additional stakeholders, and this is one recommendation for future research – in particular, that students' experiences and understandings of language development are investigated. Detailed descriptions and rationales for the choice of stakeholder groups can be found in section 4.1 Data collection methods.

Case studies can be intrinsic or instrumental (Stake, 1995). Intrinsic case studies are primarily interested in the case itself, for example, the person, the group, the bounded thing. In contrast, an instrumental case study is primarily interested in an issue. This research, which aims to illuminate different stakeholders' accounts of language development, is instrumental. Each individual case is a type of stakeholder. Each case will illuminate a range of perspectives, experiences and accounts of the 'issue' of language development. This is important to emphasise because the article-driven format of the thesis may appear to prioritise the cases – stakeholders. However, the whole thesis is concerned with one abiding and unifying issue: accounts of language development.

A multiple case study enables a detailed analysis of the many parts which can be brought together and compared to enable a better understanding of the whole (Stake, 2006). The goal of multiple case study research is to better understand the quintain by studying what is similar or different between the individual cases (Stake, 2006). In other words, a cross-case analysis of individual cases can be used to build a picture of the whole, the quintain. Unlike positivist approaches which seek to find generalisable findings, a qualitative case study approach facilitates a deep understanding of a specific instance: here, the issue of language development at a particular UK

university. In order for this cross-case analysis to be rigorous, I needed to consider the methods of data collection across the individual cases. Stake (2006) states that data collection methods may vary across cases; however, the more quantitative the analysis, the more similar methods should be for all cases. As this research is not quantitative, and as the multiple positionalities and potential perceptions of power-relations between participants and researcher were important to consider, different methods of data collection were used for different cases (see Table 4.1 in section 4.1 for a summary).

The individual cases in this study are bounded by the concept of a stakeholder group: academic leaders, subject lecturers and EAP lecturers. Due to my multiple roles and positionality, different data collection methods were used in each case in order to maximise the richness of data and in acknowledgement of different power relationships between me and the participants. Details outlining the rationale for each case and its data collection method are provided in section 4.1. Figure 3.3 represents the three stakeholder groups in a hierarchical structure within the university.

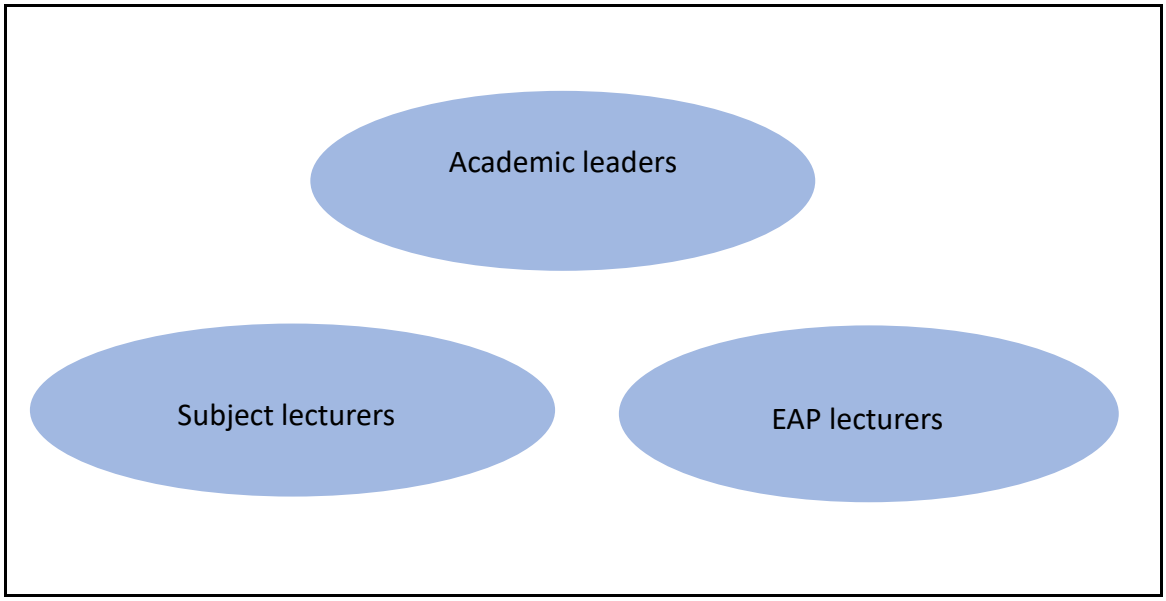


Figure 3.3 Hierarchical representation of cases based on the idea of power

At the top of the hierarchy are academic leaders who are perceived to yield power, meaning the ability to influence change (based on Zhao and Baldauf's definition of agency in language planning in Fenton-Smith & Gurney, 2016). Subject lecturers hold power in the decisions they make about the design of the students' experience that they provide. If we consider Bernstein's definition of the formal knowledge that this

includes, we can break it down into: the curriculum (content), pedagogy (methods), and evaluation (assessments) (Bernstein, 1971). EAP lecturers have similar power in deciding what, when, and how to teach both on their own EAP courses and when they are invited to join course teams, or provide additional learning opportunities outside of a students' course of study. EAP provision makes available additional expertise in the form of explicit language development for students. Most commonly, in the United Kingdom, this EAP expertise is made available exclusively to students whose first language is not English and other forms of support are provided for those who are first language speakers, although as discussed in Chapter 2 it is not always easy to access (Wingate, 2015). In the institution in which this research takes place, there is a similar split. Figure 3.4 shows how language provision in the university in this study is split between two areas. English for Academic Purposes lectures provide language development for multilingual students and are based in an academic area, TESOL English Language, in a department. Colleagues providing study skills support are based in a professional services team, in a Study Skills Centre.

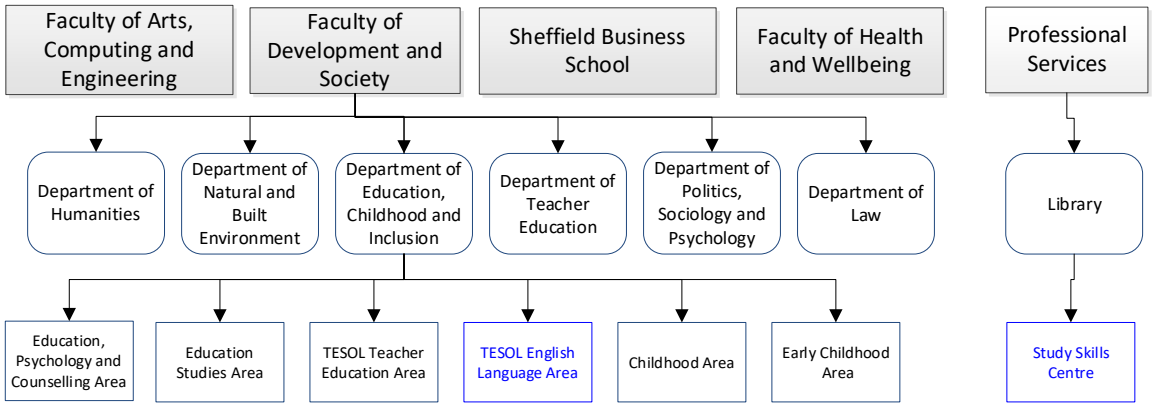


Figure 3.4 Partial organisational structure of the quintain at the beginning of the research

The triad in Figure 3.3 represents the three essential stakeholder groups who might be able to influence curriculum design and implement university-wide approaches to language development. Of course, students are also key stakeholders in their education, including pre-degree students (for example those on foundation or pre-sessional courses), undergraduate, post-graduate taught, and post-graduate research students. However, their power is often retrospective. In other words, they have the power to influence future students' experiences through the feedback that they give

locally on modules and nationally in terms of the National Student Survey. They have little opportunity to influence their own curriculum in most UK higher education institutions whilst they are studying specific modules or courses.

It is important to be explicit about this power hierarchy because my multiple roles as a student-researcher-lecturer-junior manager placed me in multiple positions and power relations for each of the cases I studied in this research. In Figure 3.3, I would be located in several places: on the edge of the EAP lecturers, as a manager; within the EAP lecturers, as a teaching colleague; and inside the subject lecturers' grouping as a TEAP or TESOL lecturer.

There are other challenges with a multiple case study approach. Stake (2006) highlights the possible tension of the "case-quintain dilemma" (p.7): the question of how to balance the emphasis between the quintain (the overall thing being studied) and the individual cases. For example, researchers can lose the detailed specificity, the thick description, of each case if they move to look across cases too quickly. In this thesis, each case was studied in its own right first, and then the cross-case analysis (Chapter 8) and overall recommendations brought them together. Since my goal was for each case to form the basis of a published article with different journal readerships, the particular emphasis of each article varies. The perceived readership for each article is the wider stakeholder type, for example, academic leaders reading the *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management*, and this perceived readership influenced the level of detail and core argument presented in each article. The list of article and journal titles is included below in Table 3.3.

Single case study stakeholder group	Article title	Journal title	Data collection method (see Chapter 4 for details)
1 Academic leaders	'You have to work from where they are': academic leaders' talk about language development	*Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management*	Semi-structured interviews
2 EAP lecturers	Illuminating expertise in academic language development: English	*International Journal of English for Academic*	Focus group with written pre-task/

	for Academic Purposes practitioners in the UK	*Purposes: Research and Practice*	Variation on nominal focus group
3 Subject lecturers	Conceptualising academic language and literacies: a longitudinal case study of collaborative interdisciplinary staff development	Under review in *Higher Education Research and Development*	Collaborative action research – semi-structured interviews

Table 3.3 List of article and journal titles based on the three single case studies and their data collection methods

Although I wrote each article for different anticipated readerships, each with varying knowledge of language development theories and perspectives, an overarching cross-case analysis of the data is possible because of the systematic approach to data analysis outlined in section 4.2. This concept is represented visually in Figure 3.4.

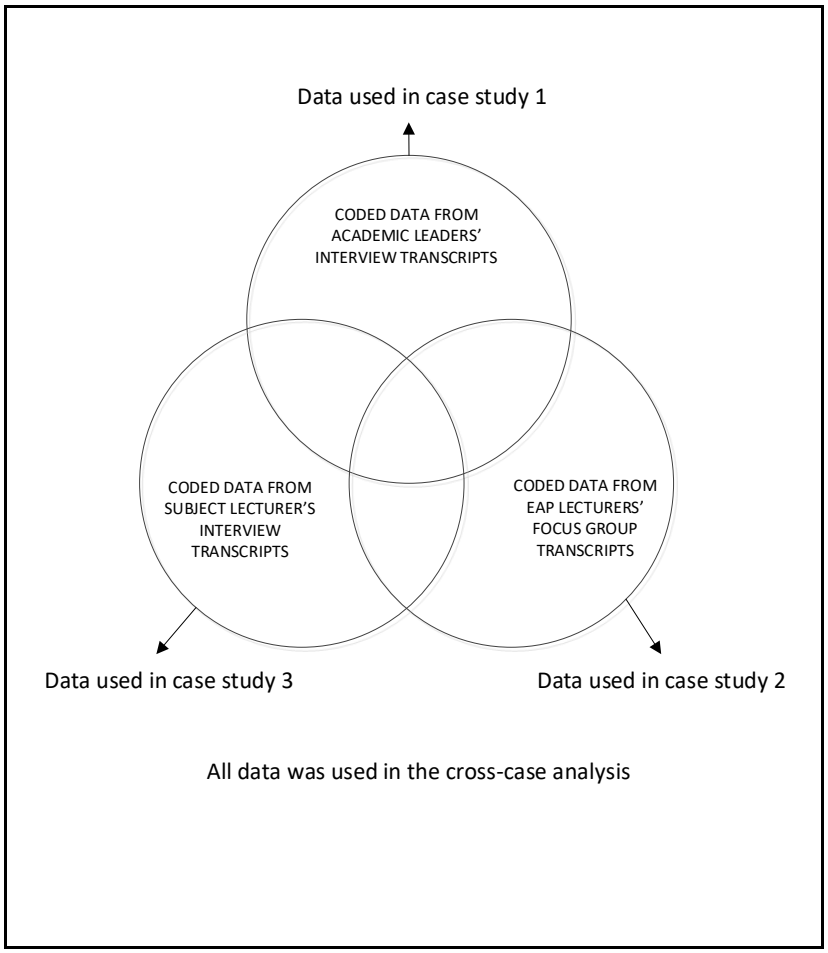


Figure 3.5 Visual representation of use of data in single cases and multiple case analyses

Figure 3.5 represents the use of data in the three articles which were based on single case analyses of individual stakeholder groups and in the multiple, cross-case analysis reported in Chapters 8 and 9.

3.5 Summary

In this chapter, I have presented the overall methodological approach of this research. The constructionist paradigm provides a unifying backdrop for my research design and is coherent with my constructivist understanding of language in learning developed in Chapter 2. The qualitative approach used fits with the constructionist paradigm and the overall research goals of understanding stakeholders' experiences and accounts of language development in higher education. I explored in detail my own positionality in terms of identity, experience, context and motives and outlined criteria for judging rigour and trustworthiness in this qualitative research. I described the multiple case study approach taken in this research and how that led to both the articles which form Chapters 5, 6 and 7 and the cross-case analysis which forms the basis of the overall recommendations and conclusions (Chapters 8 and 9). In the next chapter I outline each of the cases in more detail, including an explanation of the data collection methods used with explicit reference to my positionalities, and the process of data analysis.

Chapter 4 Data collection and analysis

Building on the constructionist epistemology that underpins my research design, in this chapter I explain the data collection methods used across the three cases which comprise the multiple case study. I also outline the inductive, qualitative data analysis that I have used. This chapter will include an exploration of my own positionality in relation to the research, the changing context in which the research took place, and how these factors influenced the research design. I will also indicate limitations of the research and areas for improvement in relation to the research design.

4.1 Data collection methods

In this section, I outline the methods of data collection for the three single case studies and the rationale behind each choice. Each method was chosen to maximise the depth of data from stakeholder-participants. For each stakeholder type, I outline why their accounts are important, my relationships with them and issues around my positionality, the data collection method, including sample size, pragmatic concerns, and questions asked. A summary of data collection methods is provided in Table 4.1. Data coding and analysis processes are described in the next section, 4.2 Data analysis.

Case and stakeholder type	My relationship to them	Data collection method	Sample size
1 Academic leader	Subordinate	Semi-structured interviews	4 leaders – referred to as AL1-AL4 AL1 – 58 mins 54 secs AL2 – 35 mins 47 secs AL3 – 40 mins 46 secs AL4 – 53 mins 43 secs
2 EAP lecturer	Manager and co-teacher	Focus groups with written pre-task	10 lecturers – referred to as EAPL1-EAPL10 – in 3 focus groups (FG1 – FG3) FG1 – 1 hr 18 mins 17 secs FG2 – 1 hr 29 mins 45 secs FG3 – 1 hr 10 mins 4 secs
3 Subject leader	Peer	Collaborative action research	1 subject lecturer interviewed 4 times – interviews referred to as SL1-SL3b SL1 - 36 mins 50 secs SL2 – 54 mins 16 secs SL3A – 20 mins 46 secs SL3B – 45 mins 17 secs

Table 4.1 Case study data collection methods and sample size

4.1.1 Case 1 Academic leader

In relation to my goal of conceptualising different stakeholders' accounts of language development, it is useful to understand the perspectives of academic leaders, because they are in a position to influence the direction of developments in teaching and learning. Indeed, one of the key findings of a study into the development and implementation of language policies in universities in Australia is the importance of support from within the academic leadership of an institution (Dunworth et al, 2014). Academic leaders are also in significant positions of power. For the purpose of this research, power means the ability to influence change, and specifically the ability to influence change that can enable the development of effective language use in higher education (see Fenton-Smith & Gurney, 2016). The four academic leaders I interviewed bridged the central structures of the university and the faculties in which academic departments were grouped at that time. Each was responsible for the "overall quality of student experience" (AL1) including "quality assurance and learning, teaching [and] assessment development" (AL2) in one of the four faculties of the university. The academic leaders were uniquely placed to offer '*opportunity to learn'* (Stake, 2005, p.451, emphasis in original), because they could offer top-down perspectives and their regular contact with teaching staff meant that they were also informed about current practices within their own faculties. Two of the academic leaders were men (AL1, AL2) and two were women (AL3, AL4). It is interesting to note that since the data was collected, the four faculties have since been reorganised into three colleges and the leaders have either left the university or moved to different roles. Chanock's (2017) experience reflects the difficulty of sustaining academic language and literacy work as her approach failed to "survive a change of Dean, attrition of discipline lecturers, and a new institutional vision promulgated by central management" (pp.252-3).

In terms of my positionality and ethical practice, I had met three out of the four academic leaders in different professional contexts before I sent them interview requests in my role as PhD student researcher. My roles in those previous contexts were: as a member of a faculty junior managers' workshop (AL1); in discussions about managing the collaborative teaching of international bi/multilingual students across faculties (AL2); and in discussions about a collaborative course validation (AL3). As many authors (e.g. Mikecz, 2012; Rice, 2010; Smith, 2005) have pointed out, one of the

key difficulties of interviewing “elites” is gaining access. At first, only AL1, AL2 and AL3 agreed to be interviewed, the fourth stating a lack of time to participate. It was noticeable that I had met AL1, AL2 and AL3 prior to their agreement. Interestingly, after I met AL4 in a meeting about teaching and learning innovations and I introduced myself to her, she also agreed to be interviewed. This kind of background detail is important for me to state, given the nature of the research. Mercer (2007) confirms that not only access, but the content of interactions can be influenced by insider status. Data collection techniques therefore need to be carefully planned.

For this case study, I used semi-structured interviews with the academic leaders who had responsibility for learning and teaching within each of the faculties at the university. Semi-structured interviews use a guide of topics and questions but allow for follow-up probing (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009). The choice of semi-structured interview as the method of data collection was based on a number of considerations that would be applied to all cases. Firstly, it was important to consider my relationship to the academic leaders and therefore the best way of gaining data that would reveal their understanding and experiences of language development. In their relative position of power (see Figure 3.3), and my position of “studying up” (Lancaster, 2017, p.95), it seemed ethical and appropriate to use individual interviews. As Kvale and Brinkmann (2009) state, “[t]he qualitative research interview attempts to understand the world from the subjects' point of view …” (p.1). It was also anticipated that there might have been differences between individuals’ responses based on the academic leaders’ disciplinary backgrounds and career paths, and these could be ascertained more easily in one-to-one conversations. Secondly, a small number of individuals were involved (four), with equivalent leadership roles across the faculties in the university which forms the overall case, the quintain. This made a manageable sample. Thirdly, and pragmatically, the one-to-one interviews were easier to arrange around the availability of individuals with full schedules. In order to accommodate their limited availability, times and locations of each interview were selected by interviewees (or their personal assistants). Information and consent forms were sent in advance of the interview, and then read and signed immediately prior to the interviews which were audio recorded (see Appendices 1 and 5).

I trialled my interview schedule on another academic leader, my head of department, and received feedback on my interview technique and the quality of the answers generated by the questions from my supervisory team. As a result, I kept the interview protocol the same, but added "PROBE" alongside my highlighted research question on the top of the paper as reminder to me to push for clarification or more detail during the actual interviews, see Figure 4.1 as an example of live interview notes.

The semi-structured interviews focussed on two broad areas: i) the academic leaders' experiences of their own successful and unsuccessful communication in a higher education context; and ii) their response to a hypothetical scenario about a course team with concerns about students' language and communication skills. Following each interview, the audio recording was transcribed, edited (see Appendix 6 for transcription protocols I developed when editing all transcripts) and sent back to participants for them to review. All participants in this case study accepted the transcripts without any changes. Following this process, the transcripts were inductively coded using the guiding question "How do academic leaders account for the development of effective language use in higher education contexts?" as described in detail in section 4.2 Data analysis below.

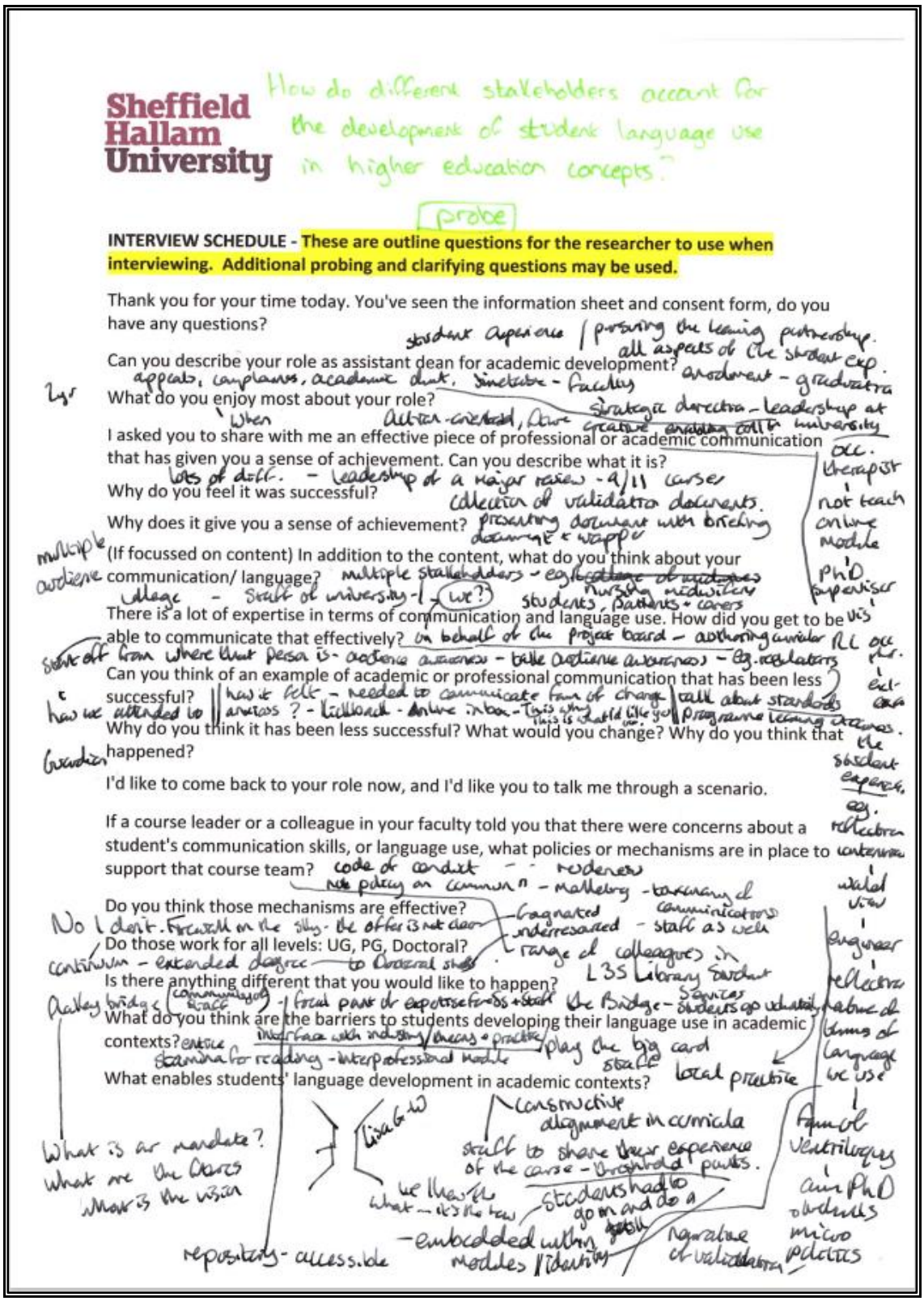


Figure 4.1 Sample of live interview notes (AL4)

4.1.2 Case 2 EAP lecturer

In order for institutions to discuss approaches to language development, stakeholders with expertise in language and language development should be included: “a viable strategy requires the involvement of both disciplinary and language experts, as well as competent leadership” (Dunworth et al, 2014, p.259). However, as Fenton-Smith and Gurney (2016) point out, “communication between people with power and people with expertise could be improved” (p.84). EAP lecturers are employed in most UK higher education institutions. Their goal is to enable students and staff to perform academic tasks to their best abilities through the medium of English (Hyland & Shaw, 2016). They are, therefore, a key stakeholder group with linguistic and pedagogic expertise who can contribute to the research question, “How do stakeholders account for the development of effective language use in higher education contexts?”

I am an EAP lecturer. I teach alongside EAP colleagues and under their module and/or course leadership. In addition, I am the junior manager of the academic area in which EAP lecturers are employed. I lead the management of work allocations, hold bi-annual appraisal conversations, and raise contracts for hourly paid colleagues. Despite the leadership of courses being “devolved” to colleagues (British Council Inspection Report, 2017), my role includes providing academic leadership of the area. Due to my potentially “exploitative relationship” (Macbeth, 2001, p.38), it was important to find a method of data collection that would minimise any potential influence of my positionality, although inevitably, my multiple roles of colleague, manager, and student-researcher could not be completely disentangled. Ethically, it was important to be transparent about my multiple roles to participants. Hence, I made explicit on the information sheet that the findings may be used in my work role to promote a language development policy as well as forming the basis of a published article, conference presentations and my PhD (see Figure 4.2 and Appendix 4).

This study is part of my PhD research at Sheffield Hallam University. As you know, in addition to my role as a doctoral student, I am also a Principal Lecturer in the Sheffield Institute of Education. In my PL role, I am hoping to use my research to inform the development of a language development framework in the University.

For this study, I would like to hear about a teaching activity you have used that you feel has been successful in developing students' language for an academic context. If you are willing to join the study, I will ask you to complete two tasks: filling in a form describing the teaching activity (see attached); and joining a focus group in which you and other EAP lecturers share and discuss your activities.

The focus group will be audio-recorded and transcribed. Only I, and my PhD supervisory team will have access to the transcripts. The data will be kept securely on a password protected computer. It will be analysed for the purposes of the single case study, and the multiple case study which will be the culmination of my PhD research. I intend to publish my findings in articles in peer-reviewed journals, and present them at relevant conferences. The whole study will take between 4-6 years. I will be happy to send you copies of any publications that result from the study and I will email you at an address of your choice (see consent form) at the point of publication. The data collected will be anonymised and pseudonyms will be used. However, complete anonymity will not be possible because you will be known to the members of the focus group. Participation is voluntary and you can withdraw up until one week following the focus group.

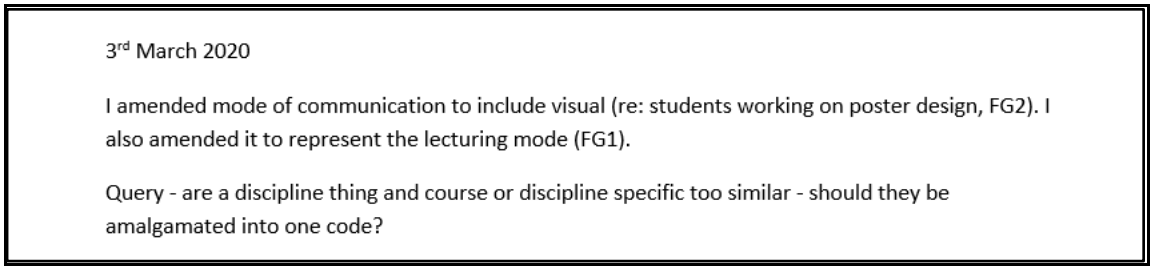
Figure 4.2 Extract from information sheet for EAP lecturers (Appendix 4)

Of the salaried EAP lecturers in the team, I asked all EAP module and course leaders to participate (four in total, all of whom accepted and made up Focus Group 2). I also invited all those involved in a project to integrate language development into degree courses (three, all of whom accepted and made up Focus Group 1). In addition, of colleagues who worked on an hourly basis, I invited those who had recently worked on year-round courses at the university (four, out of whom three accepted and made up Focus Group 3). In total, therefore, ten EAP lecturers participated in the focus groups. All EAP lecturer participants were experienced in teaching EAP; they had between 5 and 25 years' experience, with a mean of over 13 years'.

To maximise discussion between participants, I also considered the power relationships within the group, and so I grouped participants according to their roles (see Stewart et al, 2007). Hence, Focus Group 1 comprised lecturers who were part of a project to embed disciplinary specific academic language and literacy in the curriculum; Focus Group 2 comprised course leaders of pre-sessional, in-sessional and international foundation courses; and Focus Group 3 comprised EAP practitioners who were hourly paid and taught bi/multilingual students on the aforementioned courses. Although this arrangement provided some homogeneity of experience, these groupings were not categorical. For example, some lecturers in Focus Group 1 were also course leaders and all were active in EAP teaching. A further advantage of grouping the participants in this way was that it facilitated practical issues, such as

finding a time that was suitable for each group. The three focus groups each lasted approximately 1 hour 30 minutes. Six participants were women and four were men: Focus Group 1 comprised two women and one man; Focus Group 2 comprised two women and two men; and Focus Group 3 comprised two women and one man.

The method of data collection I designed for this group was a variation on Varga-Atkins et al's (2017) nominal focus group. Varga-Atkins et al (2017) describe how the nominal focus group combines "the benefits of in-depth discussion of a Focus Group and the prioritising of results of Nominal Group Technique" (p.289). In the latter, groups are asked to agree a set of priorities from a list of options they have generated. In my design, lecturer-participants were asked to complete a written pre-task. The written pre-task was to describe an activity that they deemed successful in developing students' academic language. I analysed participants' written responses by applying codes that built on those from the preliminary set of codes from Case 1 (see section 4.2 for full details of the data analysis). As in Case 1, each code was developed inductively in response to the question "How do stakeholders account for the development of effective language use in higher education contexts?" Constant comparison (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) was used so that codes from the first case study were merged, checked, amended, and added to (See Figure 4.3 and Appendix 3).



3rd March 2020

I amended mode of communication to include visual (re: students working on poster design, FG2). I also amended it to represent the lecturing mode (FG1).

Query - are a discipline thing and course or discipline specific too similar - should they be amalgamated into one code?

Figure 4.3 Extract from Analytic memo in Appendix 3

The codes I generated for each focus group based on their pre-focus group written task are listed in Table 4.2.

Focus group 1	Focus group 2	Focus group 3
content of communication	accuracy	abstraction
difficulty	appropriate source use	confidence
discussion	audience of communication	discipline and course specificity
feedback	collaboration	discussion
flow	confidence	enjoyment
language and literacy gap	content of communication	integrated language provision
language as developmental skill	discipline/ course specificity	language choices
language as specific to goals and contexts	L1 L2 learner differences	noticing
language choices	L1 L2 similarities	practice
metalanguage	language as developmental skill	reflection
practice	language choices	technical view of language
purpose of communication	metalanguage	threshold
questioning lecturers' expectations	mode of communication	visual learning
reading	moves	***Added by participants:***
reflection	noticing	***interest/motivation***
relevance	discussion	
rhetorical view of language	practice	
scaffolding	purpose of communication	
strategies	reading	
text structure	reflection	
time in learning	relevance	
using models	rhetorical view of language	
visual learning	scaffolding	
Added by participants:	sense of achievement	
challenge	space	
joy of writing	strategies	
	structure	
	student engagement	
	student motivation	
	technical view of language	
	transfer	
	use of IT	
	use of models	
	visual learning	

Table 4.2 Lists of codes provided to focus group participants to place into a hierarchy

In each focus group, participants were first asked to describe the activity they had chosen to each other and to ask each other any questions for clarification. This generated considerable discussion as participants asked each other questions. For

example, after listening to EAPL7 describing how she taught the language of art and design posters, EAP5 commented, “What’s interesting about some of that language on there [a sample student poster], it’s not what a lot of people think of as being typical EAP is it?” This led to an extended description about the practices in art and design assignments. I then gave each participant in the focus group a set of the codes which I had generated from their group’s written pre-tasks (ie. one column of codes listed in Table 4.2) and asked each individual to create a hierarchy based on the question, “Which of these characteristics/considerations/issues would you consider most important in enabling language development?” In creating the hierarchy, participants were invited to use the themes provided, and add or discard any. Finally, they were asked to explain the choices they had made in creating their hierarchies and again ask each other for any points of clarification. Photographs of sample hierarchies are shown in Figure 4.4.

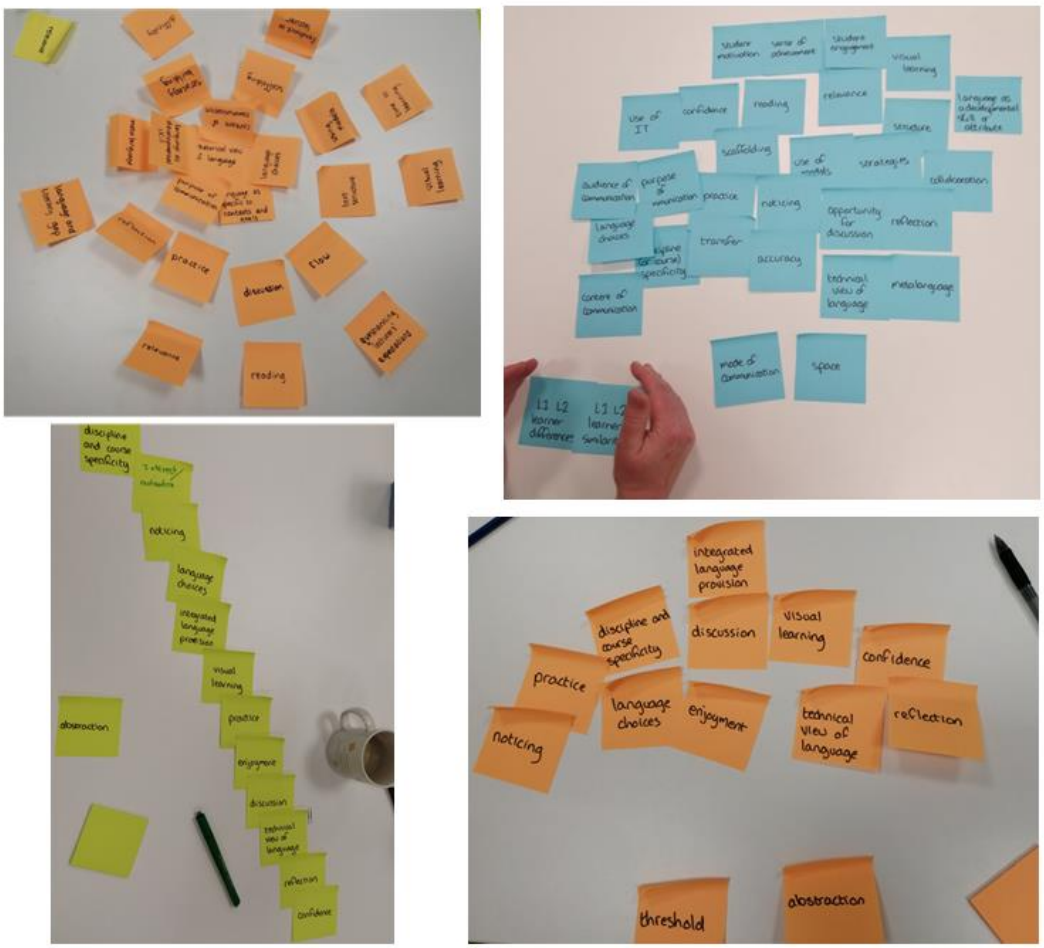


Figure 4.4 Sample hierarchies (clockwise from top left: EAPL1, EAPL6, EAPL8, EALP9)

Unlike the nominal focus group technique described by Varga Atkins et al (2017), participants were not obliged to agree on a final hierarchy, because I wanted each individual to have the freedom to create a hierarchy that matched their individual understanding of language development. This staged process maximised the EAP lecturer-participants' talk and limited my own talk to instructions and requests for clarifications, which was important given my positionality. Although I was able to limit my oral interaction during the process, my creation of the list of codes will have played a part in the accounts that they told. This is a further example of the co-constructed nature of the knowledge produced in this research.

Recordings of the focus groups were transcribed and coded with the guiding principles outlined for Case 1: I created codes with constant reference to the research question; and I compared new data and codes with existing data under each code, merging, amending, or deleting codes as necessary. Unsurprisingly, I created a number of new codes based on the EAP lecturers' talk (see Chapter 8 for a discussion of codes unique to each stakeholder type).

4.1.3 Case 3 Subject lecturer

The stakeholder type which forms the boundary of the third case study is the subject lecturer. The third case study was a three year collaborative action research project. As indicated above, subject lecturers are disciplinary experts who have a potentially crucial role in discussing the implementation of any forms of language development alongside leaders and language experts (Dunworth et al, 2014). However, as several authors indicate (Murray, 2016; Tuck, 2018), subject lecturers face numerous competing pressures in UK universities both in balancing their roles which include teaching, research and administrative duties, and in the regular request to develop their courses according to new priorities which come from local (course) feedback, university initiatives and government priorities for higher education. Despite these pressures, there are examples of projects to develop students' language use (mostly writing) in the United Kingdom and many of these are based on collaborations between subject lecturers and language experts (e.g. Mitchell & Evison, 2006; Wingate, Andon & Cogo, 2011; Wingate, 2018). Inevitably, the collaborators are self-selecting in these reports, and this is true in this research too.

The subject lecturer participant in this research was an Early Years lecturer. Our collaboration began during a chance conversation about our work and the language of feedback. So, in terms of her participation in this research, it is notable that the subject lecturer would be defined as a convenience sample. There were distinctive characteristics about the discipline in which she worked, Early Years, which made the case extremely rich. Working with a lecturer from Early Years provided an opportunity for insights into applied disciplines and widening participation student cohorts. These are two key characteristics of the quintain and of post 1992 UK universities more broadly: the applied nature of many of post 1992 UK universities' courses mapping their polytechnic origins; and widening participation which was part of their remit (see Boliver, 2015). For a description of Early Years see Figure 4.5 which is taken from the notes of a presentation we gave about our first collaboration.

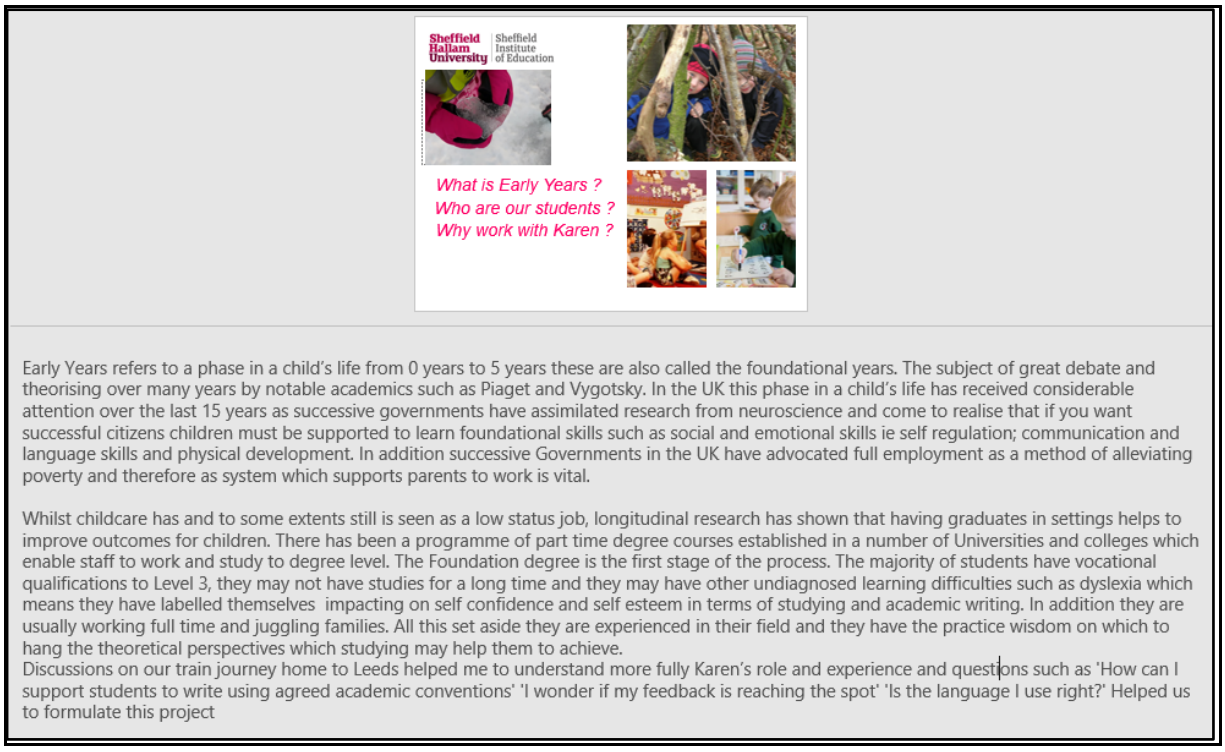


Figure 4.5 Extract of powerpoint notes from joint presentation (BALEAP conference, April 2017) after Year 1 of the action research (used with permission)

Educational action research can transform "[p]rofessional knowledge and the processes of teaching and learning" (Noffke, 2009, p.19) through the study of the local context. It enables researchers to systematically change and review their practices. The first cycle of action research project investigated students' perceptions of their academic literacies and academic identities over the course of an academic year.

During this time we embedded a workshop developed around the students' and the lecturer's perceptions of the students' academic language and literacy needs. The collaborative action research continued over an additional two years as we reflected on what was successful, and what could be improved, both in terms of intervention, and data collection.

In terms of positionality, data collection and ethics, this case study is perhaps the most complex because of the collaborative nature of the endeavour over three years. For example, in recognition that we were both invested in the research, but that either of us might have had reason to step away, we obtained the support of an independent adjudicator in case of any disagreement (see Figure 4.6 Extract from a sample consent form in Case 3). Anonymity was also waived by both of us in the presentation of our research.

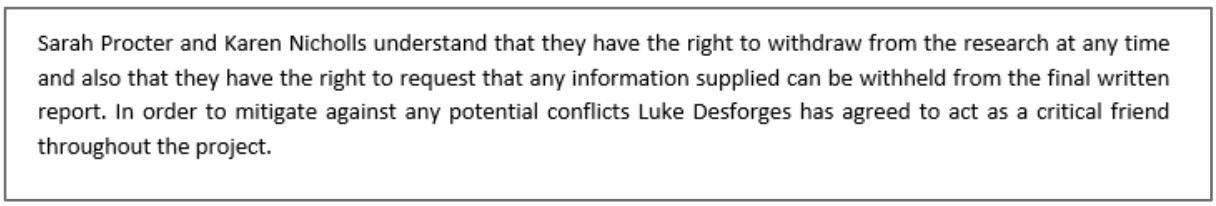

Sarah Procter and Karen Nicholls understand that they have the right to withdraw from the research at any time and also that they have the right to request that any information supplied can be withheld from the final written report. In order to mitigate against any potential conflicts Luke Desforges has agreed to act as a critical friend throughout the project.

Figure 4.6 Extract from consent form for researcher-participants in Case 3

We also obtained informed consent from students each year to collect data; however, we faced various problems with that data collection. After the first cycle, we understood that interviewing part-time students on their only study day at university limited the number and quality of responses. In the second year, we prioritised confidence questionnaires as a data collection method, because they would be less intrusive time-wise. However, these provided insufficient data about the reasons for students' perceptions of their learning and confidence. In the third year, we diversified the data collection methods to include interviews, confidence questionnaires and autobiographical texts called "All about me". The intervention also developed across the three cycles, from one workshop, to five across five modules, to three across five modules (see Article 3 in Chapter 7 for details). As collaborators, we spoke before each intervention, and inevitably we talked about how the course was going. However, it is important to stress that the data used in this case study (and the article) only comes from the semi-structured interviews between myself and the subject lecturer that we

had planned across the three cycles. The transcripts from the interviews are referred to through this thesis and the article as SL1 (subject lecturer, year 1), SL2, SL3A and SL3B. In the third cycle, we had two interviews due to time pressures. The first dealt with the subject lecturer's own reflections on the process. The second was based on her reflections after she had read the students' data.

An unintended consequence of the collaboration was that the process of holding a semi-structured interviewing with the subject lecturer became increasingly unnatural. This was exemplified in the final interview (SL3B) when the subject lecturer echoed two questions back to me: "And is that what you thought?" (SL3B); and later, "What's jumped out for you then?" (SL3B). This had become our standard interactive mode when talking: asking each other for our perspectives. However, in the semi-structured interview, these interactions had to be omitted. In order to avoid my replies from impacting on the coded data, I ensured that none of my own words were coded in any of the case studies. Mercer (2007) refers to this phenomenon as "interview reciprocity" (p.8) and recommends limiting interaction so that "data [can] not be dismissed" (p.11). Beyond the interview process, I noted the increased need to maintain awareness that there was the possibility of an "exploitative relationship" (Macbeth, 2001, p.38) with the transcript data. One way of ensuring that the data remained ethical and trustworthy was in the joint authorship of Article 3. The joint authorship entailed my collation, coding, and analysis of the data and the subject lecturer providing a member check (Creswell, 2014) of the meanings that I had ascribed to our interview data. Clarifications from the subject leader led to minor amendments in the drafting process.

A defining feature of the third case study is its longitudinal nature. It includes the first and last data that I collected over the course of the research (see Table 4.3 for a timeline of the data collection across the three cases). The volume and depth of data collected over this period provide a rich picture of the subject lecturer's understanding of language development, which is the goal of the research. Therefore, although the third case study is based on a single individual, the length, depth and richness of data from the collaborative action research provide useful insights into the third stakeholder type: the subject lecturer.

Year	Case 1 – Academic leaders	Case 2 – EAP lecturers	Case 3 – Subject lecturer
2016			Ethical approval to commence data collection for first cycle 290-NIC 23 September 2016 (email)
2017			Data collection Post-feedback interview November 2016 Intervention November 2016 Post-intervention interview March 2017
	Ethical approval for case study 25 April 2017 (letter) 379-NIC SHUREC2		
	Data collection – interviews July-November 2017		Ethical approval for second cycle 20th September 2017 (email) 464-PRO
			Intervention October – November 2017
2018	Data analysis of Case 1 transcripts June-July 2018		
			Ethical approval for third cycle 14th October 2018 ER974954
2019		Ethical approval for case study February 2019 ER11790992	
		Focus groups April – July 2019	
		Data analysis of Case 2 transcripts May-September 2019	
			Data collection interviews July-August 2019
2020 2021			Data analysis of Case 3 transcripts December 2020-January 2021
	Cross-case analysis September 2021		

Table 4.3 Timeline of data collection and data analysis across the three case studies including university ethical approval reference numbers.

As noted previously (3.3.2), researchers and their understandings change over time, and especially across a multiple case study (Stake, 2006). Throughout the process of collecting and analysing data, my understanding of the research question and the data from the stakeholders developed. The constant comparison of codes across all cases recorded in analytic memos (e.g. Figure 4.3) was one way of ensuring that changes in my understanding were recorded and they provide consistency of approach throughout the research. I provide further examples of my record-keeping as I describe my analytical approach next.

4.2 Data analysis

In order to select the most appropriate method for analysing the data, it is important to return to the primary goal of this research. The purpose of the research is to build a framework which can enable communication between stakeholders and support language development provision. Hence, the research is designed to illuminate stakeholders' experiences and accounts of language development. Within the development of the framework, therefore, I aim to capture a full range of individual voices, personal lived experiences and accounts (including potentially contradictory experiences and accounts) to be analysed and mapped. I identified three analytical methods which could suit this purpose: thematic network analysis (Attride-Stirling, 2001), thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006) and the grounded theory method (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). See Table 4.4 for a comparison of features between the three methods. In the literature, there are numerous variants of these methods, particularly the latter two, and there is sometimes conflicting use of terminology (Urquhart, 2013; Saldaña, 2016). However, these methods also have several elements in common, so it is important to clarify where and why they differ. Here I will outline the common features between these analytical approaches, and consider the advantages and disadvantages for my research question: "How do stakeholders account for the development of effective language use in higher education?"

	Thematic network analysis (Attride-Stirling, 2001)	Thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006)	Grounded theory method (Glaser & Strauss, 1967)
theoretically and epistemologically flexible	✓	✓	✓
doesn't try to count things	✓	"prevalence", "number of instances"	✓
analysis can be inductive (bottom-up) or theoretically informed and deductive	✓	✓	bottom-up only
provides rich account of data	✓	✓	✓
identifies, analyses and reports patterns	✓	✓	✓
generates theory (names relationships)	×	×	✓
uses constant comparison in coding	-	-	✓
uses theoretical sampling	-	-	✓

Table 4.4 Features of thematic network analysis, thematic analysis, and the grounded theory method

All three analytical methods use iterative processes of coding to develop an understanding of the data in relation to the research question. All three allow for flexibility in terms of the researcher's epistemological approach and theoretical frameworks (Attride-Stirling, 2001; Braun & Clarke, 2006; Glaser & Strauss, 1967). All three methods support inductive (bottom-up), initial coding (also sometimes called "open coding", Saldaña 2016, p.115) and analysis, but Glaser and Strauss's (1967) grounded theory insists on this approach. The three methods are used for the analysis of qualitative data and they do not attempt to quantify this data. The slight caveat to this is the terminology sometimes used by Braun and Clarke (2006) when they refer to concepts such as "prevalence", which could be seen as betraying a quantitative undercurrent that does not fit well with the goals and approach of this research.

All three analytical methods provide a rich account of the data and seek to find patterns amongst the data, but only grounded theory goes further with the specific aim of naming the relationships between those patterns (Urquhart, 2013) and thus

enables the “discovery of new theory from data” (Glaser & Strauss, 1967, p.1). Grounded theory also offers two methodological procedures which are not mentioned by Attride-Stirling (2001), or Braun and Clarke (2006), but which complement their methods: constant comparison and theoretical sampling.

Constant comparison refers to the practice of repeatedly referring to other extracts of data which have been similarly coded in order to ensure that the category is developed through systematic, iterative comparison of data inside and between cases. This leads to the regular revision of definitions for the themes identified. Theoretical sampling refers to the process of selecting which data to collect next based on the theory that is developing and to “further the development of emergent categories” (Glaser & Strauss, 1967, p.49). In grounded theory, data collection continues until “theoretical saturation” (Glaser & Strauss, 1967, p.61) occurs, ie. until the data fails to develop categories any further. Although my research includes multiple stakeholder groups, I cannot claim that saturation has been achieved, because my data collection methods, especially the longitudinal collaborative action research with the subject lecturer, were designed to get rich data rather than to achieve saturation. My goal of creating a framework to enable discussions between stakeholders therefore fits best with Attride-Stirling's (2001) thematic network analysis, which aims “to explore the understanding of an issue … rather than to reconcile conflicting definitions or a problem” (p.390), although I can also state that my research is grounded.

A breakdown of the analytical method I used across the research is summarised in Figure 4.7 and described in detail below.

Analytical method

1 read all the data in a single case
2 identify initial codes (nodes in NVivo) based on small units of meaning, using verbatim code names (words from extracts) where possible (open coding)
3 use constant comparison throughout to maintain consistency, and to develop code definitions
4 use analytic memos to record developing thoughts
5 reread and map initial codes visually (e.g. Case 1 grid) and experiment with relationship networks, thematic combinations and abstractions, ie. build categories

(selective coding)

6 identify category relationships within a single case and verify them against all data

7 pursue further data in next case, repeating steps 1-6

…. After all three single cases were analysed

8 compare allocation of codes across three cases to look for similarities and differences including ongoing review of code definitions and further code amendments (mergers and sub-categorisation)

Figure 4.7 Summary of analytical processes

The first step was open-coding (Glaser, 1978; cf. "comparing incidents applicable to each category" Glaser & Strauss, 1967, p.105), also known as "initial coding" (Saldaña, 2016, p 115). This entails "coding each incident in [the] data into as many categories of analysis as possible" (Glaser and Strauss, 1967, p.105). This was completed on paper first, then input into NVivo, where the categories are called "nodes" (see Figure 4.8). (Please note: In this research "nodes" and "codes" are used interchangeably. Specifically, I used "nodes" in Article 1, although my preferred term is "codes" which comes from the act of coding.)

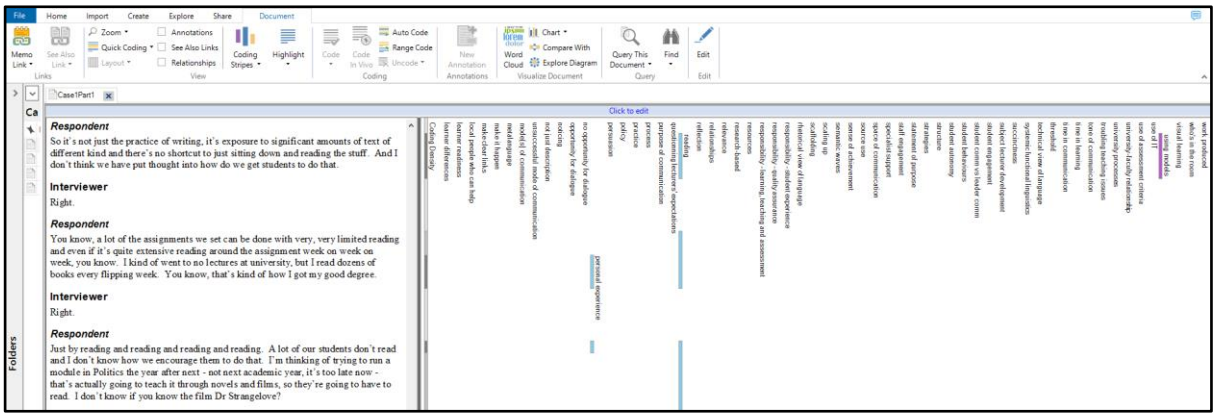


Figure 4.8 Sample of coded data from transcript AL1 (NVivo screenshot).

The original list of codes was generated by considering whether utterances in the transcript contributed to the research question, "How do stakeholders account for the development of effective language use in higher education contexts?" The final list of codes can be seen in Appendix 7 and a sample is provided in Figure 4.9. At each stage, the coding was reviewed by my supervisory team.

Name	Description
a discipline thing	refers to differences due to disciplinary background of academics or students
abstraction in language	refers to the use of abstract concepts (grammatical metaphor)
academics not confident about ALL	refers to academic lecturers not feeling confident about how to teach academic language and literacy skills
affective factors	refers to affective factors that relate to communication, eg. fear, confidence
anxiety	refers to a feeling of anxiety
confidence	refers to the significance of confidence as an aspect of language use
discomfort	refers to a feeling of discomfort when communicating
dynamics	refers to ways in which interpersonal dynamics affect communication
enjoyment	refers to a feeling of enjoyment

Figure 4.9 Extract of code book (see Appendix 7)

For each individual case study, I then began to group my initial codes into themes (categories). Whilst some coalesced easily, the data sometimes felt somewhat overwhelming, and I felt as Holliday (2015, p.59) that I risked losing some of the participants' actual meanings. See Figure 4.10 for my first attempt to thematise codes in Case 1 (academic leaders).

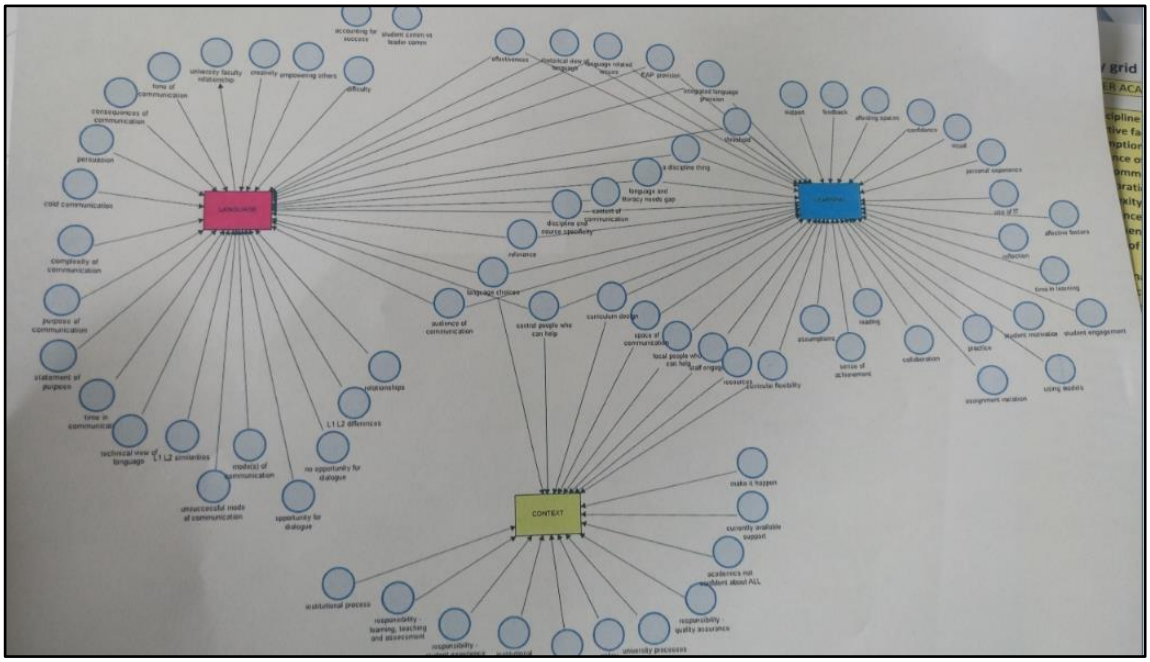


Figure 4.10 Initial attempt to categorise codes from academic leaders' interview data

In conversation with my supervisors about this concern, I was able to articulate something I had noticed during the process of interviewing and initial coding: that the academic leaders had spoken very differently about their own experiences of language development compared to the way they spoke about students' language development. Using this insight, I analysed the transcripts a second time using a grid which broadly split the coded data as shown in Figure 4.11:

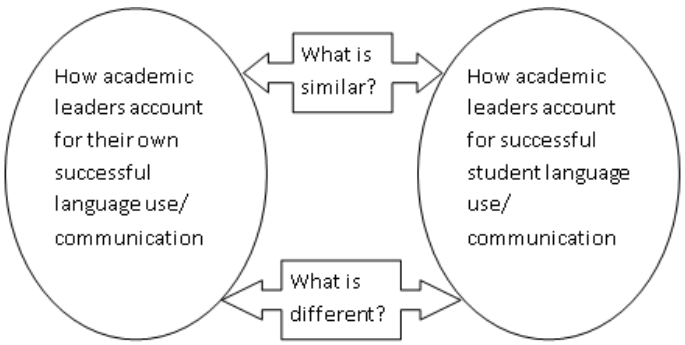


Figure 4.11 Expression of insight about Case 1 from supervisory notes

During the process of placing initially coded data into a grid (see Appendix 8), I was able to review all coded extracts using the process of constant comparison (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). This involved reviewing and adapting code definitions and recoding data where I deemed that I had miscoded originally. I recorded all changes and thoughts regarding the process in a document (see Figure 4.3 above for an example

extract from an analytic memo). The next stage of analysing the data in Case 1 was to cut up the data from the grids in order to experiment with the development of higher level themes (Figure 4.12).

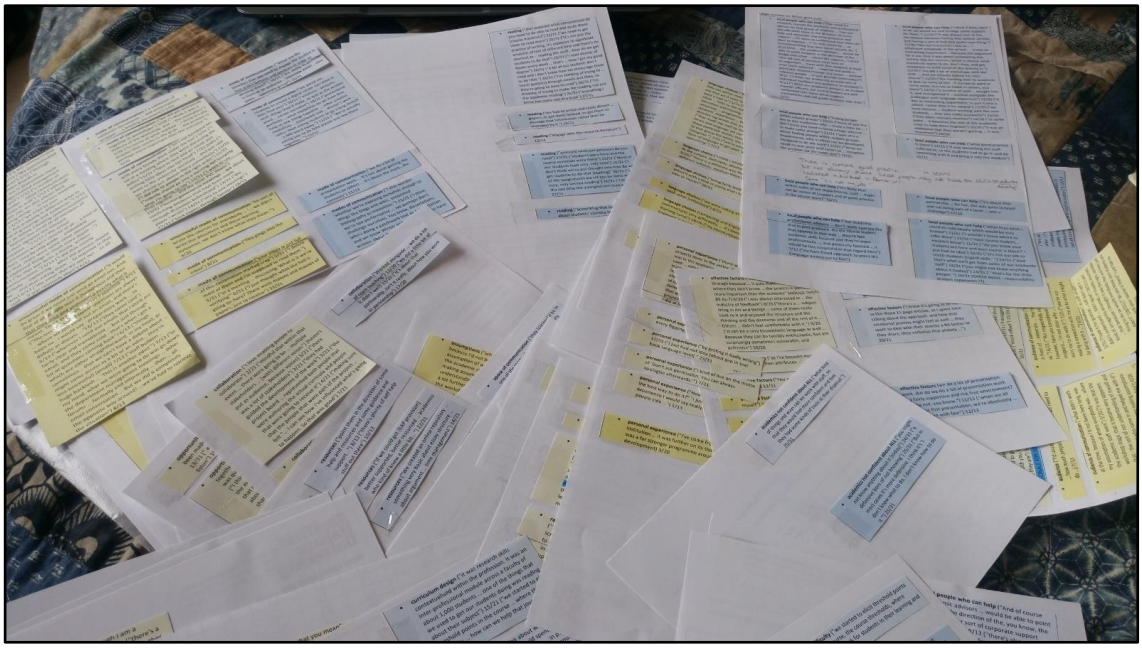


Figure 4.12 Data from Case 1 re-coded to investigate when academic leaders spoke about their own language development (yellow) and when they spoke about students' language development (blue). Positive factors are highlighted in pale yellow (academic leaders) and pale blue (students). Negative factors are highlighted in dark yellow (academic leaders) and dark blue (students). See Appendix 8 for full details.

The differences between academic leaders' accounts of their own language development and students' language development were confirmed by an NVivo comparison of codes attributed to either group (see Figure 4.13).

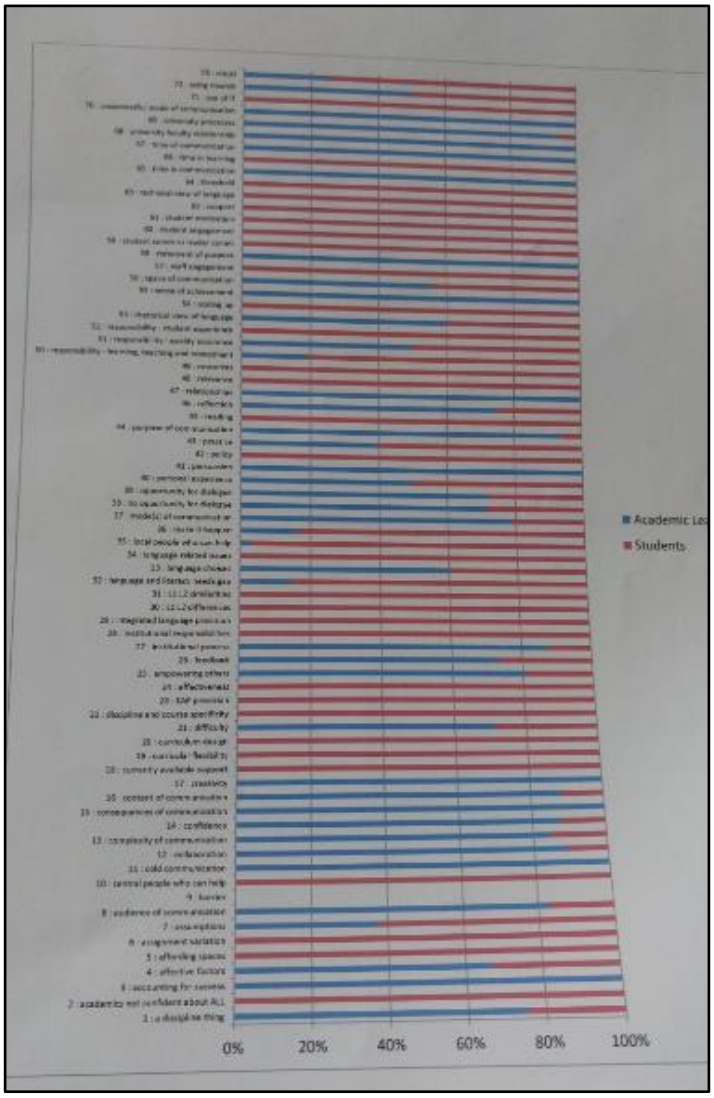


Figure 4.13 Printout of NVivo comparison of nodes allocated to academic leaders' or students' language development (blue bars represent academic leaders' talk about their own language development; red bars represent academic leaders' talk about students' language development)

This led to the new thematic networks which show how academic leaders' accounts differed when talking about their own or about students' language development. Appendices 1 and 2 in Article 1 show the resulting thematic networks from the data in this case. The networks are reproduced in Figures 4.14 and 4.15, and expandable links are available via the online article (see Chapter 5).

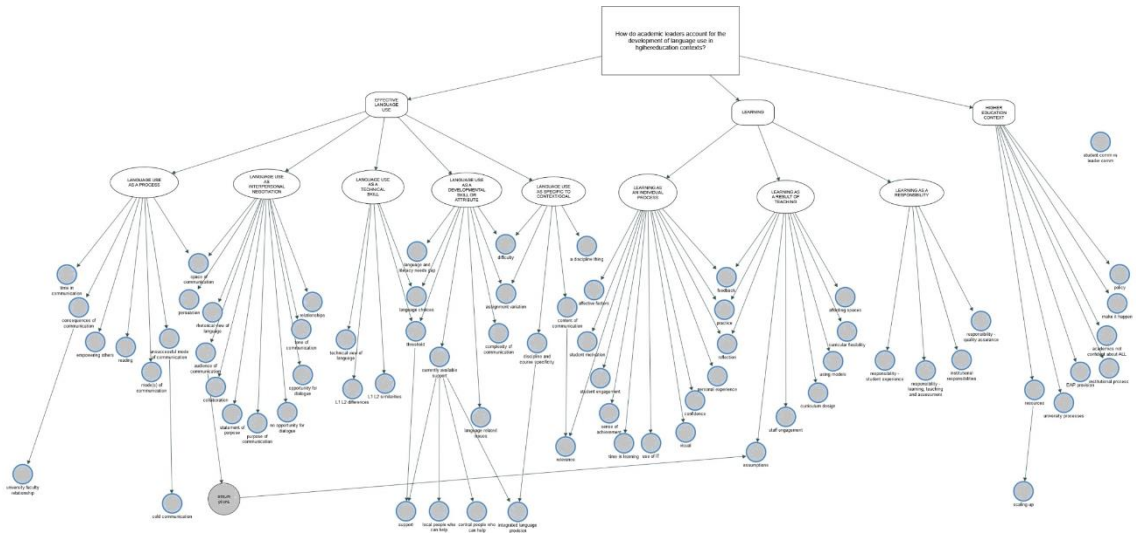


Figure 4.14 Thematic hierarchical network of themes, subthemes and nodes representing academic leaders' discourse about language development (Nicholls, 2020, p.84, https://www.tandfonline.com/doi/full/10.1080/1360080X.2019.1658922)

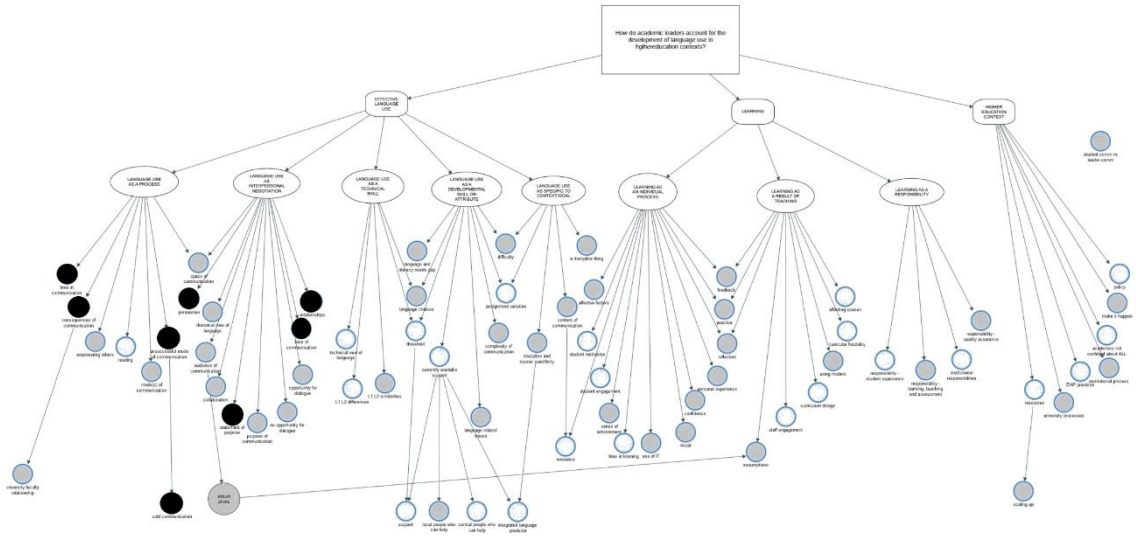


Figure 4.15 Thematic hierarchical network of themes, subthemes and nodes representing academic leaders' discourse about language development (academic leaders talking only about academic leaders in black; academic leaders talking only about students in white) (Nicholls, 2020, p.84, https://www.tandfonline.com/doi/full/10.1080/1360080X.2019.1658922)

During the process of analysing the differences between the data, I applied Coffin and Donohue's (2014) language as a social semiotic (see 2.2.3) as an analytical lens. The model which represents the intramental and intermental processes of effective language use and the objectives of different speakers/writers, highlighted the complexities of contexts, expectations, and language development opportunities which were available to different speakers (see Chapter 5 – Article 1 – Findings and Discussion, for discussion).

Data from the second case study (EAP lecturers) comprised of three focus group transcripts (FG1, FG2 and FG3). I coded this data with reference to the question, "How do EAP lecturers account for the development of effective language use in higher education contexts?" I copied codes from Case 1 into a new NVivo folder and I added to and amended those codes by applying the latter question to the focus group data. As expected, I created a number of new codes which answered the research question from the EAP lecturers' accounts of language development (see Chapter 6 – Article 2 – for a discussion). In my search to make sense of the codes which I had generated for this stakeholder group, I referred back to Coffin and Donohue's (2014) model (see the left page of Figure 4.16). This enabled me to create the framework of EAP lecturers' accounts of language development which are published in the second case study article, Chapter 6 (see Figure 4.17 below).

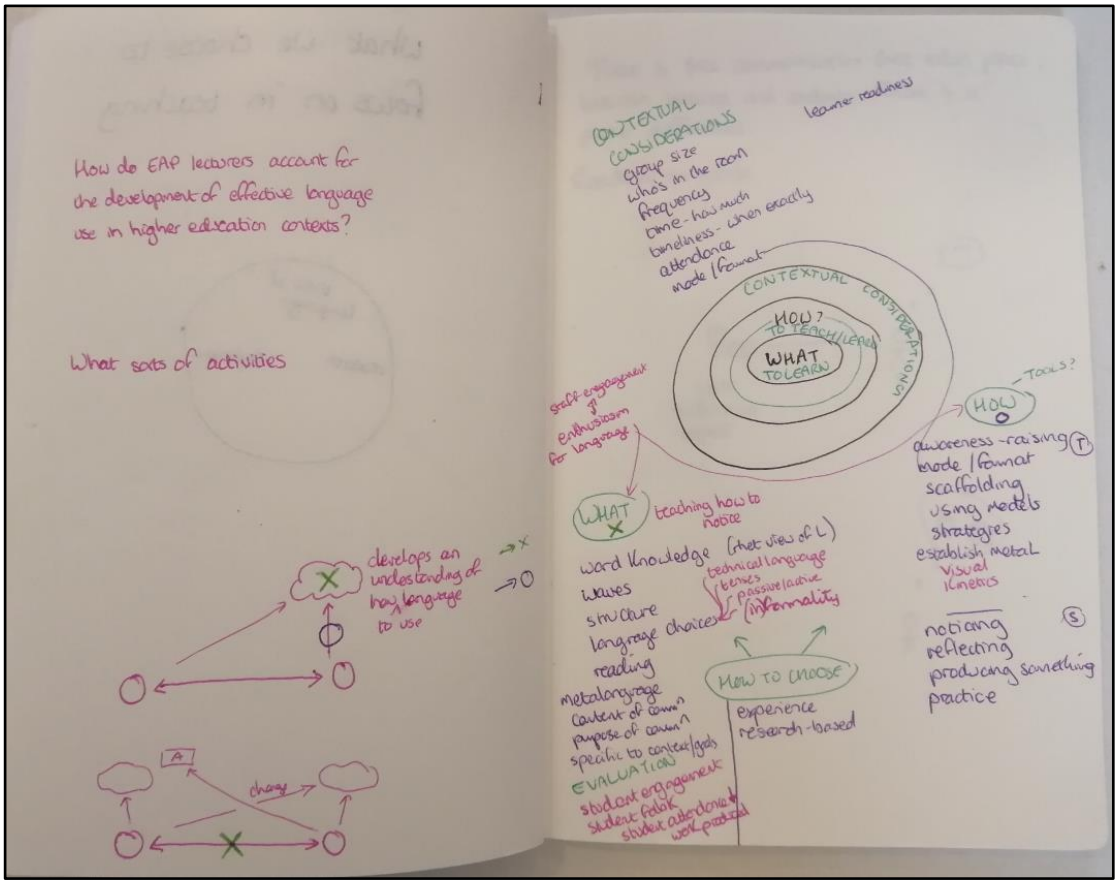


Figure 4.16 Initial thoughts of thematising codes from EAP lecturers' focus group data, notebook, August 2019

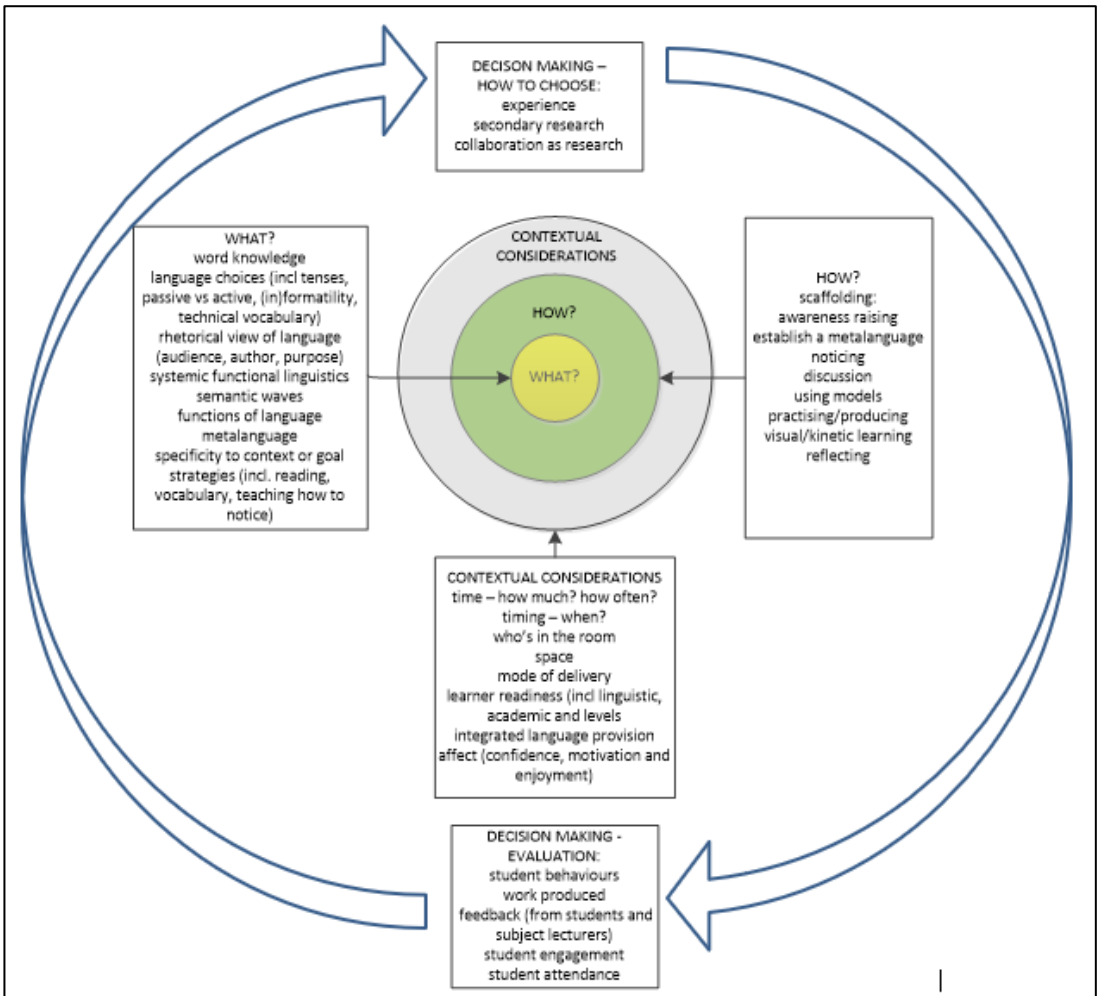


Figure 5. Codes collated under themes: the WHAT of language development; the HOW of language development; CONTEXTUAL CONSIDERATIONS for language development; DECISION MAKING in language development

Figure 4.17 Extract from second article showing thematic network of codes from EAP lecturers' data (Nicholls, 2021, p.178)

For the third case, with the subject lecturer, I repeated this process. I copied the second generation of codes to a new folder in NVivo and built upon them for my analysis of the four interview transcripts (SL1, SL2, SL3A and SL3B). Again I amended existing codes using constant comparison and I generated new codes in line with the focussed research question, "How does the subject lecturer account for the development of effective language use in higher education contexts?" However, I noticed that the codes I was applying changed over the course of the three cycles of action research, so for the article, my focus became, "How does a subject lecturer's understanding of effective language use change over time?" Again, I applied the lens of

language as a social semiotic (Coffin & Donohue, 2014), and I found that overall the subject lecturer's understanding moved from a focus on her own semiotic mediation, the students' semiotic mediation and the discourse knowledge she expected, to broader aspects encompassing student being and the curriculum (see third article in Chapter 7 for a full discussion). These developments are fully explored in Article 3 and these foci are represented in Figure 4.18 which is taken from the article.

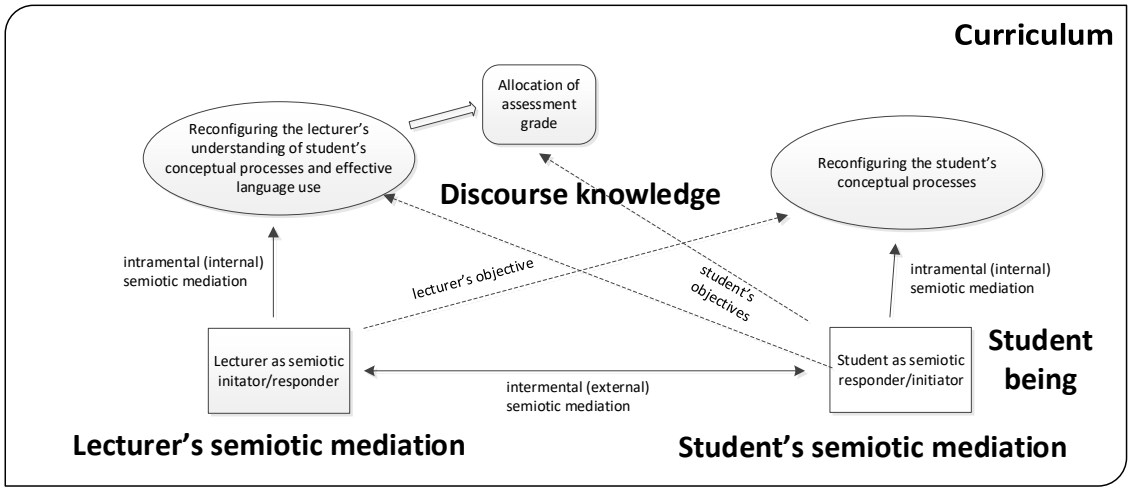


Figure 4.18 Lecturer themes of language development (Nicholls & Procter, forthcoming)

After the completion of the three single case articles, I moved to the cross-case analysis of data in all three cases. Stake (2006) warns that the move to a cross-case analysis is "a highly reductive process" (p.44) in which "much of the particularity" (Stake, 2006, p.44) of the cases is lost. This reduction in detail is inevitable in the move to make sense of the whole quintain. In order to look at the quintain as a unit, I returned to the lowest level codes, rather than the themes which I had developed across the three single cases.

Stake (2006) also recommends that researchers note the "prominence" (p.48) of themes and "expected utility" (Stake, 2006, p.48) of each case for developing the themes. I started the cross-case analysis by generating an NVivo matrix of the frequency of all codes applied in all cases (see Chapter 8, Table 8.2 and the extract from it below in Figure 4.19). I used the "graded colour scale" in "conditional formatting" in Excel to highlight the frequency of codes. Although I was not looking for numerical frequency, this shading made it easier to see in which cases I had applied

codes to data. This use of colour was useful in providing me with an initial insight into codes which I had applied to all three cases (which I call “shared codes”); codes that I had applied to two out of the three cases; and codes which I had only applied to one of the three cases (which I call “unique codes”). Using NVivo, I isolated and reread all the coded data under the shared codes first and grouped them under themes. I found at this point that there were some inconsistencies in the coding which I needed to remedy. For example, I found that “affective factors” (including data that referred to individuals’ surprise, anxiety, etc.) were recorded as a code but that data which I had coded under the potentially subordinate “confidence” code could have been coded under either confidence or affective factors in the different cases. To solve this discrepancy, I decided to keep the superordinate code “affective factors” and I re-coded the “affective factors” data under more specific codes as well. This layering of data is represented in the extract from Table 8.2 in Figure 4.19 below.

Code	Case 1	Case 2	Case 3	Total
4 : affective factors	20	26	28	74
5 : anxiety	2	0	6	8
6 : confidence	8	6	17	31
7 : discomfort	2	0	1	3
8 : dynamics	0	0	1	1
9 : enjoyment	1	5	0	6
10 : excitement	0	2	0	2
11 : fear	1	0	1	2
12 : interest	1	1	1	3
13 : relaxed	1	0	0	1
14 : reluctance	0	0	1	1
15 : self-worth	2	0	1	3
16 : student motivation	2	15	0	17
17 : surprise	1	0	0	1
18 : tedium	0	1	0	1
19 : vulnerability	1	0	0	1

Figure 4.19 Extract of list of codes and frequencies from all cases taken from Table 8.2

A further example, of coding which I changed at this point relates to my use of “feedback” as a code. Here I had included “feedback from lecturers”, “feedback from students” and “feedback”. On reviewing the data under each of these three, I found that in relation to my research question for the whole quintain, “How do different stakeholders account for the development of effective language use in higher

education?", there were two foci: feedback on learning and teaching; and feedback on communication. This is described in my analytic memo of 7th October 2021 (see Figure 4.20).

Thoughts on coding for meta-analysis 7th October 2021

There are some codes which don't seem to fit well together across the three cases.

One set is about feedback.
- Feedback from lecturers includes feedback on communication and feedback from other lecturers about learning and teaching
and
- Feedback from students is really about feedback on learning and teaching
-Feedback is all about feedback on communication

So -> I changed the existing code "feedback" to "feedback on communication", and I changed "feedback from students" to "feedback on learning and teaching. I've been through all the coded data piece by piece in feedback from lecturers to transfer it into either "FB on communication" or "FB on L+T". I've reviewed the new codes and they make more sense.

Figure 4.20 Extract from analytic memo about cross-case analysis (also called meta-analysis) re-coding

Chapter 8 provides a full discussion of the findings from the cross-case analysis, and visual representations are provided of the outcomes of this process. Table 8.2 provides the overview data of frequency and Figures 8.1, 8.3 and Table 8.3 represent the codes according to whether they are "shared" (see Figure 8.1), they are applied to data from two cases (see Figure 8.3), or they are "unique" (see Table 8.3).

4.3 Limitations of choices made

There are limitations to the methodological choices made in this research which need to be explored in order to make suggestions for future improvements. The main criticism is that the work to date is limited in the range of stakeholder types. Specifically, students' voices are only represented through the reflections of the subject lecturer's interview data. Other studies, such as Lillis (2001) do capture students' voices through qualitative studies, and a recommendation from this study would be to take forward the findings to investigate what student perspectives could

add to discussions about policy development. One of the challenges of gathering students' accounts of language development (highlighted by the multiple data collection techniques used in the collaborative action research with the subject lecturer) is that they were not always able to distinguish between the content of their course and the language development activities that they had undertaken (AL3B). Given the co-constitutive nature of language and thought, and the fact that discipline experts also sometimes find it difficult to express their discoursal expertise, careful consideration needs to be given to collecting data from this stakeholder group.

4.4 Summary

This chapter has built on the epistemological (constructionist) and methodological (multiple case study) approach presented in Chapter 3 by analysing the practical decisions made in order to collect data from three stakeholder groups. The research design process resulted in three single case studies that collected data from: academic leaders through semi-structured interviews; EAP lecturers through a variation of nominal focus groups with a pre- written task; and a subject lecturer through semi-structured interviews as part of a collaborative action research approach. Decisions balanced the maximisation of richness of depth of data through eliciting personal experience and understandings with issues of ethics, positionality and power relations. The systematic application of an iterative, inductive, thematic network analysis of data provides a unifying approach that contributes to the rigour, credibility and coherence of the overall research process. The application of language as a social semiotic emerged as a useful theoretical lens that also helped to bring conceptual clarity to the data in each case (see Chapters 5, 6 and 7) and in the cross-case analysis (see Chapter 8). Limitations of the methodological approach were also summarised.

Chapter 5 Article based on case study 1: academic leaders

The first article in this thesis investigates academic leaders' accounts of language development in higher education: both students' and their own. In the article I identify interesting differences between those accounts. Academic leaders' accounts of their own development include opportunities for dialogue, failure, and interpersonal aspects of communication that are not available in their accounts of students' language development. When discussing language development provision to support students' language development, the academic leaders in this case study acknowledge the limitations of current provision and highlight a desire for change. However, they indicate that there is a lack of ownership of the issue. These findings are explored further in relation to other stakeholders' perspectives in the cross-case analysis in Chapter 8.

This is an Accepted Manuscript of an article published by Taylor and Francis in the Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management on, 2nd September 2019, available online:

https://www.tandfonline.com/doi/full/10.1080/1360080X.2019.1658922

Please follow the link in order to access expandable images for the appendices at the end of the article.

'You have to work from where they are': Academic leaders' talk about language development

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'You have to work from where they are': Academic leaders' talk about language development

Language development is a constitutive part of learning. In higher education, decontextualised language is integral to the learning of abstract concepts. Language development is crucial to the pedagogic processes of learning, teaching and assessment. Often language is only discussed in higher education when it becomes visible through errors or unexpected uses. Occasionally the fundamental role of language development is supported by national or institutional policies; however, often language development provision is dispersed and sporadic. Despite academic leaders being identified as key stakeholders in the development of successful institution-wide language development strategies, their understandings and conceptualisations of language development have rarely been the focus of in-depth study. This inductive, qualitative case study research investigates academic leaders' experiences and understandings of language development in higher education, both students' and their own. An inductive thematic analysis of the data leads to the development of three significant themes relating to language, learning and context. Inconsistencies and contradictions within those themes have important implications for policy development across all sites of higher education. Specifically, the contribution of this article is the analysis of inconsistencies through the lens of language as a social semiotic. The analysis highlights how students' language development opportunities can be limited by institutional practices.

Keywords: language development, language as social semiotic, discourse, power, academic leaders, higher education, policy

Introduction

Language development is a constitutive part of learning (Vygostsky, 1986; Hasan, 2005, 2011; Coffin and Donohue, 2014). As Vygotsky has argued:

> '[t]he relation of thought to word is not a thing but a process, a continual movement back and forth from thought to word and from word to thought. In that process, the relation of thought to word undergoes changes that themselves may be regarded as development in the functional sense' (1986, p.218)

Alternative perspectives of language development view language itself as a conduit which requires remedial attention when used poorly (see Lillis and Turner, 2001, for a historical perspective). In higher education views about language development are particularly important given the diversification of the student body. Globally the number of students studying internationally (often in an additional language) is still increasing (Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development, 2018). Others start university with little exposure to the expectations and the discourses of higher education. In some countries the significance of language development has been acknowledged by national policies which aim to ensure that institutions consider students' language proficiency at entry and make provision for their language development needs for the completion of their studies (eg. TEQSA in Australia, see Moore and Harrington, 2016, for a discussion). In other countries, such as the United States, there is a tradition of developmental writing courses in higher education, for example, composition studies (Tardy and Jwa, 2016). Meanwhile in countries with more recent development of English medium higher education, for example, Finland, multilingual language policies are often laid out, but can be 'implicit' and omit any discussion of the role of language learning (eg. Saaranin and Nikula, 2013). In the UK, there is no national policy relating to language or communication skills, although the Office for Students (2018) states that 'The provider must provide all students, from admission through to completion, with the support that they need to succeed in and benefit from higher education.' (p.87). Nonetheless, institutional policies about language development are rare and the language development work that does take place is often dispersed and sometimes difficult to locate (Wingate, 2015).

A key impetus to the emergence of macro-level policy in Australia was a nationwide study that explored institution-wide academic language development policies. Dunworth, Drury, Kralik and Moore's (2014) study identifies eight factors in the successful implementation of a university-wide language development policy. Amongst these, the support and continued involvement of a member of the university's leadership team in driving the strategy is key. University leaders can provide support for policy development, consultation processes, and the engagement of multiple stakeholders (Dunworth et al, 2014). The importance of top-level support for university-wide initiatives related to language development has been endorsed by other writers (eg. Fenton-Smith and Gurney, 2015). Indeed, in the absence of specific macro-level policy, as in the UK currently, leadership support for meso-level policy is essential, if institutions are to do more than generate multiple, uncoordinated micro-level interventions. Fenton-Smith and Gurney (2015) define 'people with power [at the meso-level] … as those who work in the upper strata of university leadership, such as presidents, vice chancellors and provosts (and their deputies) as well as deans, chairs and heads of academic departments and schools.' (p.78). Specifically, these are the people who can, 'wield the power to initiate, approve, perpetuate and/or terminate an academic language policy across an institution (or significant part thereof)' (ibid). Fenton-Smith and Gurney find that depending on meso-level language development strategies may be challenging for a number of reasons: developments may not be

planned sustainably; they can be dependent on personalities or short-term priorities; and 'communication between people with power and people with expertise could be improved.' (p.84) To address this latter issue, this study aims to investigate how conversations about university-wide language development policies could be facilitated by analysing academic leaders' discourses of language development in higher education. The term 'discourse' is specifically used in this research to mean 'a way of signifying a particular domain of social practice from a particular position' (Fairclough, 1995, p.14) and it is used to acknowledge issues of power when people talk about language development in higher education. As Fairclough states, 'it is mainly in discourse that consent is achieved, ideologies are transmitted, and practices, meanings, values and identities are taught and learnt' (1995, p.219). Building on this, the approach I am taking focusses on power as an ability 'to influence change' (Zhao and Baldauf, 2012, p.3) and acknowledges that privileged discourses can instantiate power: 'language is not powerful on its own - it gains power by the use powerful people make of it' (Wodack and Meyer, 2001, p.13).

This study takes an inductive, qualitative approach to investigate academic leaders' perspectives on and understandings of language development that could explain why an academic leader would or would not be inclined or empowered to play a role in the development of university-wide language policy. The research question is 'How do academic leaders account for the development of effective language use in higher education contexts?' where 'development' applies to students, as well as leaders themselves, and 'effective language use' is synonymous with semiotic mediation - the transmission of ideas between people using (in this case) linguistic codes (Hasan, 2005; Coffin and Donohue, 2014). The study explores the experiences of academic leaders within higher education to better understand their perspectives and to illuminate the discourses used around language development in higher education. Understanding those discourses, it is hoped, will facilitate future conversations about policy and practice. This study is part of a larger multiple case study involving multiple stakeholder groups. Whilst this single case study is of a group of academic leaders at one post-1992 UK university, the findings may resonate with a wider audience interested in these conversations both within and beyond the UK. Post-1992 UK universities as a group have historically and continue to recruit students with lower academic qualification levels (Raffe and Croxford, 2015), from less-advantageous socio-economic backgrounds (Boliver, 2015; Raffe and Croxford, 2015), often 'stylising themselves as "teaching-led"' (Boliver, 2015, p.613) and supportive of widening participation. This institutional context and commitment to social mobility become important considerations later on. In line with the inductive approach of the research design, I will first outline the methodological approach and the findings, then I will interweave the analysis of those findings with theoretical developments. Finally I will make recommendations for language policy makers in higher education.

Methodological approach

This research analyses the discourses used by academic leaders in relation to language development in academic contexts. The research forms part of a larger multiple case study (as defined by Stake, 2006) with a single, post-1992 university in the UK as the 'quintain', the 'umbrella for the cases' (Stake, 2006, p.6). The overarching case of a post-1992 UK university is significant because of the explicit importance given to teaching, widening participation and social mobility in this kind of institution (Boliver, 2015). Language development is critical to the mission of widening participation and social mobility. This article reports the results of one of the single cases within this quintain: the stakeholder group, academic leaders. This article deliberately focusses on this group,

because they have been identified as key stakeholders in the process of developing and implementing language policies in higher education (eg. Dunworth et al, 2014; Fenton-Smith and Gurney, 2015).

Data collection involved semi-structured interviews with four academic leaders (referred to as AL1 - AL4) whose remits included the oversight of learning and teaching. Although this is a small selection, the participants were uniquely well placed to provide data for the research question, 'How do academic leaders account for the development of effective language use in higher education contexts?' Participants were members of the university leadership group and had responsibility for the 'overall quality of student experience' (AL1) including 'quality assurance and learning, teaching [and] assessment development' (AL2). The academic leaders represented the four faculties within the institution and as such, were informed about current practices in each faculty. Their dual position based within a faculty with regular contact with teaching staff (including some teaching themselves, AL2, AL4) and on the highest level of university decision-making bodies ensured "*opportunity to learn*" (Stake, 2005, p.451, emphasis in original) about academic leaders' perspectives.They included 2 men (AL1, AL2) and 2 women (AL3, AL4). They were all experienced in their roles as academic leaders, had previously worked as lecturers, and had worked at other higher education institutions. Significantly, they were 'people with power' (Fenton-Smith and Gurney, 2015, p.78) to influence change and shape language development policy or strategy because of their position near the top of the university hierarchy.

The interview was designed to elicit the academic leaders' perceptions of two broad areas: the academic leaders' own language use and development; and students' language use and development, including the institutional provision available to enable such development. The first set of questions elicited the participants' perceptions of their own role, what they enjoyed about their role, and examples of successful and less successful communication. As part of this, participants were asked to reflect upon how they had come to be able to produce the successful communication. The second set of questions explored a hypothetical scenario of advising a course team with concerns about their students' language or communication. The purpose of this was to ascertain what provision was available already and to prompt the academic leaders to suggest other approaches or interventions that they would like to see. This suite of questions was designed to capture both the content and the discourses of language development. The interview format and questions were fully pilotted with another academic leader, a department head. The four interviews lasted up to one hour each. Each interview was audio-recorded and transcribed, and each transcription was returned to the interviewee for review. No review comments were requested or changes made in this process.

An inductive, rather than theory-led, initial coding (also sometimes called 'open coding' (Saldana, 2016, p.115)) was completed using a process of constant comparison (Glaser and Strauss, 1967). The initial coding involved interrogating the transcripts for answers to the research question, 'How do academic leaders account for the development of effective language use in higher education contexts?' Constant comparison ensured that definitions of each initial code (henceforth 'node') were iteratively adapted: some early nodes were abandoned, and some data was subsumed into new nodes as the coding proceeded across the four transcripts. All steps in this process were recorded in analytic memos (Saldana, 2016). The initial round of coding was reviewed and recorded on NVivo software and underwent peer review from three colleagues.

This process of initial coding was followed by a search for themes. This involved a recursive process of reviewing the data collated under each node (using print outs of NVivo coded data) and relating it back to the research question. Put simply, I

asked the question 'What aspect of the research question is being referred to in the data in this node?' This first review cycle thus led to the creation of three overarching themes: effective language use, learning, and higher education context. The data in all but two nodes (relevance and assumptions) fitted clearly into one of these themes. Data under the nodes 'relevance' and 'assumptions' fitted under both themes of learning and effective language use.

Next, in order to develop a finer level of analysis and commensurate with the goal of analysing discourses used by academic leaders, I developed a series of 'as-statements' indicating how academic leaders talked about each broad theme (see Table 1). For example, they talked about 'language use as process' and they talked about 'learning as a responsibility'. These discourses created a series of sub-themes for the first two broad themes, effective language use and learning but did not add anything to the third broad theme, higher education context, which remained as a single category. At this level, data in some individual nodes related to more than one discoursal category or sub-theme. For example, data under the node 'feedback' related to both talk about 'learning as an individual process', and talk about 'learning as a result of teaching'. Hence, a network was created. Together these analytical steps resulted in the creation of a hierarchical network of three themes, eight sub-themes, and 69 nodes (see Appendix 1 for a visual representation).

The network of nodes, sub-themes (discourses) and themes created matches Attride-Stirling's (2001) definition of a thematic network which 'aim[s] to explore the understanding of an issue or the signification of an idea, rather than to reconcile conflicting definitions of a problem' (2001, p.390). An additional process of coding took place to deepen the analysis by identifying which nodes related to academic leaders talking only about the development of their own language, or only about students' language development. Recording this secondary coding process in NVivo facilitated the identification of nodes which only related to one group. By isolating the data which refers only to academic leaders, or only to students, ie. looking at where discourses differ, we can see some interesting clusters of nodes around certain sub-themes (see Appendix 2 and Table 1). This will be discussed later.

Findings

The interview data from the academic leaders in this study portrays a group of highly reflective individuals when asked about the development of their own language use. Interestingly, when asked to describe a communicative event from which they felt a sense of achievement, they all described a situation in which they had led a process of change, for example, a change to role structures, a change to a programme of courses, and a change to university processes. When discussing the scenario of a course leader concerned about students' language use, individual leaders came up with a wide range of suggestions and all identified some similar issues, eg. resources and opportunities for dialogue between students and lecturers.

The academic leaders' talk demonstrates how they account for different people's language development, and in order to understand those accounts, I will discuss the data at the level of discourse (Fairclough, 1995, see below). The thematic hierarchical network (Appendices 1 and 2) which represents the coded data comprises three top-level themes, eight mid-level sub-themes, and 69 nodes, some of which exemplify other nodes (examples form the lowest level in Appendices 1 and 2). The top level themes relate directly to the research question, effective language use, learning, and context, whilst the sub-themes indicate the discourses used. Through thematic analysis I

interpreted five discourses of language use, three discourses of learning, and the theme of context as enabling (or not).

Table 1 presents the hierarchy of themes, sub-themes and nodes, although for reasons of brevity only nodes relating to this discussion are shown, specifically, those relating only to academic leaders' language development (plain text - black nodes in Appendix 2), those relating only to students' language development (in italics - white nodes in Appendix 2), and an example of those relating to both (in bold - grey nodes in Appendix 2). Each discourse and theme is described below with sample data for illustration.

Theme	Sub-theme	Node
Effective language use	Language use as a process	**successful mode of communication** time in communication consequences of communication unsuccessful mode of communication *reading*
	Language use as interpersonal negotiation	**audience of communication** persuasion statement of purpose tone of communication relationships
	Language use as a technical skill	**language choices** *technical view of language* *L1-L2 differences* *L1-L2 similarities* *relevance* *threshold*
	Language use as a developmental skill or attribute	**complexity of communication** *threshold* *currently available support* *assignment variation*
	Language use as specific to disciplinary context or goal	**a discipline thing** *assignment variation* *discipline/course specificity*
Learning	Learning as an individual process	**personal experience** **feedback** **affective factors** *student motivation* *student engagement*
	Learning as a result of teaching ('pedagogically generated')	**feedback** **using models** **assumptions** *staff engagement* *curriculum design* *curricular flexibility* *affording spaces*
	Learning as a responsibility	**responsibility - learning, teaching and assessment** *responsibility - student experience* *institutional responsibility*
Context as enabling (or not)		**make it happen** **university processes** *policy* *resources* *English for academic purposes provision*

		academics' confidence about academic language and literacies

Table 1. Hierarchical representation of themes, sub-themes and sample nodes. (**Bold indicates nodes based on data about both academic leaders' and students' language**, plain indicates nodes based on data about academic leaders' language development, *italics indicates nodes based on data about students' language development*)

Thematic network analysis of the data led to the development of a hierarchical network as described in Table 1. At the highest level, meta-themes were identified as: effective language use, learning and context. Under these sit five discourses of language use, three discourses of learning, and the theme of contextual enablers. Each discourse and theme is described below with sample data for illustration.

Language use as a process

In the interview data, there was a discourse of language use as a process. This included concepts of time, 'it took me two years to overturn that policy' (AL1); space, 'we set up a room' (AL3); and successful and unsuccessful modes of communication, 'This pings into the inbox' (AL4). A discourse of language use as a process highlights the fact that language use is interactional, and that there are human participants sequentially creating and responding to moments of semiotic mediation: it is dialogic. It acknowledges that language use can be affected by the physical and temporal contexts. Interestingly, in this data there were some nodes which represent issues mentioned by academic leaders' own language development but not students': time, consequences and unsuccessful modes of communication.

Language use as interpersonal negotiation

Complementary to, but separate from the discourse of language use as process was the discourse of language use as interpersonal negotiation. Here, the data highlights the rhetorical nature of language use, including aspects such as: audience awareness, 'I then started to think about the words that professional bodies, other stakeholders use', because 'if you want to get them to cooperate and engage with you, then you have to work from where they are' (AL4); purpose, 'trying to get people on board' (AL2); persuasion, 'the only way I can get them to do stuff is by kind of persuading them it's the right thing to do' (AL1); and the opportunity for dialogue or lack thereof, 'One person had written all the documentation … So people were really uninformed.' (AL3). A discourse of language as interpersonal negotiation emphasises the relational aspects of semiotic interactions between people, and the considerations that need to be taken into account in order for the communication to be successful. Interestingly, important aspects of this discourse were also exclusively used in relation to academic leaders' own language use, namely, persuasion, statement of purpose, tone and relationships. Indeed one participant bemoaned the monologic tendencies of current pedagogic practices, 'most of what we do is in effect monologue … we speak to them in lectures; they write back to us in essays.' (AL1) This will be discussed later.

Language use as a technical skill

Language use as technical skill is a discourse which relates to the view that language is separable from meaning-making; it implies that language is a conduit that can be mastered (cf. Lillis and Turner, 2001). The academic leaders' references to threshold levels, 'once they reach that sort of threshold, … it becomes the role of the academic

tutor to help them improve' (AL3) and technical issues, ' … he [a masters student] confuses the use of commas and full stops. So you get these quite weird sentences. And there's so much in them.' (AL2) demonstrate this discourse. This discourse was evident only when the academic leaders talked about students' language use and suggests a view of language as a remedial concern.

Language use as a developmental skill or attribute

In contrast to the discourse of language use as a technical skill which can be mastered, the discourse of language use as a developmental skill highlights the idea that an individual's language use continually develops. This discourse is represented by understandings of complexity in language use, for example in a programme validation briefing document that needed to represent 'multiple stakeholders … and those stakeholders would have different voices' (AL2); language and literacy gaps, 'The students were here and the course materials were there, and we just had no idea' (AL1); and language choices amongst the academic leaders themselves, 'that [negative experience] made me start to think about the nature of terms and language we use' (AL4), and the 'flavours' (AL2) that students need to develop: 'that language is always complex, it's always different from what … students are familiar with …' (AL2). This discourse highlights the ongoing potential for improvement amongst students and professionals, including academic leaders.

Language use as specific to context or goal

Language use as specific to context or goal is a discourse which represents the concept of specificity of purpose and/or audience. This discourse includes an understanding that disciplinary discourses are special: 'there's a discipline thing about this … There is a different way that you talk to different [academic] subjects.' (AL3). This discourse also captures the idea that provision to enhance students' language use benefits from that specificity. In describing a model of language development provision she had supported elsewhere, AL3 describes how, 'the closer you integrate something for a student, and the more holistic and relevant they see it, the more successful it is. You know, so the language was very specific as well.' In contrast, AL1 identified how creating specific contexts for students could be used to improve the interactive nature of assignments, for example: 'if you had to report for a voluntary association or if you had to script a lecture for this performance … getting them [students] into thinking about writing not just as regurgitating … '. This discourse emphasises the particularities of language development in disciplinary discourses and how specificity can enhance provision and assessment or learning opportunities.

These five discourses provide an insight into academic leaders' beliefs and understandings of effective language use. I will now describe the themes associated with academic leaders' talk about learning.

Learning as an individual's process

In the interviews with academic leaders about language development, there was a discernible discourse of learning as an individual's process including aspects such as experience, affect, practice, learning preferences, reflection, time and timing. Leaders talked candidly about their personal experiences, and even how their language use had improved, 'by getting it badly wrong' previously (AL1). They described the affective factors underlying their own language use, 'at that point I was probably feeling quite anxious' (AL4) and empathised with students, 'when we all made our first presentation, we're absolutely … struck down with fear' (AL2). They also talk about the importance

of practice for developing confidence 'the more and more you do them [presentations] … you get your confidence.' (AL2) and the idea that students are a 'more visual generation than we were.' (AL1). The importance of reflection was also evident amongst the leaders' own processes, 'that stopped me in my tracks and ever since then, I'm very mindful of the nature of the communication' (AL4); and that the opportunity to reflect can be missing for students, 'a lot of the time, it's not getting the students to reflect on their experience of the presentation' (AL2). Significantly, timing and time were also mentioned as important to language development and form part of this discourse. Timing was important for learning opportunities to be most useful: it is 'about being local and relevant and timely' (AL3); whereas time was acknowledged as important because, 'the only thing about communication skills as we know, it's not something you can fix straight away … it is a learning process.' (AL2) This discourse highlights personal experience and individual differences, and acknowledges the importance of 'risk-free' (AL2), timely opportunities for learning from mistakes and practice with reflection that are integral to learning opportunities.

Learning as a result of teaching

Beyond the importance of the individual learner in the development of effective language use, the academic leaders acknowledged the role that teaching is expected to play. Examples from the discourse of learning as a result of teaching include: talk about curriculum design, 'we literally had … these [language development] classes scheduled at the end of a session … partly embedded in a session …' (AL3); the use of models, 'a lot of colleagues … would get students to … deconstruct academic articles, … student work, … "So this is the kind of thing that you should be doing" ' (AL2); and feedback, both to the academic leaders themselves 'actually having other senior colleagues around me saying 'If we use those particular words, then we're mirroring back" (AL4) and to students who receive feedback on one assessment genre, but then need to learn to communicate effectively in a new genre - 'I don't think we always provide [students] with that kind of supportive, formative, constructive feedback, in the way that would be helpful, in a repetitive manner.' (AL2) This discourse highlights the perceived importance of explicit teaching as part of language development, from curriculum design, through to teaching and constructive formal and informal feedback.

Learning as responsibility

The third discourse relating to learning is that of learning as responsibility. The academic leaders talked about the responsibility of the broader institution, for example, that registry colleagues may spot patterns in student data (AL4). The idea that course teams may be given the responsibility for including language development in modules, it was suggested, could risk rejection: 'It's not our job to teach students English skills" (AL1). This might be either because of 'a defensiveness born of not knowing' or because of an idea that, '"that's for the little people"' (AL1). Interestingly, there were also tensions in the academic leaders' own discourse with a recognition that, 'we assume too much I think, and don't take responsibility for enough while we're teaching the students' (AL2). There was even a lack of clarity about their own leadership role within the university: 'What is our mandate in regard to this area?' (AL4). This is perhaps the most internally fraught discourse within the academic leaders because of their acknowledgement of the responsibility, the enormity of what it means across a whole institution, and the lack of clear ownership.

The final theme further explores issues of institutional context in the consideration of language development in higher education.

Context as enabling (or not)

The academic leaders who took part in this study were all influential in their roles, and all enjoyed being able to 'make change happen' (AL3). It is interesting, therefore, to analyse their talk about the context in which academic language development takes place and contextual factors which enable that development, or hinder it. Much of the talk in the interviews begins positively. For example, in the institution which forms the backdrop for this case study, language development provision is described thus, 'on a good day … like a firework going off in the sky: it's beautiful; there are lots of lovely colours; it makes a lovely pattern; but it's not connected' (AL4). There were constructive ideas for using existing university processes to support the development of language use, through for example, 'our review of courses' (AL2). In addition, the idea of enabling existing academic staff 'so that they would feel more confident and feel they had some kinds of tools at their disposal' (AL1) was mooted. There were also several practical suggestions for improving the situation, including: integrating a language expert into a faculty or department (AL3); 'more formative assessment' (AL2); an 'online repository' (AL4); and 'better support [for English for academic purposes]' (AL1). Overall there was an optimism that 'it would be great' (AL4) to have something systematic in place. There were, however, limiting factors such as resource and capacity issues - 'I know that the capacity to support others is challenged' (AL4) - and an example of how in another institution, a colleague brought in for this work 'was absolutely inundated' (AL3). There was also a feeling of not quite knowing the best strategic direction: 'there is a real difficulty about thinking how do you scale this stuff … we're a big … institution' (AL1). And one solution was to move the responsibility upwards, 'we need to put a bit of institutional, faculty kind of weight behind it' (AL1); 'we need to kind of hold [top level leader's] feet to the fire' (AL1). The theme of context as enabler highlights the complexities of enthusiastic leadership, full of ideas and understandings of the limitations of the local context, but ultimately acknowledging that connectivity, integration, staff development, and resources require strategic, unified direction.

In sum, the discourses highlight a range of beliefs or concepts held by academic leaders about language development. The discourse of language use as a process indicates an understanding of the interactional nature of successful communication which can be affected by physical, temporal and modal affordances or constraints, ie. how space, place, time and mode of communication can support or limit effective language use. The discourse of language as interpersonal negotiation demonstrates the value placed on relationships between speaker (writer) and audience. The discourse of language as a technical skill evidenced the view of language as a remedial concern, whereas the discourse of language as a developmental skill highlighted the belief in the potential for continuing improvement for all. Lastly, in terms of language use discourses, the importance of specificity in both language use, such as assessments, and language development opportunities was supported by the discourse of language use as specific to context or goal.

In terms of learning, there were three complementary discourses: learning as individual process; learning a result of teaching; and learning as responsibility. The first of these indicates a belief that personalised language learning opportunities with 'risk-free', timely opportunities for learning from practice and feedback are key. The second demonstrates that the academic leader participants believe in the importance of explicit teaching as part of language development from curriculum design through to teaching and planned constructive formal and informal feedback opportunities. Thirdly, the

discourse of learning as responsibility highlighted the tensions felt by academic leaders between acknowledging a range of responsible individuals or groups, but a lack of overall ownership for the issue of language development.

Finally, the theme of context as enabling (or not) illuminates the complexities of large institutions. Despite being supportive and enthusiastic in their intentions, individual leaders acknowledge the need for a strategic, unified direction.

A further discussion of these discourses and their implications for policy development follows.

Discussion and theoretical analysis

The three broad themes - effective language use, learning and context as enabling (or not) - described in Table 1, encapsulate the discourses used by academic leaders about language and learning. Viewing these discourses through the lens of language as a social semiotic (Hasan, 2005, building on the work of Vygostky, Bernstein and Halliday), enables a deeper understanding of some of the inconsistencies and complexities in the findings. Hasan's (2005) model of semiotic mediation processes describe effective language use and learning as intermental (external) and intramental (internal) semiotic mediation respectively (see Table 2).

Theme	Sub-theme	Node
Effective language use = intermental mediation	Language use as interpersonal negotiation	**audience of communication** persuasion statement of purpose tone of communication relationships
	Language use as a process	**successful mode of communication** time in communication consequences of communication unsuccessful mode of communication *reading*
	Language use as a technical skill	**language choices** *technical view of language* *L1-L2 differences* *L1-L2 similarities* *relevance* *threshold*
	Language use as a developmental skill or attribute	**complexity of communication** *threshold* *currently available support* *assignment variation*
	Language use as specific to disciplinary context or goal	**a discipline thing** *assignment variation* *discipline/course specificity*
Learning = intramental mediation	Learning as an individual process	**personal experience** **feedback** **affective factors** *student motivation* *student engagement*
	Learning as a result of teaching ('pedagogically generated')	**feedback** **using models** **assumptions** *staff engagement* *curriculum design*

		curricular flexibility *affording spaces*
	Learning as a responsibility	**responsibility - learning, teaching and assessment** *responsibility - student experience* *institutional responsibility*
Context as enabling (or not)		**make it happen** **university processes** *policy* *resources* *EAP provision* *academics' confidence about ALL*

Table 2. Themes and sub-themes categorised by semiotic processes. (**Bold indicates nodes based on data about both academic leaders' and students' language**, plain indicates nodes based on data about academic leaders' language development, *italics indicates nodes based on data about students' language development*)

Coffin and Donohue (2014) provide a useful visual representation of this semiotic mediation in a teaching and learning encounter between a lecturer and a student (see Figure 1).

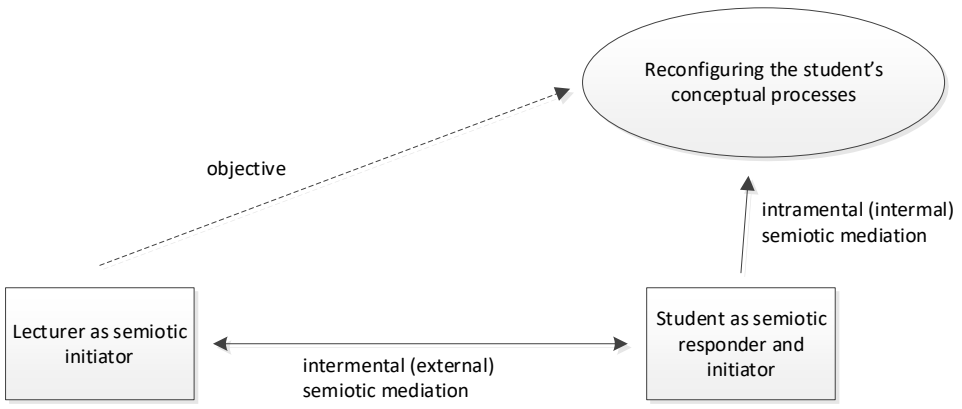

Figure 1. Semiotic mediation in a pedagogic intervention (based on Coffin and Donohue, 2014, p.28)

Figure 1 shows that there are several processes taking place when a lecturer scaffolds learning in order to 'reconfigure the learner's conceptual structures' (Coffin and Donohue, 2014, p.28), in other words to teach them something new. Firstly the lecturer initiates an instance of external semiotic mediation (usually but not only using language). The student receives the input 'intermentally', and hopefully proceeds to the 'intramental' process of developing their understanding. Additional communication may continue, and the combination of external and internal semiotic mediation leads to a reconfiguration of the student's conceptual process: the student learns something. This satisfies the lecturer's initial objective of the pedagogic intervention (Coffin and Donohue, 2014, p.28).

The intramental process of learning in Figure 1 can be compared to the discourses of learning in Table 2 which come from the participants' comments on language development. The academic leaders' discourses of learning (as individual process; as a result of teaching; and as a responsibility) suggest an implicit acknowledgement of the intramental process that takes place. For example, learning as individual process includes student engagement (see Table 2). However, the discourses of learning also acknowledge external factors, such as risk-free, timely opportunities for practice and feedback (on language development), and explicit teaching that is designed through the curriculum. Moreover, the discourse of learning as a responsibility reveals both a contradiction and a tension amongst the academic leaders. If we consider learning as an intramental semiotic process, responsibility for learning inherently lies with the students, yet the academic leaders note various groups within the institution who are responsible for supporting the process. At the same time, they were not clear on who was ultimately responsible for language development: 'What is our mandate in regard to this area?' (AL4). In terms of developing a meso-level language policy, there are clear recommendations that can be made in relation to practice, feedback and curriculum design, but the latter point is concerning: where does the responsibility lie?

In order to consider other discourses from the data, it is useful to develop a fuller picture of the pedagogic processes in higher education by adding an additional layer to the process represented in Figure 1: the process of the student communicating back to the lecturer by producing an assignment. This more closely resembles the scenario that the participants were asked to respond to: a situation in which a course leader is concerned about students' language use (see Figure 2).

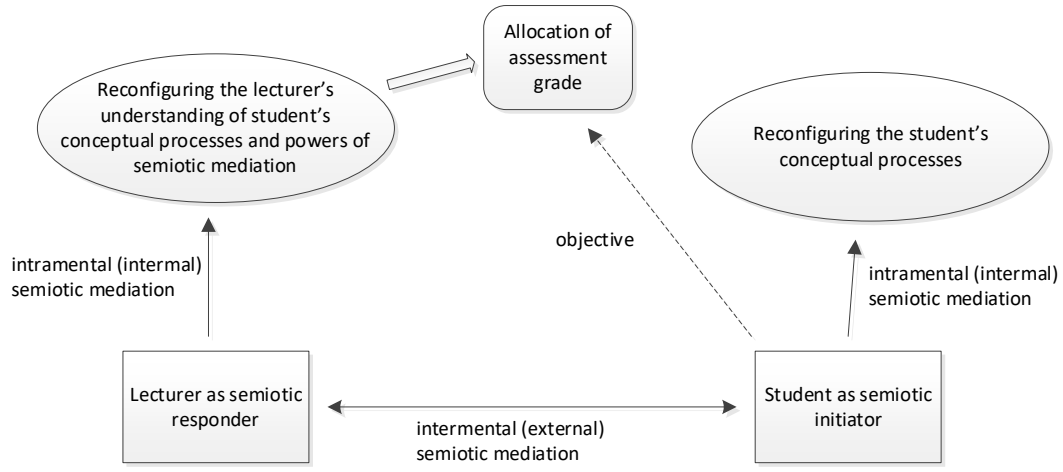

Figure 2. Semiotic mediation in an assessment (adapted from Coffin and Donohue, 2014, p.28)

Figure 2 represents the situation of a student creating a piece of work for assessment in order to gain a grade. This requires the student to use language effectively (written and/or spoken) to convince the lecturer that they have mastered the content (and form) of the subject, and reconfigure the lecturer's understanding of what the student knows (Coffin and Donohue, 2014). In contrast to Figure 1, the starting point here is the student's objective of obtaining a grade, and in order to do that, the student needs to reconfigure the lecturer's understanding of the student's knowledge of subject (Coffin and Donohue, 2014, p.29) which importantly but implicitly includes effective

language use in the subject. Three key discourses are interesting to focus on here because they include several aspects which related solely to students (Table 1). Firstly, there are the seemingly contradictory discourses of language use as technical skill and language use as developmental skill or attribute. The first of these identifies a view of students' language as a technical issue eg. 'confusing the use of commas and full stops' (AL2), whereas the second highlights the complexity of different 'flavours' (AL2) that a student needs to use. In addition, the discourse of language use as specific to context or goal identifies the usefulness of encouraging students to explicitly consider the specificity of language choices in intermental semiotic mediation processes: 'if you had to script a lecture for this performance … getting them into thinking about writing not just as regurgitating …' (AL1).

The discourses relating to the intermental processes in Figure 2 highlight the complexities of both the range of language that students need to develop and the contradictory discourses surrounding language development. In terms of university-wide policy development these contradictory discourses need to be explored, if not resolved, so as to ensure that consistent interpretations are made by different stakeholders. Moreover, the concepts of specificity of context or goal can provide a useful framework for language development.

The third instance of semiotic mediation which needs consideration relates to the academic leaders' own language use. Figure 3 represents the semiotic mediation processes at play when an academic leader communicates with a member of staff in order to effect a change in practice - the scenario described by all four participants as their example of successful communication. In many ways this resembles the scenario of a student submitting an assignment in order to receive a grade. The initiator attempts to reconfigure another person's conceptual understandings, in order to achieve an externally verifiable outcome (ie. the allocation of an assessment grade or a change in practice). The only difference is that in Figures 2 and 3, the holders of power or authority, are on the left of the diagram. Therefore, we can say that whilst a student in Figure 2 appeals to a higher authority for a grade, in Figure 3 the academic leader holds authority when asking colleagues to change their practice.

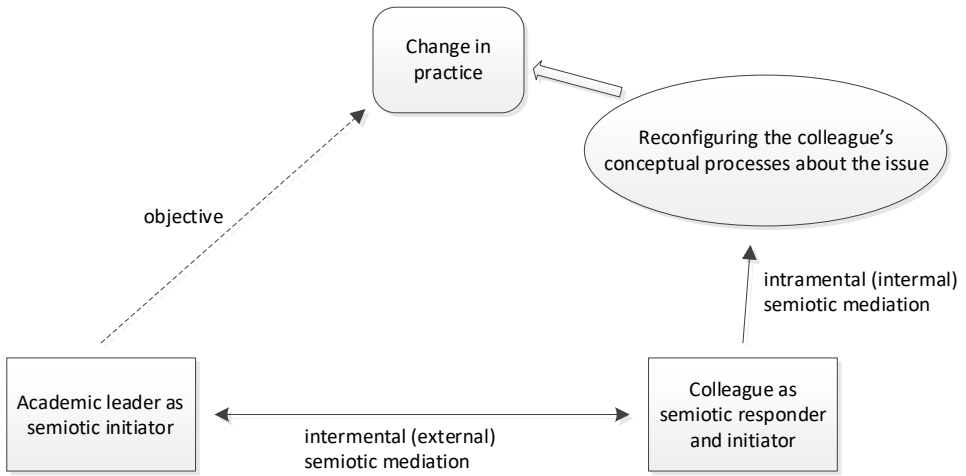

Figure 3. Semiotic mediation in an academic leadership intervention

This difference between Figures 2 and 3 becomes increasingly significant when we look at aspects of the discourses mentioned by academic leaders exclusively in

relation to their own effective language use. When talking about their own intermental semiotic mediation processes, academic leaders' discourse includes specific aspects of language use as a process and language use as interpersonal negotiation which are not included in relation to students. Specifically, in terms of language as a process, their talk about their own effective language use includes issues of time in communication; problems with modes of communication; and the consequences of communication. In terms of language as interpersonal negotiation, they mention purpose in communication, relationships, tone and persuasion. On the one hand, this divergence between the discourses of effective language use and learning could be considered descriptive of the current situation in this case study. On the other hand, the discourses themselves can be seen to privilege aspects of effective language use to those with authority. When considered in conjunction with the acknowledgement that some teaching and learning 'is in effect monologue' (AL1), the divergence becomes fundamentally important. In terms of developing meso-level language policy, issues such as time, mode of communication, consequences and purpose of communication, relationships, tone and persuasion that academic leaders have identified as having benefitted from should be available for students to benefit from.

Conclusion

This study sought to investigate academic leaders' experiences and understandings of the development of effective language use in order to inform discussions about university-wide language development policies. Through a process of thematic analysis, three themes were interpreted from the data: effective language use, learning and context as enabling (or not). Amongst those themes I construed five discourses of language use - as interpersonal negotiation; as process; as technical skill; as developmental skill; and as specific to context or goal - and three discourses of learning - as individual process; as a result of teaching; and as responsibility. Combining a language as a social semiotic approach with a view of power enables a critical analysis of the data. Throughout the data there is optimism and enthusiasm for change shown by the academic leaders with an understanding that all communication relies on an understanding of the audience: 'you have to work from where they are' (AL4). However, an analysis of the discourses and the complexities and inconsistencies between and within them reveals important issues that should be considered by those interested in creating language development policies in higher education.

The resulting considerations for policy development include clarifying where the responsibility lies within an institution; identifying and resolving contradictory discourses, such as language use as developmental or technical skill; and offering students the same opportunities for language development as those experienced by leaders themselves. In practice, my findings indicate that academic leaders should agree clear lines of responsibility for students' language development. They should provide opportunities for academics to discuss what they expect of students' academic language. Academic leaders and lecturers should acknowledge explicitly that their discourses about language use are important, because different practical outcomes follow from talking about language as a developmental or a technical skill. Academic leaders should also ensure that students have opportunities to develop their language through risk free practice that allows timely opportunities for learning from mistakes and reflection integrated into the learning process.

These conclusions emanate from research into a small participant group of academic leaders responsible for learning and teaching within a single post-1992 UK university, with a commitment to teaching, widening participation and social mobility. Its conclusions might also be relevant to any institution with similar commitments.

However, these conclusions may well also resonate with and be useful to those involved in the formulation of language policy in higher education institutions in a variety of international contexts. This is because language development is germane to all educational contexts, but especially higher education contexts where success is dependent on the acquisition of academic discourses that rely on abstract language. As previously mentioned, this research forms one part of a multiple case study that investigates different stakeholder groups. A compilation of data from different stakeholders is the logical next step. Moreover, a further possible contribution to the research field would be to undertake a direct analysis of the interview data using the social semiotic approach.

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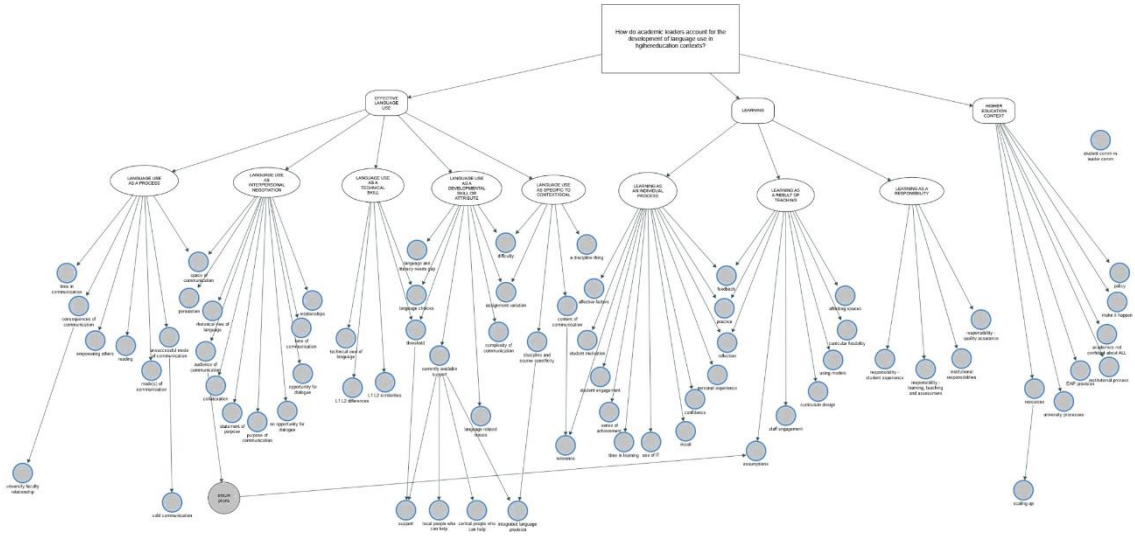
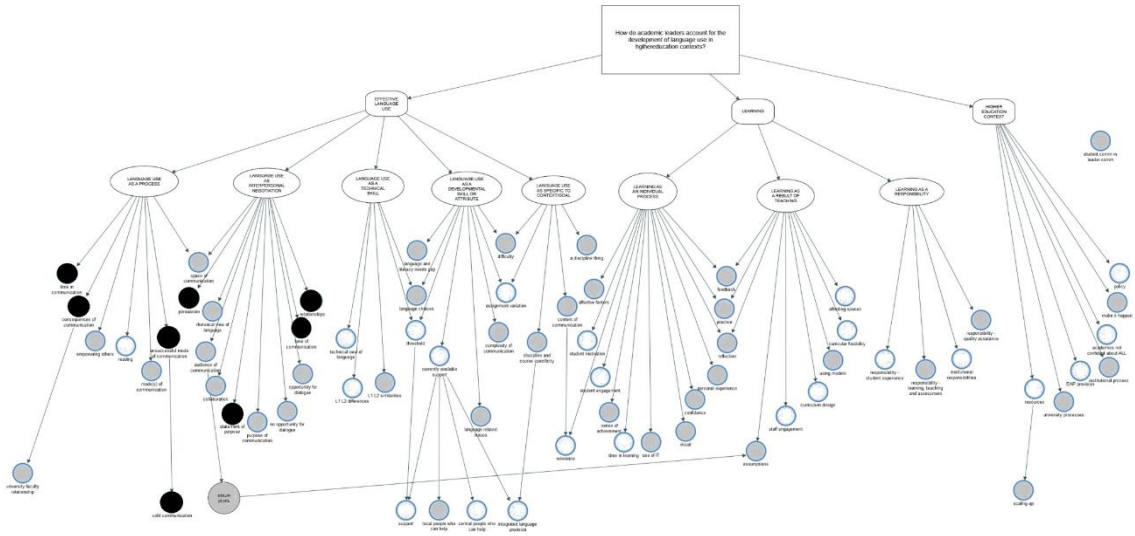
Appendix 1 Thematic hierarchical network of themes, subthemes and nodes representing academic leaders' discourse about language development



Appendix 2 Thematic hierarchical network of themes, subthemes and nodes representing academic leaders' discourse about language development (academic leaders talking only about academic leaders in black; academic leaders talking only about students in white)



Chapter 6 Article based on case study 2: EAP lecturers

Introduction

This article reports the process and results of the second case study which investigates EAP lecturers' understandings of language development. In the article the EAP lecturers' accounts of language development demonstrate detailed understanding of academic language and how it differs between disciplinary contexts and assignment types. The EAP lecturers describe a wide range of teaching and learning activities which they consider effective in developing students' academic language. From their descriptions of their chosen teaching and learning activities I identify a three-stage pattern of highlighting-noticing-practicing combined with reflection and discussion. This pattern combined with a research-based understanding of academic discourses emphasises the complex decision-making processes that EAP lecturers' make when designing and teaching language development activities. The understanding of language development of this group of EAP lecturers and the contribution this can make to university-wide language development provision is explored further in relation to other stakeholders' accounts in Chapter 8.

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Illuminating expertise in academic language development: English for Academic Purposes practitioners in the UK

This qualitative case study focuses on English for Academic Purposes (EAP) practitioner accounts of student academic language development at a UK university. EAP practitioners are often uniquely well-placed as experts in the complexities of language development and academic language choices which vary according to discipline, epistemological stance, and genre. However, their expertise is often misunderstood or misrepresented. This study contributes to debates on academic language development by using a variation on nominal focus group technique to capture the expertise of EAP practitioners and by applying a lens of language as a social semiotic. Thematic analysis establishes four EAP practitioner discourses: the WHAT and the HOW of language development, and CONTEXTUAL CONSIDERATIONS and DECISION-MAKING in language development. The significance of this study lies in the illumination of experienced EAP practitioners' expertise through a framework that can inform conversations about language development policies at institutional level.

Keywords
English for Academic Purposes practitioners, expertise, higher education policy, language development

Introduction

In 1997, Kaplan and Baldauf demanded that higher education institutions (HEIs) 're-examine their language related strategies to see if they are meeting current demands' (p. 257). Many HEIs have ignored this call for a strategic approach to language development because language is often viewed as autonomous from meaning and knowledge (Bond, 2020). This conduit model has powerful roots in empiricist and rationalist traditions and one consequence of this view is that language development is seen as 'remedial' (Lillis and Turner, 2001). However, Kaplan and Baldauf's demand remains valid today in universities with diverse, multilingual, bidialectical (Preece, 2009) and 'traditional' student populations who bring with them varied linguistic and educational experiences and who may feel disadvantaged if lecturers assume 'that students already know or should know the rules around academic culture and discourse' (MacKay and Devlin, 2014).

In some countries (eg. Australia) government-level debates about language (Moore and Harrington, 2016) have led to institution-level language and literacy development policies (eg. Murray and Hicks, 2016). However, in the UK university-wide approaches are rare and provision can be dispersed and difficult to locate (Wingate, 2015). One reason is the lack of clarity about who is responsible for leading language and literacy development (Nicholls, 2020). Leadership is key among several factors for successful institution-wide approaches (Dunworth et al, 2014): 'a viable strategy requires the involvement of both disciplinary and language experts, as well as competent leadership.' (p. 259) Disciplinary experts clearly know their disciplinary

discourses, however, their knowledge can be tacit (Elton, 2010) and difficult for them to articulate (McGrath et al, 2019). While examples abound of micro-level collaborations embedding language expertise into curricula (Li, 2020), one barrier to institution-level policy and planning is that ‘communication between people with power and people with expertise could be improved’ (Fenton-Smith and Gurney, 2016, p.84). Research is needed that enables communication between these groups.

One group of experts in academic language and literacies is English for Academic Purposes (EAP) practitioners. Their goal is to enable students and staff to perform academic tasks optimally through the medium of English (Hyland and Shaw, 2016). Their expertise comprises knowledge of academic discourses, encompassing research and pedagogic genres including 'student genres' (Nesi and Gardner, 2012), pedagogic approaches, and sensitivity towards their institutional context (Sloan and Porter, 2010).

EAP practitioners frequently collaborate with academics across their institutions (eg. Dudley-Evans and St John, 1998; Benesch, 2001; Wingate, 2015), yet there remains a misconception that EAP practitioners' expertise is limited to correcting grammatical constructions: 'You do 'SPAG' [spelling and grammar], don't you?' (personal communication, professional and academic support services leader 2019). This misrepresentation is compounded by the absence of research capturing the practices and expertise of experienced EAP practitioners (Campion, 2016; Ding and Bruce, 2017), despite over 40 years of EAP research (Hyland and Jiang, 2021) and 50 years of practice (Bruce, 2021). Whilst some research attempts to specify how EAP practice differs from general English language teaching (eg. Martin, 2014), the main differences appear to be the identification of a specific target language content, academic discourse (eg. Martin, 2014; Campion, 2016) and practitioners’ relationship with academia (Bruce, 2021; Ding and Bruce, 2017). Lee’s (2016) genre analysis of

practitioners' moves in EAP classrooms identifies three distinct phases – opening, activity cycle, closing – but his focus is on the associated linguistic features associated with these phases, rather than their rationale of their work. The BALEAP (2008) Competency Framework for Teachers of English for Academic Purposes provides an invaluable source of information about what EAP expertise could look like, but it is primarily written for an EAP audience. Without a clearly articulated understanding of what EAP practitioners do and why we do it, that is accessible to a wider audience, reductive misrepresentations may continue and our expertise is unlikely to be fully utilised by institutions (Atai and Taherkani, 2018). This article begins to fill this gap by exploring EAP expertise. I define EAP expertise as a process (Bereiter and Scardamalia as cited in Tsui, 2003) iteratively building on cognitions, 'what teachers know, believe and think' (Borg, 2003, p. 81), about EAP and pedagogy, in 'dialectical relation with context' (Tsui, 2003, p. 64) through reflexive practices (Tsui, 2003). This iterative process is represented two-dimensionally in Figure 1.

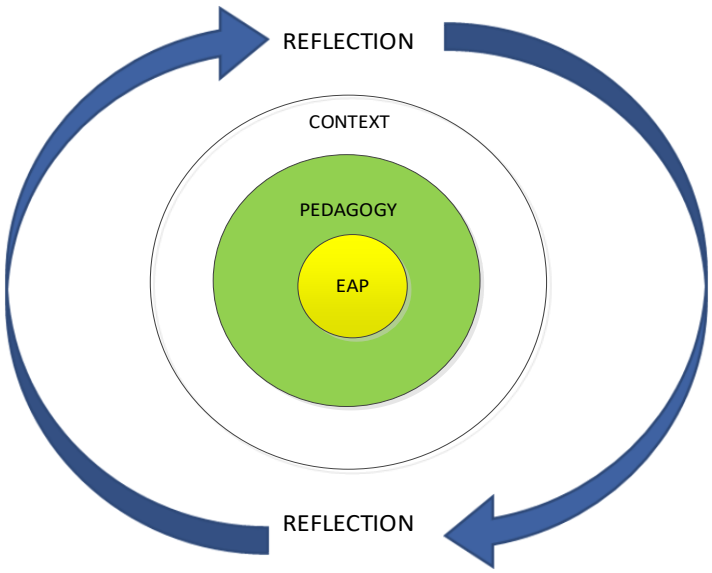

Figure 1 Expertise combining cognitions of EAP, pedagogy, context and reflection

This article illuminates EAP practitioners' discourses of language development, because it is through discourses that ideologies, practices, meanings and values are shared (Fairclough, 1995). This single case study is part of a larger multiple case study (as defined by Stake, 2006) whose goal is to elucidate multiple stakeholders' discourses of language development. The single case study reported here, of EAP practitioners, is important because of their position as 'people with expertise' as contrasted with 'people with power' (Zhao and Baldauf, 2012; Fenton-Smith and Gurney, 2016) (see Nicholls, 2020 for a discussion about academic leaders' discourses around language development). A later study will consolidate different stakeholders' discourses.

The research question is:

How do EAP practitioners account for the development of students' effective language use in academic contexts?

Conceptual framework

I use Coffin and Donohue's (2014) work based on Vygotsky (1986), Bernstein (1996) and Hasan (2005, 2011), to define 'effective language use'. Coffin and Donohue's (2014) language as a social semiotic model describes how 'knowledge, behaviours and language develop symbiotically' (p.4). By locating language development as constitutive in knowledge development, language and literacy development blend with understandings of disciplinary discourses, practices and epistemologies (see Hyland, 2004): language choices are deemed successful when they align with their disciplinary audiences' expectations.

I outline two situations where effective language use is fundamental (i) to learning, and (ii) to producing linguistic text for assessment. Figure 2 replicates Coffin and Donohue's (2014) representation of Hasan's (2005) explanation of semiotic mediation processes in these situations, whilst acknowledging that lecturers form just

one source of learning, and students also interact with a wide range of learning materials.

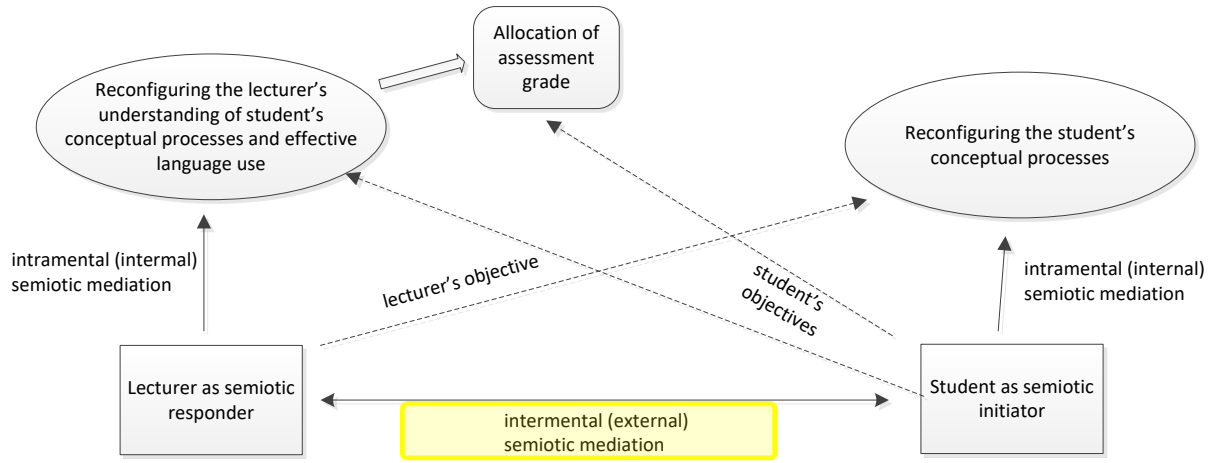

Figure 2. Semiotic mediation in an assessment (adapted from Coffin and Donohue 2014, 28) (Highlighted section represents the linguistic content that constitutes the focus of EAP provision)

Figure 2 shows that the lecturer's objective is to change the student's understanding of a specific concept. This requires both successful communication between the lecturer and the student, 'intermental semiotic mediation', and successful 'intramental semiotic mediation' as the student makes sense of the information received. This communication is often multi-modal, but here I focus on language use. Effective language use leads to student learning: students' conceptual processes are reconfigured.

Meanwhile the student's objective is to reconfigure the lecturer's understanding of what the student knows. The student produces a monologic text to demonstrate their learning. The lecturer develops an understanding of what the student has understood and allocates a grade. Importantly for the student and EAP practitioner, I have added the fact that the lecturer's understanding of the student's powers of semiotic mediation also influences the assessment grade (see Nicholls, 2020). Language or communication are frequently included in university assessment criteria but are rarely explicitly included in

the curriculum (Wingate, 2015). A lack of disciplinary discourse teaching contributes to a ‘pedagogy of osmosis' (Turner, 2011, p. 21) in which newcomers to academic discourses are expected to acquire new rules of semiotic mediation without explanation. Turner claims the 'assumption of osmosis is predicated on sameness. The same kinds of people enter the academic as have always entered' (Turner, 2011, p. 21). That assumption clearly cannot hold in today’s HEIs as student demographics increasingly diversify due to widening participation and internationalisation (Wingate, 2015).

This analysis provides essential background to the EAP practitioner's expertise for two reasons. Firstly, it foregrounds the fundamental role of language in learning and assessment in academic contexts (Coffin and Donohue, 2014) thus highlighting the 'value of *metasemiotic awareness*' (Coffin and Donohue, 2014, p. 30, italics in original). Secondly, it informs EAP practitioners which language features to teach: those which facilitate intermental semiotic mediation for learning and assessment.

Methodology

This single case study of a group of EAP practitioners in an applied UK university takes an inductive, qualitative approach. It is part of a larger multiple case study in which each case focusses on one stakeholder group. To answer my open-ended research question, I designed a variation on the ‘Nominal Focus Group Technique’ (Varga Atkins et al., 2017) which combines in-depth discussion and prioritisation. This enabled me to prompt focussed discussion without entering those interactions, which is important because of my multiple roles of co-teacher, manager and researcher.

I held three focus groups each lasting approximately 1 hour 30 minutes, with 3-4 participants in each. In total there were ten participants (EAPL1 - EAPL10): six women and four men. Each participant had at least an initial teaching certificate and a masters in an EAP-related subject, two had PhDs in linguistics and actively published. All had

between 5 and 25 years' experience teaching EAP and the mean was over 13 years': collectively they provide insights into the practices of experienced EAP practitioners.

To facilitate ease within the focus groups, EAP practitioners with similar roles were grouped together (Stewart et al., 2007). Practitioners were grouped thus: members of a project to embed disciplinary specific academic language and literacy development regardless of linguistic background; course leaders of pre-sessional, in-sessional and international foundation programmes; and EAP practitioners teaching bi/multilingual students. Although this provided some homogeneity of experience, these distinctions are not categorical: some practitioners in the first group were also course leaders, and all participants were active in EAP teaching.

To instigate focus group discussion without becoming engaged in the conversation, I structured the focus groups with a written pre-task and two tasks in the focus group (see Table 1). The pre-task was to describe a successful activity that developed students' academic language including: the teaching context; their teaching objectives; why participants considered the activity successful. Whilst acknowledging that self-reports of teaching and actual practices may differ (Borg, 2006), I suggest that accounts and discussions of 'successful' activities provide valid insights into EAP practitioners' discourses, and therefore their practices and ideologies (Fairclough, 1995). The descriptions provided both data and material for the focus group discussion. I thematically analysed the descriptions before the focus groups (Table 2).

Phase	Who	Task and content
1 - pre-task	individual participants	describe an activity that has been successful; provide biodata
2 – activity analysis	researcher	inductive thematic analysis of activity descriptions – create codes
3 – description and discussion of activities	focus groups	describe own activity to group and ask for clarifications when listening
4 – hierarchy creation	individual participants during the focus group period	create hierarchy of codes that are important in enabling language development
5 – explanation and discussion of hierarchy	focus groups	explain reasoning behind the hierarchy created – ask for clarifications
6 – data analysis	researcher	inductive thematic analysis of focus group transcripts

Table 1 Data collection and analysis phases

During each focus group, participants described their activities and asked each other for any clarifications, generating considerable discussion. I then gave participants themes I had generated from thematic analysis of their written pre-tasks (Table 2). The thematic analysis was guided by constant reference to the research question and built on the coding of an earlier case in the larger multiple case study (Nicholls, 2020). Each participant had a set of themes on sticky notes. Participants were asked to create a hierarchy of themes in answer to the question, 'Which of these characteristics/ considerations/ issues would you consider most important in enabling language development?' Participants were invited to use the themes provided, add missing themes, and discard any they felt were irrelevant.

Focus group 1	Focus group 2	Focus group 3
content of communication	accuracy	abstraction
Difficulty	appropriate source use	confidence
Discussion	audience of communication	discipline and course specificity
Feedback	collaboration	discussion
Flow	confidence	enjoyment
language and literacy gap	content of communication	integrated language provision
language as developmental skill	discipline/ course specificity	language choices
language as specific to goals and contexts	L1 L2 learner differences	noticing
language choices	L1 L2 similarities	practice
metalanguage	language as developmental skill	reflection
Practice	language choices	technical view of language
purpose of communication	metalanguage	threshold
questioning lecturers' expectations	mode of communicaton	visual learning
reading	moves	***Added by participants:***
Reflection	noticing	***interest/motivation***
Relevance	discussion	
rhetorical view of language	practice	
Scaffolding	purpose of communication	
Strategies	reading	
text structure	reflection	
time in learning	relevance	
using models	rhetorical view of language	
visual learning	scaffolding	
Added by participants:	sense of achievement	
Challenge	space	
joy of writing	strategies	
	structure	
	student engagement	
	student motivation	
	technical view of language	
	transfer	
	use of IT	
	use of models	
	visual learning	

Table 2 Lists of themes/codes provided to focus group participants to place into a hierarchy

Participants created their own hierarchies, which they explained to the group (Figure 3). The prioritisation task derives from the Nominal Focus Group Technique (Varga-Atkins et al., 2017). However, unlike Varga-Atkins et al.'s process, there was no compulsion to reach agreement. The task instead was for individuals to explain their hierarchy to prompt further discussion. This combination of tasks structured the focus groups enabling me to gain data, whilst limiting my own interaction.

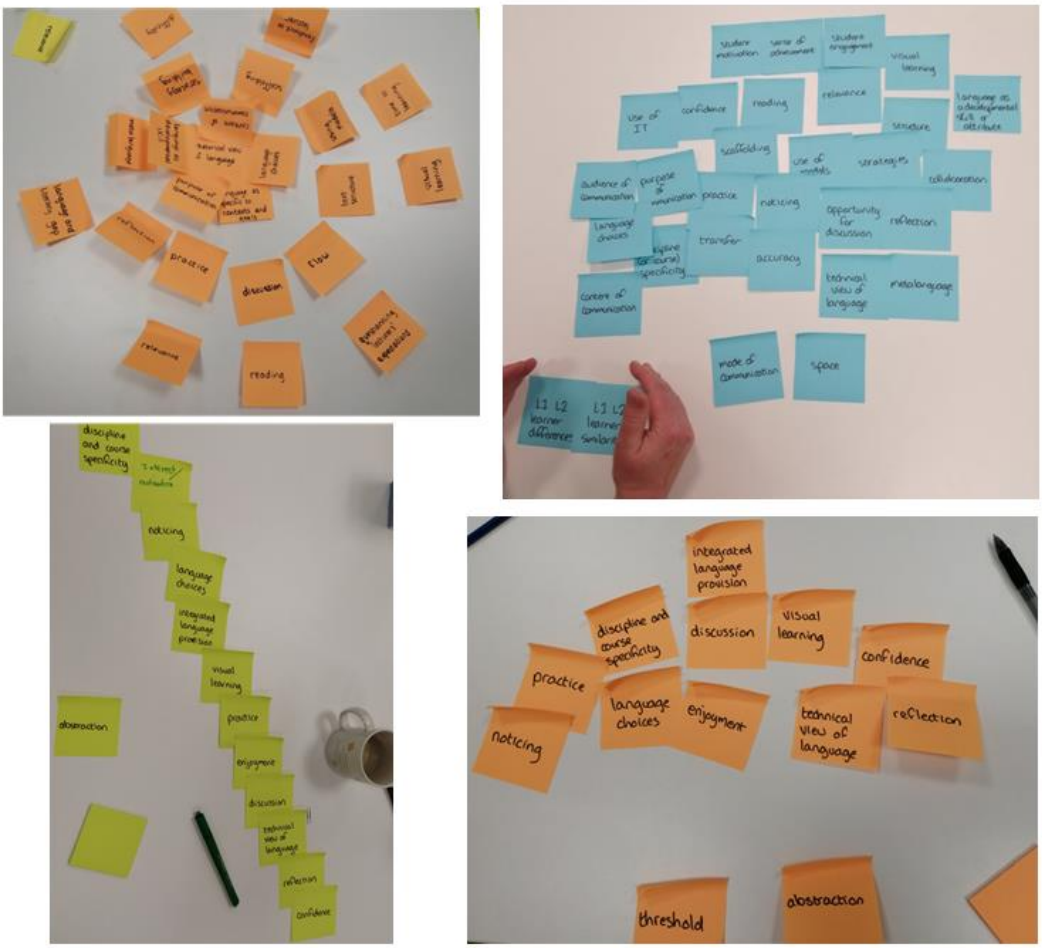

Figure 3 Sample hierarchies (clockwise from top left: EAPL1, EAPL6, EAPL8, EALP9)

The written pre-task and focus group transcripts provide the data for analysis. I thematically analysed both with constant reference to the research question focussing on

EAP practitioners' accounts of language development. I built on the inductive thematic coding developed in the first case of the multiple case study (Nicholls, 2020). Unsurprisingly, I developed new codes that relate specifically to the practices and discourses of the EAP practitioner participants. Constant comparison (Glaser and Strauss, 1967) ensured that all codes developed iteratively: some were combined, others abandoned. Two colleagues peer reviewed this process.

One methodological limitation was the restriction of EAP practitioners' accounts of language development to the teaching environment. Little was said about either what happens outside of the EAP classroom that enables learners' academic language development or EAP practitioners' own scholarship and research findings. Further, by restricting the analysis of the data to the two scenarios of a pedagogic intervention and assessment, I risked oversimplifying the students' linguistic needs and ignoring social and other motivations for communication in HE. For the purposes of this case study, however, my method generated rich data providing useful insights into EAP practitioners' accounts of language development.

Findings and discussion

Participants described wide-ranging activities (Table 3) encompassing a diverse range of students, objectives and EAP teaching contexts, including single discipline and mixed discipline pre-sessional classes, discipline related foundation course modules, and academic language and literacy provision embedded in disciplinary modules.

Participant and focus group		**Teaching focus**	**Cycle of activities (see key below)**
EAPL1	focus group 1	reading strategies	R - N (using a tick list) - D - P (reading)
EAPL2		semantic waves in reflective writing	AR - N (text analysis) - D - AR - N - P (writing) – D
EAPL3		language varieties/ register	AR - P/N (role play with observers) - D
EAPL4	focus group 2	reporting what you've read	E - AR - N (sentence structures with reporting verbs) - D - P (writing)
EAPL5		vocabulary learning awareness raising	R - D - AR - D - AR - N (learner dictionary content) - P (produce poster) - D
EAPL6		Paraphrasing	AR/E - N (sample sentences) - P (sentence paraphrases) – D

EAPL7		language and structure of posters	E - N (structural analysis) - D - N (language analysis) - D - P (edit own posters)
EAPL8	focus group 3	the concept of and examples of metaphor	AR - E - N (video about artwork) - D - N (paper based art) - D - P (draw their own metaphor in art)
EAPL9		style in academic writing	E - D - AR - R - N (text analysis) - P (improve sample text) - D - P (improve own writing) - D- R
EAP10		lexical approach to vocabulary learning	AR - N (lexical form and usage) - P (using lexical item in own work)

Table 3 Focus group participants' teaching focus and activities (key: AR = awareness raising, D = dialogue, E = eliciting , N = noticing, P = practicing, R = reflecting)

In relation to the research question, *How do EAP practitioners account for the development of students' effective language use in academic contexts*, I grouped themes using an adaptation of Coffin and Donohue's (2014) teaching scenario (Figure 2), repurposed to represent an EAP teaching and learning event. In the adapted representation (Figure 4), an EAP practitioner has the objective of reconfiguring students' linguistic knowledge and communicative competence (their capacity for intermental semiotic mediation in Figure 2) and students respond through their intramental semiotic mediation: their EAP knowledge and communicative competence develops.

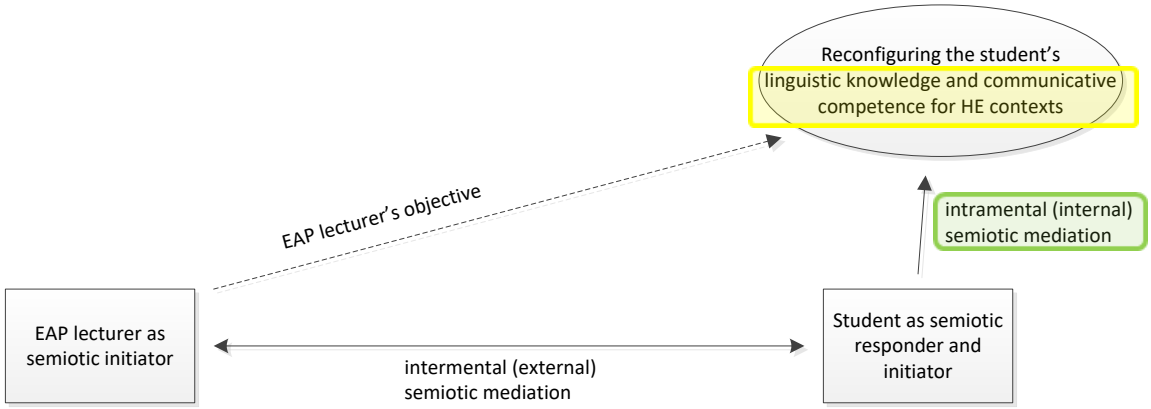

Figure 4. Semiotic mediation processes in an EAP teaching and learning scenario (Highlighted sections relate to the WHAT (yellow) and HOW (green) of language development in Figure 7)

The EAP practitioner's objective is to enable students to use language effectively during those processes of semiotic mediation described in Figure 2. The intermental semiotic mediation in yellow in Figure 2 becomes the content for reconfiguration in Figure 4. My analysis illuminates how EAP practitioners understand the process of development (green in Figure 4) of that language (yellow in Figure 4).

Analysing the data through this lens, I grouped themes under four discourses: the WHAT of language development; the HOW of language development; CONTEXTUAL CONSIDERATIONS of language development; and DECISION-MAKING in language development (Figure 5). These are elaborated below.

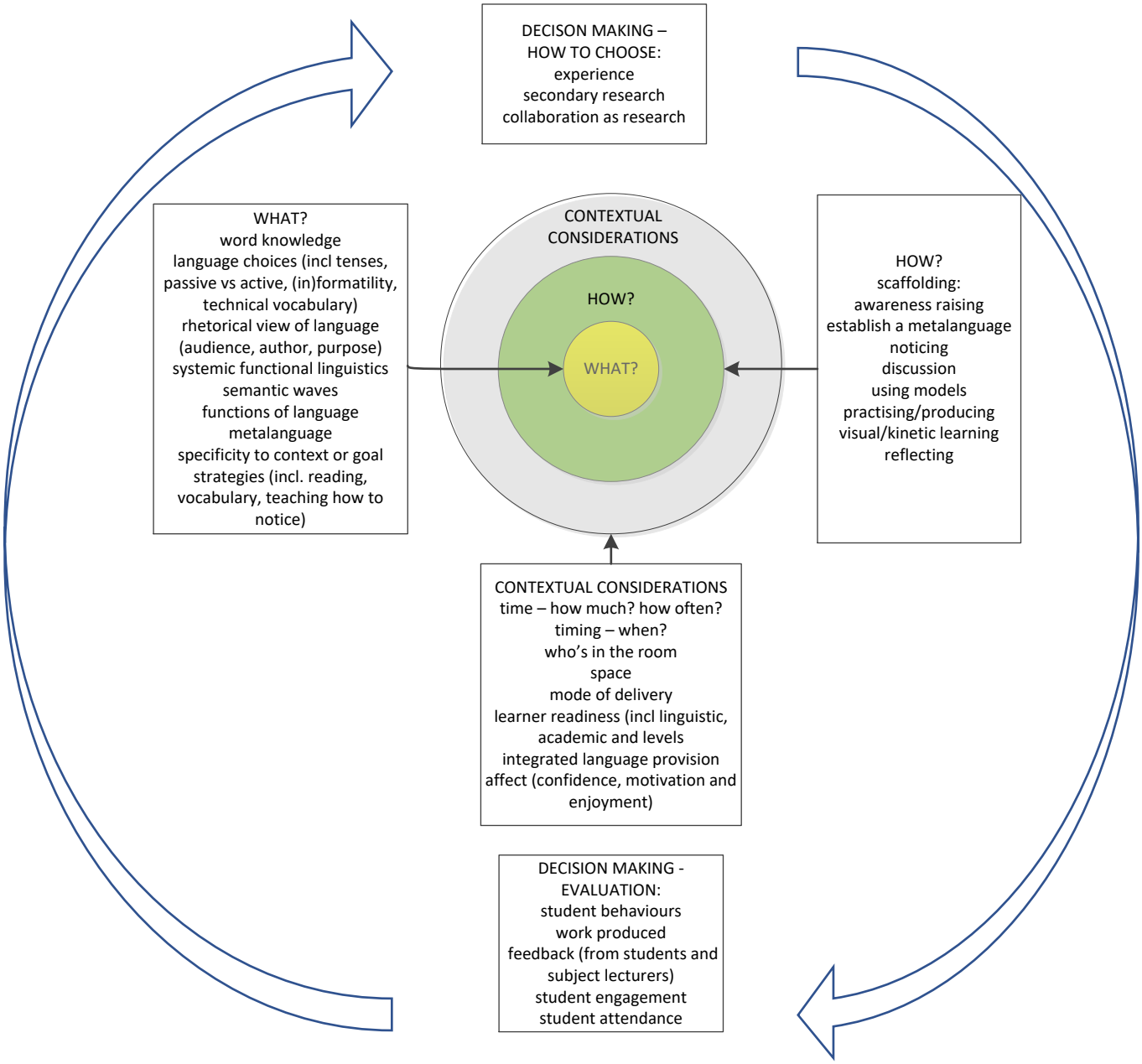

Figure 5. Codes collated under themes: the WHAT of language development; the HOW of language development; CONTEXTUAL CONSIDERATIONS for language development; DECISION MAKING in language development

The WHAT of language development

The first theme is the WHAT of language development: the WHAT of EAP. This includes lexico-grammatical knowledge summarised in the codes 'word knowledge' and 'language choices'. Word knowledge can be summarised as 'what it means to know a word' (EAPL5), including 'learning different aspects of a word and how it could be used in different contexts' (EAPL5). Similarly 'language choices' refers to a wide range of grammatical choices: for example 'compressed language' (EAPL7) for poster titles; verb mood and tense, 'there's a lot … that's written in the passive in these [model posters], otherwise it's usually simple present or simple past' (EAPL7); pronoun use in relation to genre and epistemological stance, 'What do you think about your [reflective] portfolios, would you use 'I' or 'we'?' (EAPL9); sentence structure in citation patterns, 'it was about non-integral and integral citations as well' (EAPL4); and nominalisation and abstraction in academic writing, 'how this word in the concrete changes into … a noun phrase and a chunk and a more theoretical … thing.' (EAPL2) Importantly, throughout this data, linguistic features, are always contextualised and practiced in relation to the academic context in which they are used.

Beyond this lexico-grammatical knowledge, the EAP practitioners refer to a range of theoretical linguistic approaches. One approach is evidenced by the code 'rhetorical view of language' and highlights the consideration of audience, author and purpose. For example, returning to the teaching of art and design posters, EAPL7 identified how in the session she highlighted the idea that, 'Your purpose is to draw someone in and make them want to read it.' Meanwhile, in a session on source use, EAPL4 prompted students to consider their audience by asking, 'Do you think that this is something your tutor would expect you to know?' leading to a discussion about what constitutes common knowledge in students' disciplines. The inclusion of this code does not indicate universal agreement about the usefulness of a rhetorical view of language amongst these EAP practitioners. One EAP practitioner who avoids speaking explicitly

about ‘author, purpose and audience’ finds it, ‘all too nebulous’ (EAPL3) and finds the ‘direct line between field, mode and tenor and the language structures’ far more potent, although he explicitly acknowledged that he would not use those terms with his EAP students. This EAP practitioner’s preference for Halliday’s Systemic Functional Linguistics demonstrates the wide-ranging approaches to linguistic analysis used by EAP practitioners.

Other concepts of language use and knowledge are evidenced by EAPL2 in her use of semantic waves from Legitimation Code Theory (Kirk, 2017; Maton, 2020). EAPL2 describes how, ‘you talk about this idea of what’s concrete and what’s abstract for their field … and then you look at how the texts move, whether it starts down at the concrete and then goes up to abstract or whether it sort of goes like that [waves downwards with hand]’.

This latter example also demonstrates how EAP practitioners introduce metalanguage, ‘language about language’ (EAPL3), through exemplification. Despite some reticence of using technical terms when teaching language to people whose primary goal is to learn their discipline(s), not language (eg. EAPL3), EAPL2 highlights one advantage of introducing students to metalanguage, ‘because they can talk to the [subject] lecturer about what they have done using the language that they’ve learned from the session.’ Furthermore, one participant suggested that part of EAP practitioners’ role is to enhance academic teaching and learning practices through the introduction of a shared metalanguage, ‘I think it’s actually really important that we develop a language for talking about this stuff.’ (EAPL1)

A further view of language is highlighted by EAPL7 in her discussion about the functional content of the art and design posters, ‘There’s an awful lot of process description which is EAP but you might not think of it for art and design’. At one level, this familiar phrase ‘process description’, helps EAP practitioner to identify relevant

linguistic forms, text structures, and linking words to teach. Once again, though, it is worth noting the contextualisation, 'you might not think of it for art and design.'

The constant reference to contextual specificity (of discipline, genre and/or pedagogy) is fundamental to the EAP practitioners' discourse in this study. It is embodied in practice in several ways: through students' choices of texts, 'we refer the contents … to something they've brought about their discipline' (EAPL5 – vocabulary learning); through models chosen by EAP practitioners (EAPL4); and in the pedagogic choices of activity design, 'I don't think it [the visual metaphor activity] would have worked with, you know, the engineers …' (EAPL8). In contrast, the risks of talking about a "general" academic English style were also clear, 'You don't want to over-generalise too much' (EAPL10). The importance of this specificity or contextualisation lies in the accessibility and relevance that EAP practitioners constantly have in mind: 'it's about actually students taking on what we say or what they do in that session and seeing the value and the relevance and feeling a little bit in control of what they're doing' (EAPL2). In short, it is about enabling empowerment.

The WHAT of EAP teaching also includes metacognitive approaches, which are exemplified under the theme 'strategies' including vocabulary learning strategies (EAPL5, EAPL10) and reading strategies (EAPL1). EAP practitioners consider both linguistics and learning processes.

Overlapping the WHAT in Figure 5 with the social semiotic processes in Figures 2 and 4, it becomes clear that the expertise of the EAP practitioners provides analysis of the 'intermental semiotic mediation' that occurs between lecturer and student. The data demonstrate how these EAP practitioners utilise numerous pedagogical and analytical linguistic approaches to identify what effective language use is and provide and exemplify metalanguage that can be used to discuss it. Experienced EAP practitioners scaffold and provide metalanguage for the discussions needed

between students and subject lecturers (Lillis and Turner, 2001; Elton, 2010; Clarence, 2012). EAP practitioners have the expertise to support what Coffin and Donohue (2014) refer to as 'metasemiotic awareness' (p. 6), empowering students whose language is developing in higher education, and for whom the 'pedagogy of osmosis' (Turner, 2011, p. 21) is at best inefficient and at worst iniquitous. Quite clearly, the WHAT of language development is a lot more than SPAG. Importantly, yet unfortunately, this knowledge can be tacit to EAP practitioners themselves (Bruce and Ding, 2017), which limits discussions with policy makers and other stakeholders.

The HOW of language development

Participants described cycles of activities they deemed successful (Table 3). The cycles were understood as scaffolding the learning of effective language use (EAPL6). Indeed 'scaffolding' was often at or near the top of the EAP practitioners' hierarchies (EAPL2, EAPL3, EAPL4, EAPL5 EAPL6, and EAPL7): 'However we interpret the language or the assessment task or whatever it is that we think students need to understand, it all comes down to, "How do we get them to understand it?" and, for me, that is all about the scaffolding.' (EAPL3).

Early parts of the scaffolding process include awareness-raising (EAPL5) and establishing a metalanguage (EAPL1). Establishing a metalanguage has specifically transactional purposes: 'It's a linguistic concept that's scaffolded so that everybody can use it [the concept]' (EAPL3).

After awareness-raising, noticing is a key stage in the scaffolding process. EAPL9 describes how following an elicitation activity to highlight formality in writing, students were given a noticing activity: 'they had a prompt, like for example an essay or an email … and then … they compared in pairs' (EAPL9). Here the noticing activity started as an individual task, and then was complemented by the opportunity for

dialogue, another regular practice which was reported at different stages of the scaffolding process.

Another practice was the use of models. Models were referred to in awareness-raising and noticing activities and as part of the creation of disciplinary discourse knowledge. Models analysed by EAP practitioners illuminate aspects of disciplinary discourses for students that may be tacit for subject lecturers who '… don't really know what they're expecting … that's why I think it's better … when we analyse successful pieces of work' (EAPL1). Fundamental, therefore, to the work described by this group of the EAP practitioners is subject lecturers' collaboration: 'They need to provide really good models, don't they…' (EAPL4).

In contrast to the common (Martin, 2014) but contested (see Anderson, 2017) English language teaching model of Presentation Practice and Production (PPP), which highlights practice and production as separate phases of language learning, these EAP practitioners often used the concepts interchangeably as enabling students to transfer language or strategies beyond the classroom: 'so after you've been scaffolded, you've seen your models, you need to practice, then you can transfer [what you've learnt]' (EAPL6). In some scenarios, like vocabulary learning, this required activities generating 'pushed output' (EAPL6, EAPL5). In other scenarios practice/production directly related to the target product (EAPL1, EAPL7, EAPL9). Regardless of the authenticity of practice/production, this step is crucial to the learning process (EAPL7).

A further phase of the scaffolding process was reflection. This is highlighted most clearly by EAPL9 who after asking students to apply what they had learnt about academic style to their own writing noted, 'when I asked them to reflect … they were able to come up with their own like list of the features … that linked to their main weaknesses that they identified in … their own writing.' (EAPL9)

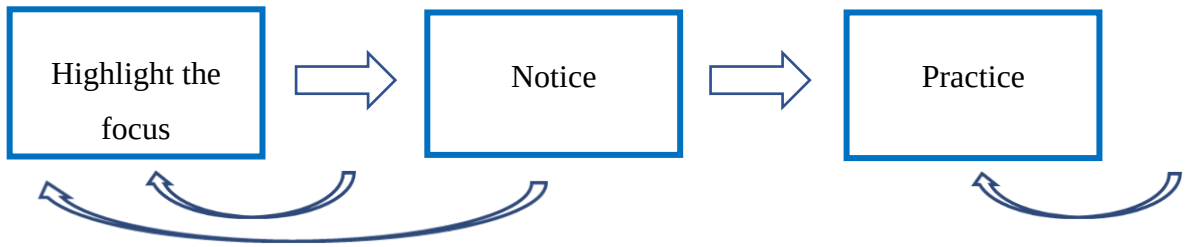

Figure 6. Pattern of activities described

Analysis of the data (Table 3) reveals a three-stage pattern of activities – Highlight-Notice-Practice – supported by discussion and reflection (Figure 6). On the one hand, the similarity in the general cycle is not surprising, given that most practitioners had similar language teacher education. On the other hand, the diverse range of noticing and practicing activities is striking. Noticing activities included checklists (EAPL1), various forms of text analysis (EAPL2, EAPL4, EAPL9, EAPL10), and role play (EAPL3). Practising activities included reading (EAPL1), writing (EAPL2, EAPL4, EAPL6, EAPL5), drawing (EAPL8) and editing (EAPL7, EAPL9) (see Table 3). The wide-ranging activities reflect the diverse objectives.

Superimposing the HOW of language development onto the model of semiotic mediation (Figure 4) reveals EAP practitioners' understanding of students' intermental semiotic mediation processes. The cycle, Highlight-Notice-Practice, differs from teaching cycles such as the Presentation-Practice-Produce often used in general English language teaching (Martin, 2014). Highlighting replaces presentation because students have probably already seen the linguistic features under discussion. Noticing activities manifest EAP practitioners' role of demystifying 'student genres' (Nesi and Gardner, 2012). Practice/production, the ultimate goal of each cycle, replicates the 'intermental semiotic processes' required by students in their inter/disciplinary studies.

The Highlight-Notice-Practice pattern also highlights the belief that effective language development requires explicit teaching and is developed through cycles of individual and interactive learning activities. This mirrors the 'recursive cycle of moves' in Lee's 'activity cycle phase' (2016, p. 104).

Models, provided by subject lecturers and analysed by EAP practitioners or in collaborative discussion, form exemplars that can deepen everyone's knowledge of the language features that require mastery and provide a basis for explicit instruction with students (Wette, 2014). EAP practitioners provide and scaffold the metalanguage used to discuss the models' features, enabling the much-needed talk between subject lecturers, language experts and students (Clarence, 2012).

The simplicity of the cycle hides the 'scaffolding' of context-specific tasks that build students' understanding and use of the language in focus: it hides the EAP practitioners' expertise in scaffolding the development of effective language use in the very specific contexts within HE - the intermental mediation between subject lecturer and student.

Challenges in enabling language development were also discussed. I summarise these under the next discourse: contextual considerations.

CONTEXTUAL CONSIDERATIONS for language development

My third discourse, contextual considerations, combines factors that EAP practitioners navigate when designing and delivering their sessions, ranging from logistics, such as timing, to considerations about student readiness.

'Time' and 'timing' include when and how much time is available. The amount of time is particularly limited for embedded language development sessions within subject modules. For example, when looking at semantic waves within and across a text, 'it's quite difficult, because of time … you have to just do a paragraph or two paragraphs'

(EAPL2). However, full-time language development courses also struggle: ‘there never seems to be enough time … with all the other things you’re meant to be doing a in a short sort of course of study’ (EAPL4). This is compounded because language development is a long-term endeavour, ‘you may feel it [progress] is difficult to see … in the short term that is’ (EAPL10). Frequency is also important as delivering one-off guest sessions did not enable a relationship to be built: ‘It definitely works best, doesn’t it, when you see people a few … at least two or three times.’ (EAPL2) As well as increasing familiarity between teachers and students, more could be achieved, ‘So that you can start something and then move on to actually produce something.’ (EAPL2). Timing is important because students can relate best when deadlines are imminent, ‘I think because they’ve got something right in front of them that they know they’ve got to do, it’s something that they easily latch onto.’ (EAPL2)

Contextual considerations include who is in the room and ‘our role in the room’ (EAPL1) which varied according to the participants’ contexts. For example, when teaching a session as part of a disciplinary module, the very presence of the subject lecturer was perceived to have a direct impact on the level of engagement of the students: ‘so we could go in and do this amazing session, but without that discussion that happens with the content tutor - and this was what happens when they leave - … the students don’t take on our information or ideas’ (EAPL2). The presence of the content tutor was both positive in itself and influential in terms of students’ willingness to speak. EAPL3 noted about an interactive lecture in a large lecture theatre, ‘when I asked them a question they were more willing to kind of join that space because [subject lecturer] had already jumped in!’ The combined presence of students, EAP practitioner and subject lecturer was also significant as it enabled discussion about ‘what the language is and the students and the lecturer having that same sort of clarity.’ (EAPL2)

In the art and design group, who is in the room related to the spatial context. The activity took place in a studio which has its own practices: '1) they're very big rooms, and 2) you are never the only person in that space. So we're constantly wandering around people, people are working on things and it means that we constantly get chip-ins from students and teachers … which is kind of nice.' (EAPL7)

Mode of delivery also needs consideration, particularly on embedded language delivery to large cohorts. 'I did it like an interactive lecture … but obviously they weren't having to respond in the same way [as they would in a small group]' (EAPL2). This contextual challenge was confirmed by EAPL1, 'Lectures are a really bad place to teach academic English, aren't they? It's really hard.'

Learner readiness was considered a further important factor. This included linguistic and academic level, as well as motivation or interest. In terms of linguistic and academic readiness, EAPL6 was clear that work on paraphrasing had to be part of a carefully staged pedagogic process, 'I do stress I wouldn't do it for, in the first week of any pre-sessional course' (EAPL6). In fact, these students were extremely motivated by the perception that this was an important skill that they had to work up to (EAPL6). Regarding academic level, when reviewing her teaching of semantic waves, EAPL2 noted that whereas masters and second year undergraduate students could grasp their usefulness, first year students sometimes find it difficult, 'possibly because they don't have the idea of what the abstract stuff is [in their discipline].' (EAPL2)

There was strong agreement that integrated language provision is useful across a student's career, 'until they become more confident.' (EAPL9) The development of confidence is one of many affective factors mentioned and is viewed as inherently intertwined with language development (eg. EAPL6). Other affective considerations include student motivation (EAPL8, EAPL9) and student and staff enjoyment (EAPL6, EAPL10): 'if you're really … passionate about this, then it kind of expands onto your

students, doesn't it?' (EAPL8). Alongside the EAP practitioners' expertise in academic discourses, their passion for linguistic knowledge, the WHAT of EAP, was palpable. There was also passion for the process and the product: 'I really want to foster that … being a successful writer is … empowering, you know!' (EAPL1)

The finding that EAP practitioners include contextual considerations in their accounts of effective language development evidences EAP practitioners' pedagogic expertise and their awareness of their institutional context. This echoes Chanock's (2007) description of Academic Language and Learning practitioners in Australia. Physical, temporal, social, linguistic readiness, academic readiness and affective considerations influenced these EAP practitioners' pedagogic decisions. Understanding and working within these complexities is fundamental to the EAP practitioner and shapes expertise through a 'dialectical relation between teachers' knowledge and their world of practice' (Tsui, 2003, p. 66). Linguistic analysis of the content and the epistemological and pedagogical nuances of the intermental semiotic mediation between subject lecturer and student (Figure 2) underpins the development of activities used by EAP practitioners. This expertise is demonstrated by sensitivity to disciplinary practices (eg. studio work), learning processes, and the social aspects of learning (eg. who is in the room). EAP practitioners analyse the practices of others to inform their own pedagogic choices. Within institutions, the huge variety of disciplines, assignment types, pedagogic and academic practices can be intimidating to novice EAP practitioners who value learning from colleagues (Campion, 2016; Martin, 2014). I suggest that the explicit sharing of contextual considerations of language development should be valued equally with linguistic knowledge in EAP practitioners' development. Methods from this study could be adapted as developmental exercises with this aim.

DECISION-MAKING in language development

The fourth and overarching discourse of decision-making highlights the cyclical process of planning and evaluation undertaken by EAP practitioners and reflects higher education practices of regular evaluation and evidence-based practice. Practitioners referred to both their professional experience and research, when describing how they made their decisions. For example, EAPL1 describes how the content of the reading strategies checklist '… was actually taken from research of what students do when they read', but also that activities were chosen 'because of my previous experiences.' (EAPL1). Experiential professional knowledge was also the basis for EAPL9's decision-making, 'I chose this … because I've also done it in the past and I believe it usually works'. In their examples, research and professional experience are referred to as distinct reasons. However, collaboration with subject lecturers allows professional expertise and research to coincide, 'it's that whole process of starting with getting lecturers to question themselves about their language expectations … and then the students being involved … it's kind of key to us finding out what the language is and the students and the lecturer having that same sort of clarity.' (EAPL2) Here the collaborative process is a form of research. Indeed, EAPL3 highlights the importance of the collaborative process with subject lecturers whose own knowledge may be more or less tacit: 'whether you've got somebody that is not really well educated in terms of … the role of language, or at the other extreme you've got somebody that absolutely understands how language works in their subject … it is all part of the process' (EAPL3). Here the work of the EAP practitioner as expert is explicit.

In the decision-making cycle, evaluation involved varied forms of evidence: observed students' behaviours (EAPL5, EAPL10); students' work (EAPL4); feedback from students and subject lecturers (eg. EAPL7); and student engagement, 'they were all really intrigued' (EAPL8). In terms of negative evaluations, EAPL3 candidly

described falling attendance at his three lectures on a subject module. However, perceptions of success based on attendance were sometimes contradictory. In another discipline, EAPL3 noted that the subject lecturer perceived a direct positive correlation between student attendance at EAP sessions and student performance.

Given the extraordinary range of cognitions, 'what teachers know, believe and think' (Borg, 2003, p. 81), about EAP, pedagogy and context, it is unsurprising that EAP practitioners refer to research, experience and collaborative processes when making decisions about their provision's design and delivery. Indeed, access to collaborators was transformative in many cases. The wide range of evidence referred to in evaluating the success of activities evidences the reflective and reflexive processes undertaken across the teaching cycle. The dialogue amongst participants points to Tsui's (2003) expert's process of 'theorising practical knowledge and practicalising theoretical knowledge' (p. 257). To gain and maintain vital access to collaborating colleagues, these decision-making processes need to be explicitly shared through the same institutional systems and structures that support and ensure quality in all higher education teaching and learning. They are no less complex; they demand considerable expertise.

Conclusion

This study illuminates the often neglected (Ding and Bruce, 2017) experience and expertise of EAP practitioners. Applying the lens of language as a social semiotic (Coffin and Donohue, 2014), I identify four discourses of language development used by EAP practitioners: the WHAT and the HOW of language development, and CONTEXTUAL CONSIDERATIONS and DECISION-MAKING in language development. This group of experienced EAP practitioners consider a wide range of linguistic, pedagogic and contextual factors, and their expertise emanates from research, practice and continuous evaluation. Linguistic analyses of social semiotic processes

make explicit the language required for success and provide a much-needed metalanguage, or 'talk' (Clarence, 2012) for subject lecturers and students. The pedagogic cycle of Highlight-Notice-Practice using models enables the demystification of academic discourses. The contextual knowledge of language and learning across a whole institution highlights a key area for EAP practitioners to continuously build and share within their teams. Decision-making processes highlight the primary, collaborative, and secondary research and evaluation that typify the reflexive, iterative nature of EAP expertise.

The conclusions of any case study are limited to its own boundaries and therefore cannot be generalised. However, I hope that this case study, which condenses the expertise of one group of language experts, resonates with other academics internationally and can begin to counter reductive perspectives by illuminating EAP practitioners' discourses. These discourses can structure wider discussions about language development practice and policies amongst important stakeholders who want to meet the demands of their students but lack a common language. In addition, the identified discourses and the methodological approach could inform EAP and other practitioners' professional development. Further research would be useful to compare different institutions and contexts. In addition, as mentioned, this case study contributes towards a framework that will include multiple stakeholders' accounts of language development in higher education.

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Chapter 7 Draft article based on case study 3: subject lecturer

Introduction

This article, based on the third case study, investigates a subject lecturer's understanding of language development and how that understanding shifted during our interdisciplinary collaborative action research. The article highlights the subject lecturers' detailed knowledge of her students, and it demonstrates her increasing confidence in demystifying the expectations of academic language for them. During the collaborative process the subject lecturer's understandings of academic language development continuously evolved. One example of this was an increasing focus on student being, including the interrelationship between language choices and the development of a student's academic or professional identity. The perspectives offered by this case study are further explored in Chapter 8 in relation to the previous two case studies.

This article is currently under review at Higher Education Research and Development. Details of the division of work taken between the co-authors are given in Data Analysis section of the draft article.

Conceptualising Academic Language and Literacies: a Longitudinal Case Study of Collaborative Interdisciplinary Staff Development

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Conceptualising Academic Language and Literacies: a Longitudinal Case Study of Collaborative Interdisciplinary Staff Development

This article provides an in-depth case study of an interdisciplinary collaboration between language expert and subject expert at a UK university to develop vocational students' academic language and literacies. Developing students' academic language and literacies is integral to higher education processes of learning and assessment. The literature recommends interdisciplinary collaboration and reports numerous small-scale, short-term projects. However, little published research focuses on how interdisciplinary collaboration changes subject lecturers' conceptualisations. This study's contribution is a longitudinal view of a lecturer's developing understanding of academic language and literacies. Analysis of interviews with an Early Years lecturer across three cycles of action research highlights ways in which understandings of academic language and literacies continuously evolve. Themes of academic language development are analysed through the lens of language as a social semiotic (Coffin and Donohue 2014). The analysis demonstrates the potential of interdisciplinary collaboration for professional and curriculum development.

Keywords: academic language, academic literacies, action research, feedback, curriculum, identity

Introduction

The development of language and learning are co-constitutive (Vygotsky, 1986). In higher education (HE) this development is particularly significant because language choices and literacy practices are inherently intertwined with disciplinary practices, epistemologies and genres (Hyland, 2004). However, academic language can be opaque for some students including: those with English as a first language for whom academic language and culture needs to be demystified (McKay and Devlin, 2014); 'English as an Additional Language' (EAL) home students who negotiate between '"mother tongue", "posh" and "slang"' (Preece, 2009, p.21); those from culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds (Berniz & Miller, 2017); and vocational students who must shift

between a predominantly practical, workplace-based knowledge and a more theory-based knowledge of academia (French, 2009). Erixon and Erixon Arreman (2019) highlight the need for vocational students to mediate 'between the professional and academic discourses' (p.978) and their student participants identified 'a perceived need of explicit teaching on how to write academically.' (Erixon & Erixon Arreman, 2019, p.979) This study was undertaken by an English for Academic Purposes lecturer (Author 1) and an Early Years lecturer (Author 2), who taught part-time, under-graduate students working with children under 5 years, at a post-1992 UK university in northern England. Post-1992 UK universities historically recruit students from less-advantageous socio-economic backgrounds, sometimes with lower academic qualifications (Raffe & Croxford, 2015). This university has a record of supporting social mobility.

Approaches to meeting the needs of linguistically diverse student populations vary internationally. For example, following government-led recommendations in Australia (see Moore and Harrington, 2016 for a summary), universities have taken wide-ranging approaches to university-wide language provision (eg. Hampton et al 2003). In the United States there are the Writing across the Curriculum and Writing in the Disciplines traditions and some South African universities have university-wide language and literacy development schemes (eg. Jacobs 2005). However, in the United Kingdom systematic inclusive approaches are rare and language and literacy development opportunities difficult to locate (Wingate, 2018).

In the absence of university-wide approaches to language development, Macnaught et al (2022) recommend embedding academic language and literacy work into curricula alongside staff development. There is a growing literature on collaborative endeavours between subject and language experts that support this goal (Li, 2020). Collaboration provides subject lecturers opportunities to articulate what they want from students (Purser et al, 2008) revealing their often tacit discourse knowledge

(McGrath et al, 2019). Collaboration aimed at demystifying disciplinary discourse enables students 'to bypass the slow process of "osmosis" … and … more quickly and systematically learn the skills appropriate to their discipline' (Hampton et al, 2003, p.26). For students, disciplinary contextualisation of language use is crucial, as there is no academic language without context (Wingate, 2015) and integrating effective language use into the curriculum indicates its importance (Murray, 2016). For institutions, collaboration leads to enhanced staff capacity (Thies, 2016) because disciplinary experts with "complementary knowledge" (Macnaught et al, 2022) about academic literacies can adopt explicit academic literacies teaching. Jacobs' research (2010) focusses on lecturers' experiences of such collaborations and how that process embeds language development into their curricula. However, little research investigates the ways in which subject lecturers' understandings shift over time. This article provides a rich, longitudinal account of a collaborative process.

Various course level language and subject expert collaborations have been reported in university settings, including in South Africa (eg. Clarence, 2012), Sweden (eg. Bergman, 2016) and Singapore (eg. Jaidev & Chan, 2018). However, these are often presented as isolated events with little evidence of sustained changes. Bergman's (2016) action research project using research circles in a Swedish university highlights that for permanent change the process of collaboration and reflection requires: 1) 'a desire for change' (p.528); 2) increased self-confidence in supporting students' language development; and 3) 'time' (p.528). This bottom-up approach compares interestingly with Strittmater's (in Altrichter & Posch, 2009) analysis of the institutionalisation of innovations which require: have to do conditions (eg. regulations or societal demands); want to do conditions; and am able to do conditions. Both bottom-up and top-down changes rely on people wanting to change, and increased confidence or knowledge. However, whereas top-down innovations require external demands,

bottom-up approaches require time. Time is something many academics lack especially with competing demands of research and teaching (Murray, 2016) and increasing pressures to achieve quick results and improve metrics (eg. the UK's National Student Survey).

This article offers unique insights by analysing a subject lecturer's (Author 2) conceptualisations based on a three-year collaborative action research project that results in 'curriculum-integrated academic literacy instruction' (Wingate, 2018). This case study is part of a multiple case study (as defined by Stake, 2006) analysing multiple stakeholders' understandings of academic language development to facilitate communication between stakeholders and develop a university-wide understanding of the importance of language in learning. It fills a gap in the current literature, which often assumes axiomatically that collaborations lead to long-term changes in practice. This article does not evaluate the effects of the interventions on student language use, but provides a rich longitudinal perspective of the collaborative professional development process and the lecturer's evolving understandings of the development of effective language use in HE – her own and her students'.

Conceptual frameworks

Concepts of student being and language as a social semiotic are key to the analysis of the findings. "Student being" conflates Barnett's (2007) 'pedagogical being' and 'human being' (pp.28-29) acknowledging 'interplays' (p.29) between the two. This concept is used in Sutton's (2012) research on feedback literacy, which highlights the importance of improving students' self-confidence and the challenge of 'mak[ing] academic language accessible to learners from increasingly diverse backgrounds' (p.38).

Defining language as a social semiotic allows us to conceptualise the processes of language use in the university. Coffin and Donohue (2014) using Hasan (2005,

2011), Bernstein (1996) and Vygotsky (1986), illustrate two moments of semiotic mediation: a moment of teaching and learning; and a moment of assessment (see Figure 1). These are important moments within HE processes, but do not represent its whole. During teaching, including giving feedback, lecturers communicate ideas to students (intermental semiotic mediation) with the goal of developing students' understanding (intramental semiotic mediation): the lecturer reconfigures the student's conceptual processes.

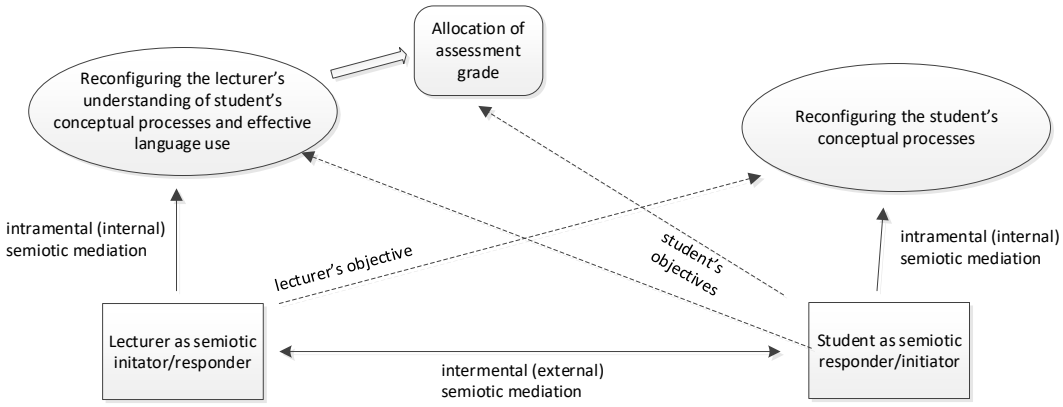

Figure 1. Semiotic mediation in a pedagogic intervention and assessment (adapted with permission from Coffin & Donohue, 2014, p.28)

Conversely, when a student produces an assignment (intermental semiotic mediation), they demonstrate their learning to the lecturer with the goal of getting a good grade by reconfiguring the lecturer's understanding (via intramental semiotic mediation) of what the student knows and how they communicate it (Nicholls, 2020).

Methods / Data collection and analysis

Data generation

The data in this article comes from four semi-structured interviews between an English for Academic Purposes (EAP) lecturer (Author 1) and an Early Years lecturer (Author 2) over three years of collaborative action research. The collaboration started through informal discussions about the efficacy of the Early Years lecturer's feedback to

students. Over three years, we investigated how best to improve students' effective language use. Our action research focus moved from feedback effectiveness, to student confidence, and student identities (see Appendix 1 for a chronological summary of interventions, data collection methods and areas identified for development). Developments in the interventions and data collection methods were driven by the Early Years lecturers' reflections after reviewing each year's data. Each iteration was supported by university funding and ethical processes including obtaining informed consent from students and both lecturers (the co-authors) prior to each cycle. Figures 2a to 2d summarise details of the action research data collection, interventions and findings, but this article's focus is on the interviews with the Early Years lecturer (highlighted in bold in Figures 2a-2d) to answer the question: in what ways does a lecturer's understanding of effective language use in HE change over time?

Each cycle began with data collection and review (see Figure 2a). In the first year that comprised an analysis of former students' assessment, and interviews with students and the subject lecturer following a feedback session on an earlier assessment. In the second and third years student confidence questionnaires were introduced, alongside student interviews and a written task (see Figure 2a).

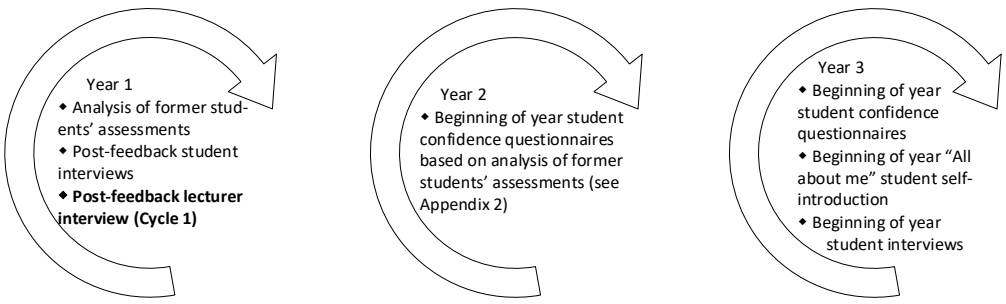

Figure 2a Pre-intervention data collection across three cycles (See Appendix 1 for more detail. Data highlighted in **bold** contributes to the analysis in this article.)

The authors co-designed the interventions. The number and content of workshops varied across the three years in response to the subject lecturer's reflections on the data collected and her experience of the cohort. Figure 2b summarises interventions across the three years.

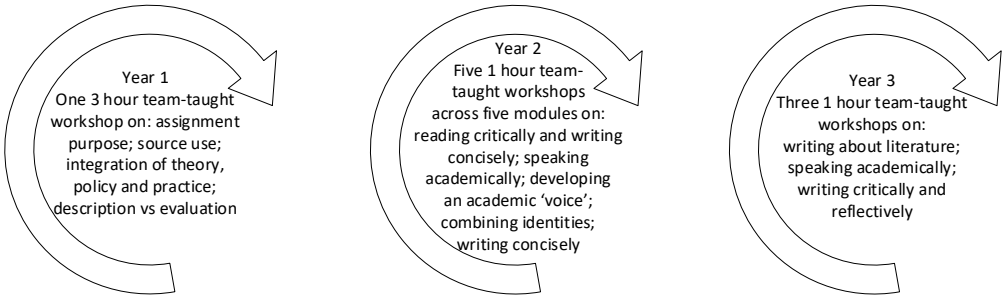

Figure 2b Interventions across three cycles (See Appendix 1 for more detail)

Post-intervention data collection (Figure 2c) provided evidence on which to reflect upon the strengths and weaknesses of the interventions.

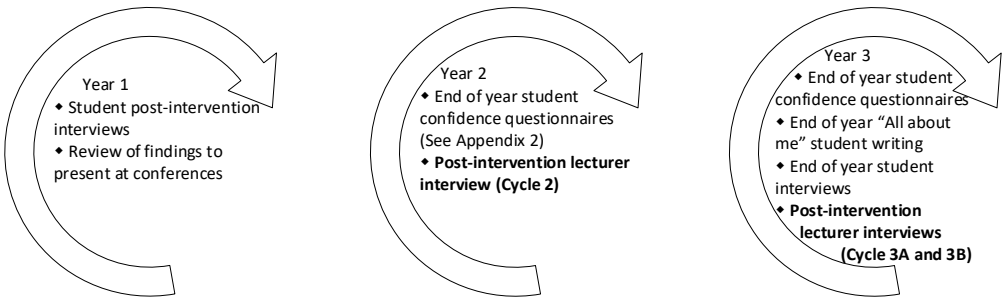

Figure 2c Post-intervention data collection across three cycles (see Appendix 1 for more detail. Data highlighted in **bold** contributes to the analysis in this article.)

Interventions and data collection methods were reviewed. Recommendations for developments were made for the following year (see Figure 2d).

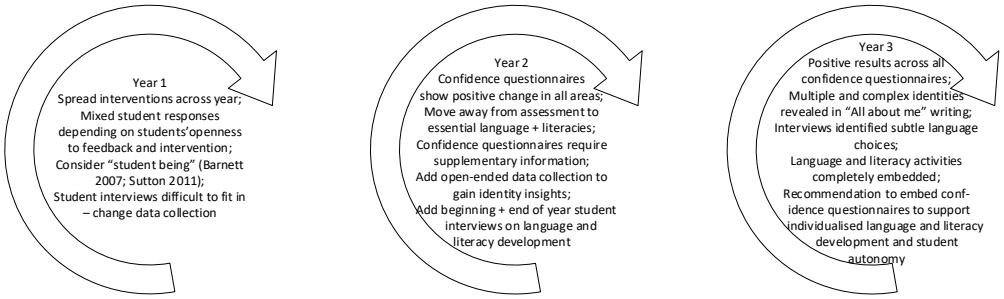

Figure 2d Developments identified for interventions and data collection methods (see Appendix 1 for more detail)

The data analysis comes from four interviews between the EAP lecturer and the subject lecturer (in bold in Figures 2a-2d). The EAP lecturer asked the subject lecturer to reflect on what had gone well and what could be improved. Each interview lasted between 30 and 60 minutes.

Data analysis

Author 1 thematically coded transcripts of the four interviews, with continual reference to the research question: in what ways does a lecturer's understanding of effective language use in HE change over time? Since this is part of a larger multiple case study, thematic codes built on previous case studies with other stakeholders (academic leaders, Nicholls, 2020; and EAP lecturers, Nicholls, 2021). During the recursive coding process several new codes were generated, as expected given the different stakeholder perspectives. Codes were grouped under themes by applying the lens of language as a social semiotic (see Figure 2), creating a thematic network (as defined by Attride-Stirling, 2001). This allows for greater understanding of the data whilst acknowledging fluidity and interconnectivity between themes. (See Appendix 3 for a table of the codes allocated to each theme and their frequency across four interviews). The co-authors planned each action research phase; Author 1 interviewed

Author 2 to evaluate each phase; transcription, coding and analysis was undertaken by Author 1; two independent colleagues reviewed the coding process; and Author 2 reviewed and confirmed the findings.

Findings and discussion

By applying the lens of language as a social semiotic, we distinguish five themes of language development in the coded data: lecturer's semiotic mediation; discourse knowledge; student's semiotic mediation; student being; and curriculum (Figure 3).

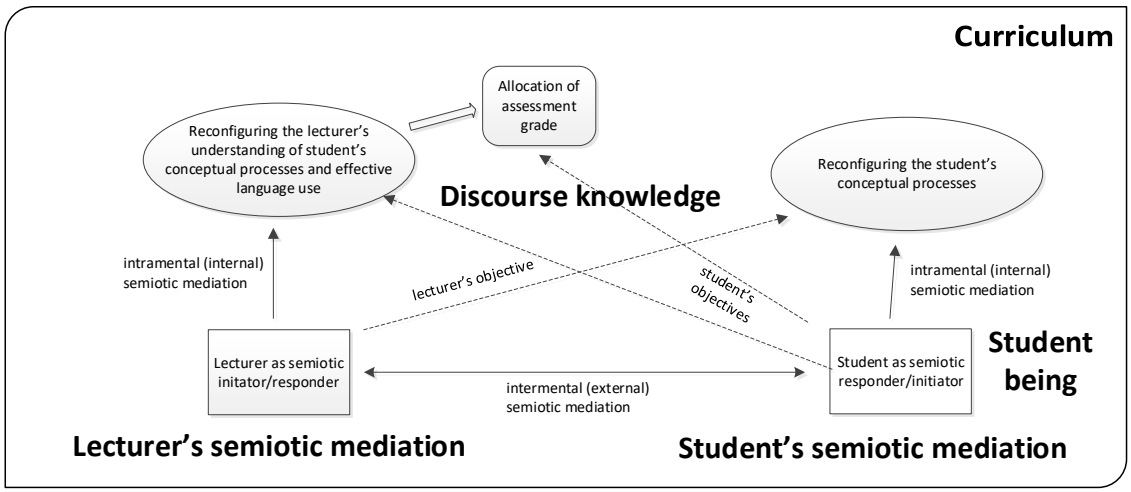

Figure 3 Lecturer themes of language development

Definitions of these themes are provided in Table 1 and their frequency of mention is in Figure 4.

Theme of language development	refers to …
Lecturer's semiotic mediation	aspects of the lecturer's communication to students
Discourse knowledge	aspects of effective language use that the lecturer expects students to demonstrate
Students' semiotic mediation	students' actual language use
Student being	factors that might influence students' learning
Curriculum	issues with and opportunities for embedding effective language development into the curriculum

Table 1. Definitions of themes

The mention of their frequency does not imply quantitative significance, but highlights changes in the lecturer's conceptualisations. Overall, there is a shift from a description of what language and literacies the lecturer expects to see (discourse knowledge) and what language students do or do not produce (students' semiotic mediation) towards a discussion of developing student identities and confidence (student being), how to embed that development into the curriculum, and how to share learning with the broader course team (lecturer's semiotic mediation).

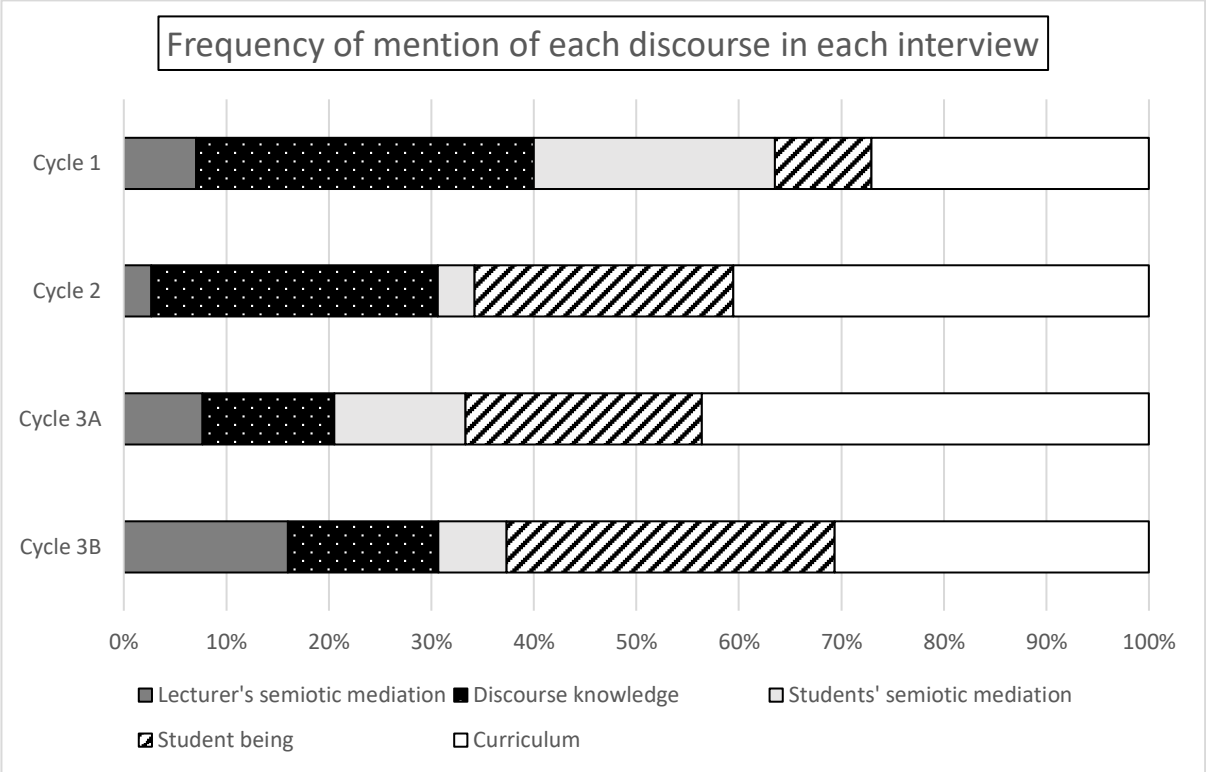

Figure 4 Percentage frequency of mention of each theme in each interview

The following paragraphs highlight the lecturer's evolving understandings of language development and how interdisciplinary collaboration specifically led to changing conceptualisations that impacted on practice. Following Bergman (2016), we also demonstrate how this process meets the three requisites for collaboration and reflection that lead to long-term change.

Lecturer's semiotic mediation

The researchers' original impetus was to investigate the effectiveness of the subject lecturer's feedback to students: one example of her semiotic mediation. Data in this theme shifted from the lecturer lacking confidence and questioning the effectiveness of her communication, 'Have I been clear in how I've explained what I've wanted to students?' (Cycle 1) to improved confidence: 'I've become more confident in terms of what feedback I need to give students' (Cycle 3B). This confidence emanated from an explicit understanding of the academic language demands on students at each stage of study, 'I'm becoming clearer really about, out all of the things that people need to be able to do, what are for this module the most important things … like ... how to cite.' (Cycle 3B). This clarity led to developments such as including explicit explanations of metalanguage, for example in module handbooks, 'this is what I mean by a critical issue' (Cycle 3B). This theme also included a reflective aspect, 'I feel like it's almost been a peer review process, hasn't it? … It came from us rather than from the top … and the fact that it's gone on … morphed and changed … that's really important'. (Cycle 3B) Additionally, the lecturer's focus shifted beyond her own practices towards the whole lecturing team: 'I suppose the other things that I might want to do, like, share more with the group of research supervisors what we've been doing and what they could do to support students and build on that.' (Cycle 3A)

Questioning the efficacy of her own feedback triggered an important personal investment, 'a desire for change' (Bergman, 2016, p.528). The lecturer's increased confidence in her own semiotic mediation, matched by a clearer understanding of academic language demands on her students at each stage of study, explicitly meets Bergman's (2016) second requisite for long-term change: increased confidence in supporting students' language development.

Discourse knowledge

Discourse knowledge refers to multiple aspects of effective language use that the subject lecturer expects in students' assessments. The lecturer's description of discourse knowledge formed a substantial part of the first two interviews and demonstrates complex expectations: 'What they need to be able to do… is to be able to reflect on the processes that they've gone through, and talk about the impact of their learning ... so what they have learned … and … how are they going to apply that learning… But … all that needs to be set in the context of having read quite a lot of literature.' (Cycle 1) Source use was a fundamental aspect of discourse knowledge enabling students to become 'more critical and less descriptive' (Cycle 1), as they 'work out where they stand in terms of the information they're reading' (Cycle 2). This echoes Erixon and Erixon Arreman's (2019) 'idealized notions of a successful student' who can position themselves within an academic culture (p.972).

When reviewing the interventions, the lecturer sometimes described discourse knowledge using linguistic concepts, such as semantic waves (see Maton, 2020), audience of communication and joining a discourse community (Cycle 2) including concepts and metalanguage which were new to the lecturer. For example, when talking about source use and the concept of author and information prominent citations, the lecturer noted, 'I don't think it's the sort of thing I probably, prior that session, would have even, like, thought about' (Cycle 2).

The lecturer identified a particular challenge of discourse knowledge in assignment variation – student genres included essay, reflective account, research design, presentation, viva, and report - meaning that students had to re-interpret feedback from one assignment to apply it to the genre of the next assignment (Cycle 3). Hampton et al (2003) similarly found that students navigating multiple assessment genres and modes may find it harder to act on feedback and improve their grades.

This is one of three themes mentioned across all three cycles, suggesting that some aspects of discourse knowledge are worth regularly revisiting with students, namely: source use, application of learning and assignment variation (Cycle 1, Cycle 2, Cycle 3A, Cycle 3B). Source use and the application of learning to a real-life context are manifestations of the '"professional habitus" built on both professional and academic discourse' (Erixon & Erixon Arreman, 2019) and are fundamental to vocational courses.

The time dedicated to the lecturer's articulation of her discoursal expectations created the shared understanding on which to develop interventions and made her tacit knowledge explicit: a key benefit of subject and language expert collaboration (Li, 2020). Expressing tacit knowledge and developing a shared metalanguage between collaborators and ultimately students is crucial to the demystification of academic practices (McKay & Devlin, 2014).

Students' semiotic mediation

Whereas discourse knowledge refers to the lecturer's generalised expectations, students' semiotic mediation includes data about what students did or did not do. Identifying ineffective elements of students' language use was an essential part of the action research. The lecturer highlighted common areas for improvement - clarity, what it means to be critical, flow, explicit linking of reading, theory and practice, structure, and succinctness (Cycle 1) – all required in extremely complex assignments. The lecturer also identified specific impacts of the interventions on students' semiotic mediation. For example, in Cycle 3A the lecturer reported notable improvements in students' performance in a viva assessment following a specific session on developing their spoken academic voice, 'students did that really well' (Cycle 3A). She remembered students acknowledging that following the intervention they understood what was expected of them, '"I really understand it now, I know what I've got to do…

how I can use the sources in …[a] viva situation"' (Cycle 3A). Although the lecturer identified examples of improvements in students' semiotic mediation, she acknowledged the difficulty in identifying direct causal links between the interventions and students' overall effective language use: 'it's quite hard to unpick it, isn't it?' (Cycle 3B). The lecturer noted that whilst some students found it difficult to articulate changes in their own language use, others explicitly described their language choices: 'she was talking about … having, being really broad south Yorkshire - and that you would be really careful in your writing not to translate the way you speak … that you have to think and write slightly differently' (Cycle 3B). Beyond the academic context, students described using their language effectively in their workplaces, for example, to gain promotion: 'some clearly had … impressed and changed people's perspectives of them at work – you know – through their use of technical language maybe or early years specific or education specific [language]', even to 'garner position, power!' (Cycle 3B).

Across the three cycles there was a shift in this theme, from identifying specific areas for development, through to evaluating interventions' impact on students' semiotic mediation, and finally observing students negotiating their language choices. These choices included avoiding the local vernacular in academic contexts, as Preece (2009) found, and manipulating academic and vocational discourses to demonstrate their 'professional habitus' as opposed to a 'vocational habitus' (Erixon & Erixon Arreman, 2019) in their workplaces.

Student being

This theme became increasingly important across the three cycles. It is shaped by the context of 'non-traditional' student backgrounds: '[they] maybe never thought that they would go to university … so they can be paralysed … and yet they're brilliant practitioners' (Cycle 1). Even after receiving good marks, some students 'remain less confident' (Cycle 2) and the lecturer queried whether this might be due to 'the class

thing', gender, age, or work status as a nursery worker or an assistant in a school (Cycle 2).

Affective factors were mentioned across the three cycles. The lecturer noted how some students felt 'very uncertain and uncomfortable' (Cycle 1) when given choices about their assignments and how facing new assessment types and starting new modules also 'threw up quite a lot of anxiety' (Cycle 2).

The lecturer noted that confidence was crucial to the development of students' effective language use:

> starting that whole sort of process about trying to work out where they stand in terms of the information they're reading, how they're going to apply that to their work… so they can … be more critical and less descriptive. And I suppose through all of this, is this sort of whole issue of confidence… some of our really very good, experienced people are absolutely crippled by a lack of self-confidence. (Cycle 2)

At the end of cycle 3 the lecturer observed, 'overwhelmingly, I felt the confidence had increased' (Cycle 3B). In one example students discussed leading additional adult learning sessions within their work settings, following their increased confidence in public speaking (Cycle 3A). In another the lecturer remembered 'somebody talked about feeling empowered' (Cycle 3B). Moreover, the lecturer highlighted how some students 'are keen to come back [to university]' to gain Qualified Teacher Status, become teachers, study for a masters or move into a new career path.

A further theme was the variability of learner readiness to deal with certain concepts of effective language use. For example, the session introducing semantic waves to highlight moves between theory and practice 'was really good for people that need stretching' (Cycle 2). In the final interview, however, the lecturer's attention returned to those 'who struggle to get 40%' (Cycle 3B) and how to support those (see next section: Curriculum). Student engagement, meaning students' demonstration of interest during interventions, was also variable, 'there will always be some students that

engage more … so we definitely had students who I feel benefitted more… because they had the inclination to be more engaged and involved and then apply that to their assessed tasks.' (Cycle 3A)

Over the three years, identity emerged as a specific focus within the interventions and the lecturer observed that students themselves referred to having multiple identities. Some were aware that they 'might have to flex that identity' with different audiences (Cycle 3B). As in Erixon and Erixon Arreman's (2019) study, those who expressed a strong academic identity contemporaneously talked about language choices (see previous section). Others felt passionate about having an academic identity, describing themselves as 'being obsessed with learning' (Cycle 3B).

Whilst the subject lecturer was already alert to aspects of student being, the collaborative process highlighted their significance for academic language and literacies development enabling them to be brought together cohesively in terms of curriculum development.

Curriculum

The final theme – signifying issues with and opportunities for embedding effective language development into the curriculum – demonstrates another shift across the three cycles. In the first cycle, the lecturer discussed specific practices and students' reactions: using models (Cycle 1); explaining assessment criteria (Cycle 1); and opportunities for dialogue with peers or the tutor (Cycle 1). She also described how mixed feedback from students highlighted varied student experiences, 'one of my feedback groups … said to me that they were still unsure what was required' (Cycle 1), which linked back to the lecturer's own semiotic mediation (see earlier section).

In the second cycle, reflections on specific practices shifted towards a more holistic view of the curriculum, including demystifying academic practices and scaffolding teaching. Demystification began with sample text analysis, 'you had

captured some previous students' … extracts where people were doing that [relating practice to theory] and weren't doing that and so that was then, for some people, immediately clear about what they… had to do.' (Cycle 2). Beyond the use of models, the lecturer described a broader view of academic language and literacy development, 'I think we've gone back to thinking about the sort of fundamentals – in terms of academic literacy – rather than be so focussed on student assessments' (Cycle 2) and the challenges involved in teaching effective language use, 'it's like where do you start?' (Cycle 2). The lecturer highlighted the advantages of integrated language provision within the curriculum:

> [the sessions] made links between expectations that we have for the students from an academic sort of perspective – and the module content. So in that way … there was a sort of dual hit really, that the students are all really busy and only come in one day a week, were getting support and help with what we we're expecting of them and what they would be assessed on. (Cycle 2)

Evidently, time in learning was an important issue in this theme – indeed, it was mentioned across all three cycles. The lecturer reflected on: students' experiences as employees with time-limited opportunities to access campus; their cycles of energy across a semester; students' comments that input on literature review writing was too late; the challenges of mature students managing work, study and other life events; and changes in assessment timings to stagger deadlines. (Cycle 2) The 'dual hit' (Cycle 2) of embedded language development and content echoes Hampton et al's (2003) suggestion that an integrated curriculum can help students 'bypass the slow process of "osmosis"' (p.26) of academic language acquisition.

Data from the third cycle repeated a holistic view of the curriculum with recurring themes such as time, and curriculum design. A new theme also developed – differentiation: 'We haven't really … looked at differentiation, have we? … maybe the differentiation has happened across the year rather than within modules … and sessions

… maybe we need to think a little bit more about that.' (Cycle 3B) The lecturer went further, identifying her plans to support differentiation by embedding the confidence questionnaires into the curriculum as a self-reflection tool early in year:

> I'm hoping this year with doing the academic literacies confidence questionnaire and getting students to set their own goals for their development, that … by the time we do the first essay module … we'll know this is what the students think at this moment, so we'll have some data about … the students … where the students see their needs. (Cycle 3B)

Overall, the theme shifted from pedagogic decisions and practical considerations to broader discussions of curriculum design and flexibility, scaffolding learning and metalanguage. The lecturer's talk shifted away from student needs in relation to assessments towards the demystification of the fundamentals of academic literacies (as described by McKay & Devlin, 2014); and how best to scaffold learning. Significantly, some of our action research activities were embedded in the course: confidence questionnaires became a self-audit tool to promote discussion and reflection (Cycle 3B); and academic language integrated into the curriculum (Cycle 3B). Undoubtedly, the iterative nature of the collaboration and Bergman's (2016) third requisite for long-term change, time, facilitated these changes.

Conclusion

This study highlights that both students' and lecturers' understandings of academic language and literacies are developmental, not static. Whilst any case study is bounded by its contexts and conclusions cannot be generalisable, there are findings from the rich detail and analysis of this case which may resonate in contexts where the osmosis of academic language cannot be assumed, and where top-down, university-wide strategies are not in place.

As a lecturer development process, interdisciplinary collaboration can be both rewarding and transformative when instigated through the lecturer's desire for change.

Given time, the process allows for iterative development. This meets two of Bergman's (2016) three requisites for collaboration that leads to long term change. The process outlined in this study evidences that interdisciplinary collaboration with a language expert can lead to increased subject lecturer confidence (Bergman's third requisite). In this study, the lecturer's confidence in her own semiotic mediation increased, with a deeper understanding of student needs across different stages of study, which led to 'curriculum-integrated academic literacy instruction' (Wingate, 2018).

Eliciting discourse knowledge expectations from the lecturer is a crucial first stage to embed academic language and literacies into the curriculum. The process of describing assessment demands illuminates the complexity and specificity required of student work. On vocational courses, as exemplified here, students must explicitly apply their learning to meet disciplinary discourse expectations. They also need to be shown what that looks like. In this study, discourse knowledge was complicated due to assignment variation. Students had to reinterpret feedback and apply it to different assessment genres. However, as a lecturer develops their understanding of the academic language and literacy needs of students across the curriculum, they can take a holistic view and develop a course level approach to the introduction of linguistic concepts and a metalanguage that can be built into the curriculum and that students can apply across genres. Interdisciplinary collaboration can provide both the metalanguage and pedagogic approaches to scaffold students' learning.

In terms of students' semiotic mediation, explicit language teaching introduces the concept of language choices instead of a deficit discourse. Student being, including affective factors and identity, cannot be separated from the learning process intertwined with developing an academic identity. By combining the development of language use and students' academic identities, students are supported in shaping their own 'mediating role between the professional and academic discourses' (Erixon & Erixon

Arreman, 2019, p.978). Conversations about this can commence through tools such as a confidence questionnaire.

Significantly, through interdisciplinary collaboration, curriculum developments can provide a 'dual hit' of academic language and literacies alongside content delivery, saving time for students and indicating to them that developing effective language use is integral to their learning. Research or data collection tools can be repurposed as part of the curriculum to generate self-reflection.

In this study, interdisciplinary collaboration was supported institutionally via small learning and teaching grants. This shaped the project as action research. However, multiple forms of interdisciplinary collaboration could connect subject and language experts. Whilst the direction and content of collaborative conversations will vary according to the context and individuals, the lens of language as a social semiotic provides a useful developmental and research tool to focus in on different aspects of effective language use in the HE context and the professional development of subject lecturers. Further studies could investigate the use of this lens in other contexts. As mentioned previously, a further step is to analyse different stakeholders' understandings of language development to facilitate conversations about institutional-level approaches to language and literacy instruction.

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Appendix 1 Summary of action research cycle phases

	Data collection	Intervention	Data collection	Developments identified
Cycle 1	Analysis of former students' assessments Post-feedback student interviews **Post-feedback lecturer interview (Cycle 1)**	1 x 3 hour workshop team-taught by EAP subject lecturers Content: Identifying the purpose of an assignment Source use Integration of theory and policy with practice Identifying description and evaluation in reflective writing	Student post-intervention interviews Review of findings	Better to spread interventions across the year Mixed student responses depending on students' openness to feedback/ intervention Need to consider "student being" (Barnett 2007; Sutton 2012) Student interviews difficult to incorporate – change data collection
Cycle 2	Beginning of year student confidence questionnaires based on analysis former students' assessments (see Appendix 2)	5 x 1 hour workshops across 5 modules, team taught by EAP and subject lecturer 1 Reading critically and writing concisely 2 Speaking academically – citing experts 3 Developing an academic 'voice' – using sources to support your writing 4 Combining your professional and academic identities – using semantic waves to move between reflection and academic theory 5 Writing concisely, editing and proofreading	End of year student confidence questionnaires **Post-intervention lecturer interview (Cycle 2)**	Confidence questionnaires indicated improvements in all areas Change from focus on assessment - link interventions to essential academic language and literacy aspects Confidence questionnaires require supplementary information Add open-ended written data collection method to explore personal and professional identities Add beginning and end of year interviews with students for their perspective of language and literacy development
Cycle 3	Beginning of year student confidence questionnaires Beginning of year "All about me" student written self-introduction Beginning of year student interviews	3 x 1 hour interventions, team-taught by EAP / subject lecturer: 1 Writing about literature 2 Speaking academically 3 Writing critically and reflectively	End of year student confidence questionnaires End of year "All about me" student writing End of year student interviews **Post-intervention lecturer interviews (Cycle 3A and 3B)**	Positive results in confidence questionnaires Multiple and complex identifies revealed in "All about me" writing Interviews identified subtle language choices by students Language and literacy activities completely integrated into curriculum Recommendations for the future: Embed confidence questionnaires into assessments to support individualised language and literacy development and student autonomy

Appendix 2 Confidence questionnaire

Please tick the box which represents how confident you feel about different academic language and academic literacy skills.

How confident do you feel that you can ...	**very confident**	**slightly confident**	**slightly unconfident**	**very unconfident**		**don't know**	
1. find texts for your assignments	☐	☐	☐	☐		☐	
2. select the most appropriate texts for your assignments	☐	☐	☐	☐		☐	
3. use different reading strategies effectively in your studies	☐	☐	☐	☐		☐	
4. take effective notes that will help you with your assignments	☐	☐	☐	☐		☐	
5. explain your ideas clearly in speaking	☐	☐	☐	☐		☐	
6. justify reasons for your choices in speaking	☐	☐	☐	☐		☐	
7. use texts to develop your argument	☐	☐	☐	☐		☐	
8. use references appropriately	☐	☐	☐	☐		☐	
9. make your own position clear	☐	☐	☐	☐		☐	
10. use texts to support your own position	☐	☐	☐	☐		☐	
11. adapt your writing to different purposes	☐	☐	☐	☐		☐	
12. adapt your writing to different audiences	☐	☐	☐	☐		☐	
13. demonstrate an academic identity in your writing	☐	☐	☐	☐		☐	
14. demonstrate a reflective practitioner identity in your writing	☐	☐	☐	☐		☐	
15. edit and proofread your work to improve clarity and accuracy	☐	☐	☐	☐		☐	
16. Is there anything else that you want to tell us?							

Appendix 3 Codes grouped under themes and number of mentions per interview

Themes and codes	Cycle 1	Cycle 2	Cycle 3A	Cycle 3B
Lecturer's semiotic mediation				
academics not confident about academic language and literacies	2	0	0	0
feedback from lecturers	4	2	1	5
feedback	0	1	0	0
subject lecturer development	0	0	2	7
Total number of mentions of this theme per cycle	6	3	3	12
Discourse knowledge				
application of learning	2	6	2	1
assignment variation	1	3	1	1
audience of communication	0	2	0	2
content of communication	8	0	0	0
joining a knowledge community	0	1	0	0
metalanguage	0	1	0	1
not just description	2	2	0	0
process	2	3	0	0
purpose of communication	1	0	0	1
reading	3	3	0	3
reflection	2	1	1	0
semantic waves	0	3	0	1
source use	7	6	1	1
Total number of mentions of this theme per cycle	28	31	5	11
Students' semiotic mediation				
clarity	1	0	0	0
complexity of communication	3	1	0	0
demonstrating criticality - check node content	5	2	0	0
flow	2	0	0	0
impact	0	0	4	2

language choices	0	0	0	3
make clear links	3	1	0	0
structure	4	0	0	0
succinctness	1	0	1	0
unsuccessful mode of communication	1	0	0	0
Total number of mentions of this theme per cycle	20	4	5	5
Student being				
affective factors	4	12	1	4
confidence	1	5	3	3
empowering others	0	1	0	1
focussed on the mark	1	0	0	0
identity	0	4	0	10
learner readiness	2	1	0	2
student autonomy	0	0	1	3
student engagement	0	5	4	1
Total number of mentions of this theme per cycle	8	28	9	24
Curriculum				
affording spaces	0	0	1	0
central people who can help	0	2	3	1
curricular flexibility	0	0	0	1
curriculum design	0	2	3	6
demystification	0	9	0	2
different pedagogy	0	2	0	1
differentiation	0	0	0	5
feedback from students	3	3	2	0
integrated language provision	0	5	4	2
mode(s) of communication	1	0	0	0
no opportunity for dialogue	0	1	0	0
opportunity for dialogue	6	0	0	1
scaffolding	0	5	0	2

time in learning	2	10	3	2
use of assessment criteria	6	0	0	0
using models	5	6	1	0
Total number of mentions of this theme per cycle	23	45	17	23

Chapter 8 Cross-case analysis

8.1 Introduction

In this chapter, I analyse the data across the three case studies in order to answer the overall research question: How do stakeholders account for the development of effective language use in higher education contexts? Each case study was bounded by a key stakeholder group: academic leaders, EAP lecturers and subject lecturers. The overall purpose of the research and this cross-case analysis is to identify aspects in common across the data from the three groups so that a framework for discussing language development can be built on shared discourses. Differences between the data from each group are also analysed to illuminate the perspectives and priorities that each group has. Following descriptions of each shared discourse, I include implications for practice and these are collated in the following chapter.

As detailed in Chapter 4, I used different data collection methods in the three single case studies to obtain different stakeholders' accounts of the development of effective language use: interviews with academic leaders; a variation of nominal focus groups with EAP lecturers; and collaborative action research interviews with a subject lecturer. Different data collection methods were used because of my multiple roles and the different power relations they resulted in. In order to get the fullest possible responses from the different stakeholder groups, I used different questions to investigate their understandings of the development of effective language use. The main questions from each single case study are listed in Table 8.1 along with the rationale for each question. Follow-up questions were used in all cases in order to probe for more detail or for clarification. I list the questions again in this chapter, in order to be explicit about the possible effects of the questions on the findings.

Stakeholder roles	**Main questions**	**Rationale**
Academic leader	1 Could you describe a piece of communication that you've produced that you feel a sense of achievement from? 2 If a course leader or colleague told you that there were concerns about a student's communication skills or language use, what	1 To understand how academic leaders account for their own effective language use 2&3 To understand how academic leaders account for the

	policies or mechanisms are there in place to support that team or individual? 3 Is there anything different that you would like to happen?	development of students' effective language use
EAP lecturer	1 Please describe a teaching activity that you have used [in x context] which you believe has led to the development of effective language use in university. 2 Which of these considerations [codes provided based on analysis of previous question completed in advance] would you consider most important in enabling language development?	1 To understand what EAP lecturers say about what is effective about their own teaching 2 To understand how EAP lecturers account for the development of students' effective language use
Subject lecturer	Cycle 1 Pre-intervention (after feedback tutorials) 1 Were there any recurring themes in the feedback that you gave to students? 2 Were there any issues in students receiving the feedback? 3 What do you want the aims of the session to be? Cycle 2 Post-intervention 4 What went well? 5 What would make it better? 6 What should happen next? Cycle 3 Post-intervention Interview A 7 From your perspective, how has this year gone? 8 What would make it better? 9 Are there any ways that you can see that language in any of the assessments has actually changed? Interview B 10 What did you get from looking at those interviews … like impact on the students? 11 Was there anything that jumped out like a surprise for you? 12 Is there anything that you experienced about this group and the interventions this year that isn't in the data? 13 How has the process influenced your understanding of academic literacies and language development?	1 To understand what feedback themes the subject leader thought were important 2 To understand where feedback was ineffective 3 To understand what aspects of language use the subject lecturer wanted taught 4&5&6 To understand how the subject lecturer accounts for the development of effective language use and whether the subject lecturers' views had changed over time 7&8 To understand how the subject lecturer accounts for the development of effective language use 9 To understand whether the subject lecturer perceives any language changes 10&11 To understand the subject lecturer's interpretation of student experience 12 To identify where students and subject lecturer may have had different experiences of the interventions 13 To understand the subject lecturer's own insights into academic literacies and language development

Table 8.1 Main questions directed to different stakeholders according to role

The method for analysing stakeholders' discourses was thematic network analysis (Attride-Stirling, 2001) of data with constant comparison of data (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) across the three cases in an iterative, inductive coding process. Table 8.2 shows

the list of codes across all three cases with shared codes highlighted in yellow. Whilst the goal of this research is not to quantify the frequency of mention of codes, the blue highlighting is added to enable easy comparison across cases. Nineteen of the 120 codes were applied to data in all three cases. I grouped those shared codes into four themes - language, learning, learners, and empowering others (see Figure 8.2) - which are described and analysed below.

	Academic Leaders	EAP Lecturers	Subject Lecturer
1 : a discipline thing	15	5	0
2 : abstraction in language	0	3	0
3 : academics not confident about ALL	5	0	3
4 : affective factors	20	26	28
5 : anxiety	2	0	6
6 : confidence	8	6	17
7 : discomfort	2	0	1
8 : dynamics	0	0	1
9 : enjoyment	1	5	0
10 : excitement	0	2	0
11 : fear	1	0	1
12 : interest	1	1	1
13 : relaxed	1	0	0
14 : reluctance	0	0	1
15 : self-worth	2	0	1
16 : student motivation	2	15	0
17 : surprise	1	0	0
18 : tedium	0	1	0
19 : vulnerability	1	0	0
20 : affording spaces	1	0	1
21 : application of learning	0	0	11
22 : assignment variation	4	0	6
23 : assumptions	8	0	0
24 : audience of communication	57	10	4
25 : awareness raising	0	17	0
26 : central people who can help	8	0	6
27 : clarity	0	0	1
28 : cold communication	5	0	0
29 : collaboration	20	0	0
30 : complexity of communication	13	1	4
31 : consequences of communication	8	0	0
32 : content of communication	9	3	8
33 : currently available support	10	0	0
34 : curricular flexibility	1	0	1
35 : curriculum design	11	12	12
36 : demonstrating criticality	0	14	7
37 : demystification	0	0	11
38 : different pedagogy	0	0	3

39 : differentiation	0	0	5
40 : difficulty	7	8	0
41 : discipline and course specificity	11	13	0
42 : EAP provision	7	0	0
43 : empowering others	16	7	2
44 : experience-based	0	6	0
45 : feedback on communication	14	3	12
46 : feedback on teaching and learning	0	8	9
47 : flow	0	7	2
48 : focussed on the mark	0	0	1
49 : group size	0	12	0
50 : identity	0	0	14
51 : impact	0	0	6
52 : institutional responsibilities	1	0	0
53 : integrated language provision	7	10	11
54 : joining a knowledge community	0	2	1
55 : L1 L2 differences	5	4	0
56 : L1 L2 similarities	3	2	0
57 : language and literacy needs gap	6	2	0
58 : language choices	19	43	3
59 : language related issues	2	0	0
60 : learner differences	0	7	0
61 : learner readiness	0	24	5
62 : local people who can help	29	0	0
63 : make clear links	0	0	4
64 : make it happen	17	0	0
65 : metalanguage	0	20	2
66 : mode(s) of communication	43	5	2
67 : unsuccessful mode of communication	8	1	1
68 : not just description	0	0	4
69 : noticing	0	23	0
70 : opportunity for dialogue	30	23	8
71 : no opportunity for dialogue	14	0	1
72 : personal experience	18	0	0
73 : persuasion	5	0	0
74 : policy	1	0	0
75 : practice	5	19	0
76 : process	0	0	5
77 : purpose of communication	16	2	2
78 : questionning lecturers' expectations	0	11	0
79 : reading	12	12	9
80 : reflection	16	9	4
81 : relationships	2	0	0
82 : relevance	2	10	0
83 : research-based	0	12	0
84 : resources	10	0	0
85 : responsibility - learning, teaching and assessment	20	0	0
86 : responsibility - quality assurance	7	0	0

87 : responsibility - student experience	5	0	0
88 : rhetorical view of language	5	13	0
89 : scaffolding	0	31	7
90 : scaling up	2	0	0
91 : semantic waves	0	13	4
92 : sense of achievement	2	1	0
93 : source use	0	15	15
94 : space of communication	9	4	0
95 : specialist support	1	0	0
96 : staff engagement	4	0	0
97 : statement of purpose	1	0	0
98 : strategies	0	22	0
99 : structure	1	4	4
100 : student autonomy	0	0	4
101 : student behaviours	0	1	0
102 : student comm vs leader comm	1	0	0
103 : student engagement	2	10	10
104 : subject lecturer development	0	0	9
105 : succinctness	0	0	2
106 : systemic functional linguistics	0	3	0
107 : technical view of language	1	0	0
108 : threshold	1	1	0
109 : time in communication	10	2	0
110 : time in learning	3	22	17
111 : tone of communication	15	0	0
112 : troubling teaching issues	0	16	0
113 : university processes	28	0	0
114 : university-faculty relationship	1	0	0
115 : use of assessment criteria	0	0	6
116 : use of IT	3	10	1
117 : using models	6	13	12
118 : visual learning	4	11	0
119 : who's in the room	0	7	0
120 : work produced	0	4	0
Total	631	598	308

Table 8.2 Frequency of all coded utterances across three cases (codes and numbers which are formatted to the right are subordinate to the code above, and numbers are not double counted)

8.2 Similarities between the stakeholder groups: shared codes

In order to better understand the shared codes, I extracted the raw transcript data from those codes using NVivo. I reread the data from the three case studies and summarised how the data in each code answer the research question, “How do stakeholders account for the development of effective language use in higher education?”. My notes based on rereading the shared code data are below in figure 8.1 which is an extract from an analytic memo.

Thoughts about shared codes

The twenty-one (nineteen if I merge modes of communication + unsuccessful and confidence + affective factors) shared codes are:

Shared nodes across three case studies	thoughts 10th August 2021
affective factors	important to understand aspects of "student being" and their effect on language development, links with confidence
audience of communication	rhetorical view of language understood as useful to explain variation in language choices
complexity of communication	appreciation for the multiple aspects that make up effective language use
confidence	viewed as important to develop in students in order to try out different language choices
content of communication	importance of getting the content right (linked to audience)
curriculum design	potential of language development to be included in curriculum, links with integrated language provision below
empowering others	shared motivation between stakeholders
feedback	importance, combined with reflection and dialogue, of a dialogic approach
integrated language provision	best way to develop language is for it to be embedded
language choices	knowing that there are multiple voices available to them increases students' possibilities – a form of empowerment
modes of communication	importance of using appropriate modes of communication (see unsuccessful mode below)
opportunity for dialogue	important in the process of learning
purpose of communication	rhetorical view
reading	importance of academic language being based on evidence and the crucial element of reading as part of knowledge building and lang devmt
reflection	key element of learning
structure	important aspect of successful communication in students' work [added 13th Nov 2022]
student engagement	appreciation of the importance of student engagement which can be variable
time in learning	significance of time as a key part in the learning process (links to feedback and dialogue) – always a resource issue
unsuccessful mode of communication	includes different aspects (e.g. monologic, wanting to express something but not appreciating audience's needs/ expectations)
use of IT	multiple uses as a source of info and a tool for learning and teaching
using models	commonly agreed way of approaching language development

Figure 8.1 Notes summarising data from shared codes (extract from analytic memo, see Appendix 9)

I noticed that *confidence* was a sub-category of *affective factors*, and that *unsuccessful mode of communication* was a sub-category of *mode of communication,* hence I merged those codes and kept the superordinate codes in the final shared code list (see Table 8.2 and Figure 8.2).

I reread the notes in Figure 8.1, which summarise the essence of each shared code in relation to the research question. This enabled me to categorise the shared codes into themes. I arranged the 19 shared codes around three broad themes (language, learning, learners) that answer the question of how stakeholders account for the development of effective language use in higher education contexts, with an overarching theme that unites the stakeholder groups as a motivating factor: empowering others (see Figure 8.2).

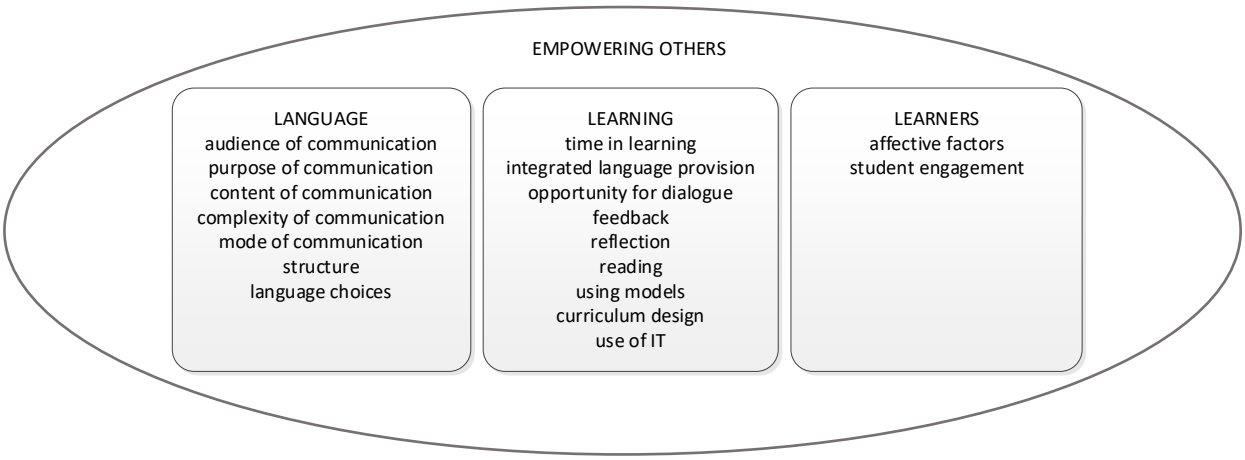

Figure 8.2 Shared codes across three stakeholder groups

Below I explain each theme with reference to the data. References refer to the participants (AL1 - AL4 = academic leaders; EAPL1 – EAPL10 = English for Academic Purposes lecturers; SL1 – SL3B = subject lecturer interviews) with numbers referring to individual academic leaders and EAP lecturers, e.g. EAPL3, and in the case study of the subject lecturer, to the interviews in the three cycles (SL1, SL2, SL3A and SL3B). Whilst I present the 19 codes as 'shared codes', it is important to acknowledge that the coded data may come from one utterance from individual participants in each stakeholder group. Nonetheless, given the total of over 1,500 coded extracts, patterns are worthy of analysis even if they cannot be the basis for generalisations.

The overarching theme, empowering others (see Figure 8.2), includes empowering students to extend their range of language choices (EAPL6), empowering lecturers to embed pedagogic strategies into their teaching (AL1) and empowering quality assurance processes that support sustainable approaches to language development across and within courses (AL1). Having an overarching theme to a framework designed to prompt discussion may be useful, because as AL2 highlights introducing change starts with "trying to get people on board" (AL2).

The next three themes – language, learning and learners – represent the remaining 18 shared codes which are summarised in Figure 8.1. The three themes relate to key elements in the learning process. In Figure 8.3, I highlight these themes in relation to the framework of language as a social semiotic (adapted from Coffin & Donohue, 2014) introduced in Chapter 2. The highlighted themes are overlaid onto the visual representation of language as a social semiotic. Each theme is explored in detail below.

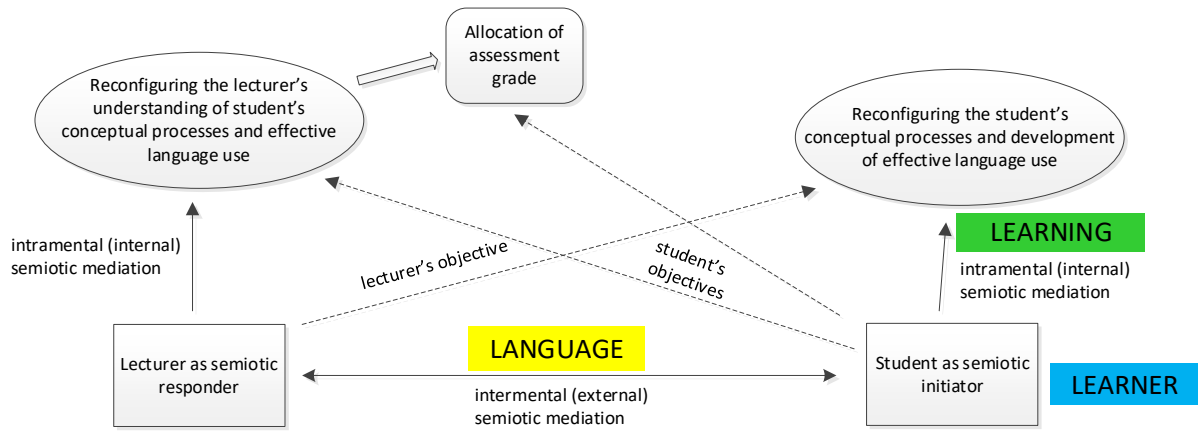

Figure 8.3 Language as a social semiotic with the focus on language, learning and learners

8.2.1 Language

In terms of language, seven codes were shared across all three stakeholder groups: audience, purpose, content, complexity and mode of communication, structure, and language choices.

Audience of communication

Understanding the audience of communication was identified as key to successful communication amongst academic leaders, and misjudging that audience led to failure to achieve their goals of the communication (AL1, AL3, AL4). Explaining the importance of considering the audience to students was also discussed in terms of "technical issues" in writing: "you've got to really sort of concentrate on this, because it actually interrupts the reader's understanding of what you're trying to do, and his [sic] perception of the quality of what you're writing about" (AL2). This quotation explaining the importance of "technical issues" echoes the Office for Students' (2022) concerns about "technical proficiency" (p.49) which must be formally assessed. An alternative perspective of audience was mentioned by EAP lecturers who identified the difficulties faced by undergraduate students reading research articles when they are perhaps not the intended audience (EAPL1, EAPL3). Meanwhile EAPL3 described how he used student role play to highlight how language changes when we speak to different audiences. The subject lecturer noted that working students negotiated multiple roles with multiple audiences and those who could comfortably segue between different audiences were able to "garner position, power" (SL3B). The latter comment highlights the point made by Erixon and Erixon-Arreman (2018) about students learning to navigate between vocational and professional habitus.

Purpose of communication

Purpose of communication was important according to the academic leaders' talk. Their own purpose for communicating was always explicit when discussing their own communication, for example, to identify a problem as a way of establishing the need for change (AL2), then outlining the steps needed to embed the solution (AL2). They also described clear purposes when talking about students' communication, for example, "to demonstrate clinical reasoning" (AL4). Some EAP lecturers found it useful to be able to explain the concept of "purpose" of communication as part of the rhetorical triangle (audience, author, and purpose), for example, "Your purpose is to draw someone in [to a poster] and make them want to read it" (EAPL7). Meanwhile, the subject lecturer referred to using assessment criteria as a way of explaining the purpose of the assessment, but also reflected that it was "troubling" that sometimes

students stated that they did not know what the purpose of an assessment was even after completing it (SL1).

In the latter example, the lack of clarity of purpose for students contrasts directly with the clarity of purpose displayed by academic leaders. Perhaps students' confusion about their purpose of communication comes from the multiple purposes of many forms of academic assessment. Students may be required to demonstrate skills and knowledge in various genres (AL2, SL3B), but they are probably communicating to lecturers who already know the content or who have an understanding of how a particular assessment fits within a course curriculum that can only be grasped by students at a later point. By viewing this scenario through the lens of language as a social semiotic (see Figure 8.4), a student's objective of getting a good grade by demonstrating their learning can only be fulfilled if they effectively use their language to reconfigure the lecturer's understanding of what they know. Implicit in this, however, is the expectation that students will employ the disciplinary discourse expectations of their lecturer. If those expectations are not explicitly included in teaching and learning materials, the process of learning relies on a "pedagogy of osmosis" (Turner, 2011, p.21). I propose that one solution for this could be that students are explicitly told, 'the purpose of this assessment is for you to …' in language which is accessible to them. Furthermore, models, which will be discussed later, should also be made available (e.g. AL2, SL1, EAPL3). This is part of the demystification of academic language and culture promoted by lecturers in McKay and Devlin's (2014) study.

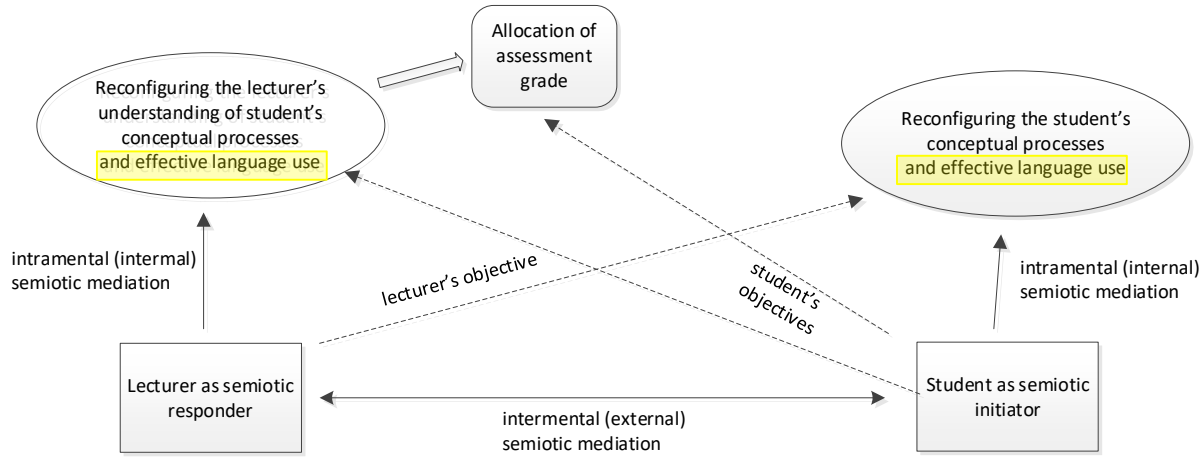

Figure 8.4 Semiotic mediation in an assessment (adapted from Coffin and Donohue 2014, 28) with explicit inclusion of effective language use as part of the assessment process

Content of communication

In addition to the shared codes of audience and purpose of communication, all stakeholder groups mentioned content of communication (e.g. AL1, SL1, EAPL3). As highlighted in Chapter 2, some in higher education separate thought and language (e.g. the Pro Vice-Chancellor cited by Coffin and Donohue, 2014). This misleading separation of language and thought leads to a scenario in which language may be considered as a bolt-on to the 'core business' of teaching content (cf. Wingate, 2006; Tuck, 2018). It can also lead to discourses of lack or deficiency in language (Lillis & Scott, 2007) rather than the concept of language choices which can be taught by expanding a student's repertoire (Snell, 2013). Amongst these stakeholders, there is no evidence of a perceived split between language and content: the co-constitutive nature of thought and language are exemplified in the data from each stakeholder group. Academic leaders' talk included the point that choices need to be made about what to include and what not to include in their own communication to academics: "let's not bombard her with every bloody thing under the sun" (AL1). Academic leaders described patterns of language, for example, problem – solution – action (AL2, AL4), and they referred to the importance of being concise (AL1) and signposting to the details (AL2). EAP lecturers talked about how students needed content to be appropriate to their level of experience and understanding (EAPL1, EAPL3). The subject lecturer highlighted the importance of students referring to the content of the module

in assignments, omitting irrelevant material, referring to key literature, and creating logical links between ideas (SL1). All of these examples reflect the co-constitutive nature of language and thought. Moreover, it is noteworthy that the choice of content of communication in these cases aligned with the needs or expectations of the audience. Having shared concepts about effective language use is crucial to successful implementation of language development provision (Murray & Hicks, 2016) and without a shared appreciation of the co-constitutive nature of language and thought, attempts to discuss policies or approaches are likely to falter. Therefore, whilst it is evident in the data from this study's participants, it would be apposite to make this understanding explicit early in any policy discussions.

Complexity of communication

Academic language was acknowledged by all stakeholder groups as being complex and challenging: "being able to convey meaning and complexity and sophistication, but maintaining structure is … important" (AL2); "there's a lot in language and a lot in EAP that is instinctive … I think that's a tricky thing" (EAP5); "What do you start with?" (SL2). Understanding complexity includes understanding that the same language can be interpreted differently due to differing world views (AL4). Effective language use in higher education also relies on complex processes (Lea & Street, 1998). This is exemplified by the subject lecturer's description of what students would need to do for a successful presentation about a work-based learning module: "they need to be able to … reflect on the processes that they've gone through … talk about impact … identify what they've learned … how they are going to apply that learning … But all that needs to be sort of set in the context of having read quite a lot of literature" (SL1). A possible enabler of this complexity is the use of models of student work (Wette, 2014) and the explicit, integrated teaching of textual analysis, by which I specifically mean identifying language features in texts (see section below on *Using models*).

Mode of communication

Written and spoken modes of communication were referred to by all stakeholder groups and the affordances and limitations of each were implicit in their talk. Visual modes were also referred to by several participants (EAPL2, EAPL6, EAPL7, EAPL8 and AL1). A full analysis of visual modes of communication falls outside the scope of this

thesis' focus on spoken and written language; however, all stakeholder groups acknowledged that visual modes can enhance linguistic communication and learning (AL1, EAPL7, SL1) (see Richard and Pilcher 2018 for a discussion of non-linguistic modes).

Email was singled out as a particularly ineffective medium of communication both to students, "half the class hadn't read the email" (EAP1) and to staff, "It would be great if we could just send an email out. And, first of all, people read it [humorous] and then that they read and understood exactly what it meant. Those two things never happened" (AL2). The expectation that people receive and understand language effectively no longer held for email, and there were other instances of ineffective communication. AL1 discussed meetings in which "There were masses and masses of papers, just to receive" (AL1). It would be interesting to investigate students' perspectives of what sort of communication they feel is effective; however, this falls beyond the scope of these three case studies.

The complex interaction between audience and mode and purpose was also acknowledged by one academic leader (AL3). She considered the format of a staff development workshop to agree assessment criteria an extremely useful process, although "painful" because "it puts them [academics] in a position where they don't know" (AL3). EAP lecturers noted the diverse range of genres and modes that students may need to be familiar with, for example, EAPL8 noted that in "art-related writing … there's lots of reflection, in there, there's not much essay type". EAP lecturers also discussed the specific linguistic implications of certain genres, for example, compressed language in posters (EAPL7).

Academic leaders were keen to encourage variation in modes and genres. AL1 noted that there can be a tendency to rely on monologic rather than dialogic communication, "most of what we do in effect is monologue. So we speak to them in lectures; they write back to us in essays" (see section *Opportunity for dialogue* below). Meanwhile AL4 questioned, "whether we're exposing ourselves enough to things like blogs and wikis, annotated bibliographies as modalities." Her question was whether as academics "perhaps we don't challenge ourselves" but are too dependent on assessment types with which we are familiar. If course teams are to introduce

innovative means of assessment, however, they need to bear in mind the difficulty of ensuring that feedback can be utilised between assessments (see *Feedback* section below), and that models are created to make expectations explicit (see *Using models* section below).

Structure

An additional aspect of effective language use that all stakeholder groups mentioned was structure. The subject lecturer noted when reflecting on her students' presentations that "one of the issues that some people had was … ordering and sequencing their information" (SL1). This challenge was echoed by an academic leader who noted the challenge of demonstrating the multiple attributes expected in a student dissertation: "we all have in our heads … if we read a dissertation … the kind of attributes that it would have … in terms of it being able to convey meaning and complexity and sophistication, but maintaining structure, is you know, is important" (AL2). The linguistic aspect of structuring is made most explicit by the EAPL7 who describes how her work with art and design students on posters includes looking at, "the actual physical structure and *how the words are leading the reader of the poster through*" (EAPL7, my emphasis).

Language choices

All of the above factors of effective language use demonstrate academic leaders', the subject lecturer's and EAP lecturers' understanding that there are multiple language choices made in every communication. Enabling students to become aware of and to use the available choices is seen as a form of empowerment (AL4, SL3B, EAPL6). Academic leaders provided evidence of their own conscious language choices. For example, one leader spoke differently to different academic subject groups, "I think I amend my language to fit the subject. Definitely, absolutely, definitely" (AL3). Another recalled being advised by senior colleagues to consider using external stakeholders' language in her own communication, "If we use those particular words, then we're mirroring back to that group the terms, the language that they recognise" (AL4). They acknowledged that the most challenging communication was with people whose experiences were furthest from their own (AL3). Further, academic leaders understood that the "flavour" (AL2) of effective academic language can be "different from what …

students are familiar with. And of course it gets absorbed into this discipline, in lots and lots of different ways" (AL2). Here, the academic leader hints at the links between epistemological and linguistic choices that are usually buried deep within disciplinary discourses, as pointed out by Hyland (2004) and others. The academic leader's suggestion for the use of models to make these choices explicit is discussed in the section about using models below. The subject lecturer referred to language choices in a different scenario in her description of how successful students moved from a vocational to a professional habitus in their workplace "through their use of technical language … maybe or early years specific or education specific [language]" (SL3B). This echoes the description of successful student behaviour in Erixon and Erixon Arremon's (2018) study. The Early Years context of this case study is perhaps particularly relevant given that the quintain for this multiple case study is an applied university. Perhaps explicitly discussing the concept of language choices could be useful for both work placement modules and university-based modules. Murray's (2010, 2016) professional communication and tripartite model could provide an interesting framework for that discussion.

Unsurprisingly, EAP lecturers' talk provided many more specific examples of a very wide range of linguistic features that students might need to choose, including: nominalisation (EAPL2), transitions (EAPL2, EAPL9), syntax (EAPL4), integral and non-integral citations (EAPL4), pronunciation (EAPL5), pronoun choice (EAPL5, EAPL9), simple, complex and compound sentence structures (EAPL6), tense choice (EAPL7), process description (EAPL7), compressed language (EAPL7), figurative language (EAPL8), register (EAPL9), hedging (EAPL9), and collocations (EAPL10). Despite the linguistic specificity of EAP lecturers' talk, there is an important similarity between their views and those of other stakeholder groups. The similarity is in the expectation that it is fundamentally the EAP lecturers' task to communicate the reasons for the different choices. For EAPL2, this starts with eliciting subject lecturers' discoursal expectations:

> that whole process of starting with getting lecturers to question themselves about their language expectations – and then the students being involved in that conversation – it's kind of key to us finding out what the language is and the students and the lecturer having that same sort of clarity. (EAPL2)

In the context of limited numbers of EAP lecturers, one of our most important roles is as a catalyst for students and lecturers to develop a shared metalanguage to be able to notice and discuss language choices, as indicated by Clarence (2012) and Chanock (2017).

Summary

The six shared codes about language demonstrate that there is a common understanding of what comprises effective language use. The academic leaders in this study were astutely aware of their audiences, purposes, and the content of their communication. They also talked openly about when their communication had been unsuccessful. A clear contrast between academic leaders' and students' experiences (based on the subject lecturer's data) was the level of clarity of purpose of communication. When students lack clarity about the purpose of assessments, that potentially limits their ability to perform well. The different stakeholder groups all acknowledged the complexity of communication in academic contexts. The subject lecturer also highlighted the complex learning processes that enable effective language use. Spoken and written modes were discussed, and all stakeholder groups acknowledged the usefulness of visual modes to support verbal modes. Monologic modes were seen as problematic and email was identified as particularly unsuccessful, because there was no guarantee of it reaching its audience, either linguistically or electronically. I recommend that students' perceptions should also be sought about what modes of communication they find effective (as recipients and producers). Given the diverse nature of the student body, this might be best at a local (e.g. course) level. Language choices were discussed differently by stakeholder groups in that EAP lecturers referred to detailed linguistic features, whereas academic leaders and the subject lecturer spoke more broadly about choices. Nonetheless, it was clear that enabling greater linguistic choice was viewed as a form of empowerment for students by all groups. It is possible that this shared view could endorse the role of EAP lecturers as catalysts for lecturers and students to develop shared understandings of available and preferred language choices. All stakeholder groups in the study also demonstrated an understanding that language and thought are co-constitutive. This shared but often implicit understanding might make it easier to agree on the usefulness of integrated language provision. However, I acknowledge that this understanding may differ

amongst other stakeholders in the same context, or different contexts. Therefore, an important early conversation should ascertain what stakeholders' thinking is – or include explanations of why the understanding of language and thought as co-constitutive is important to the success of any approach to a university-wide language provision.

8.2.2 Learning

I chose the second theme, learning, to represent the following nine codes that were shared by all three stakeholder groups: time in learning, integrated language provision, opportunities for dialogue, feedback, reflection, reading, using models, curriculum design and the use of IT. The focus on learning specifically prioritises the objective behind the data in these codes - understanding the development of effective language use.

Time in learning

All stakeholder groups acknowledged that developing effective language use takes time: "it's not something that you can fix straight away … It's a learning process, isn't it?" (AL2) For student cohorts with limited time for studying due to work commitments, the "dual hit" (SL2) of content and language in taught integrated sessions was identified as a particular strength of the collaborative action research. Time was also identified as an important part of the process of relationship building between lecturers and students (EAPL1) and in moving from noticing activities to productive activities (EAPL2). The subject lecturer also stated that more time would help identify students who might benefit from additional support (SL3A).

In addition to the quantity of time required for learning, the timing of learning opportunities was also deemed to be important (as recommended by Sloan & Porter, 2010). Academic leaders highlighted the importance of language provision being "local and relevant and timely" (AL3), and of identifying "threshold" points in a student's journey "where things get sticky" (AL4). EAP lecturers noted that carefully scheduled input could aid learning transfer due to its immediate relevance to students (EAPL1, EAPL2). The notion of 'just-in-time' does not work for some students, however, as highlighted by the subject lecturer's recollection of a student complaining at the end of

a collaborative action research input session on source use: “Why didn’t you tell us this before?” (SL2). This perhaps reflects the challenge of the complexity of communication identified earlier – “Where do you start?” (SL2). The solution of starting with confidence questionnaires and taking a recycling approach to embedding language and literacies was planned into the third iteration of collaborative action research in case study 3 and is discussed under *Curriculum design*.

This latter point highlights the changing nature of the collaborative action research interventions, because we (author and subject lecturer) were also learning over time (SL3B). This acknowledgement of everybody always learning, even academics (see Tusting et al, 2019), is echoed in the section on *Reflection* below and is worth making explicit in discussions about language development.

Integrated language provision

Despite the acknowledgement that it is extremely difficult to isolate causal factors in language development (SL3A), there was strong support for the goal of integrating language provision into course curricula, as recommended by Murray (2016), Wingate (2018) and others. One academic leader who had previously employed a language expert to work embedded within a subject area at another institution noted that, “the closer you integrate something for a student, and the more holistic and relevant they see it, the more successful it is” (AL3). Other reasons for supporting an integrated approach included: students being able to make links more easily between language input and their subject (EAPL8) so that they could transfer their learning; creating conditions where the easiest action is for students to attend, for example, timing sessions next to each other and in the same space (AL3); and embedding fundamental language and literacy development so that students see these as part of their learning - “we’re indistinguishable to them, you’re another tutor that comes. So you’re thoroughly embedded, which is really good” (SL3B). (See below for a contrasting view on standalone academic literacy modules in *Curriculum design*). These recommendations extend Sloan and Porter’s (2010) for contextualisation, embedding and mapping. AL3 also noted that there is also the opportunity for staff development workshops and that this sometimes empowered subject lecturers to take over the delivery, as promoted by Macnaught et al (2022). These benefits and practices of

integrated language provision could usefully be shared in discussions about a university-wide approach to language development.

Opportunities for dialogue

Dialogue was recognised as playing an important role in effective language use both in the learning process and in professional contexts. Interestingly, the main point about dialogue amongst academic leaders was that it should precede communications which are more formal, for example, ratifying (AL1) or sharing (AL2) a committee decision or in meetings with external stakeholders (AL4). The potentially monologic pattern of lecture giving (AL1), followed by student essay writing, was also critiqued, "I think we need to think much more radically …, so what kinds of things do we do in classrooms … and I think that might actually help with engagement as well because they [students] might see a point. It's more interactive" (AL1). The subject lecturer described the usefulness of students being able to take work away and come back with questions, but that opportunities for that kind of dialogue were sometimes limited due to time constraints (SL1). She also indicated disappointment that opportunities for dialogue, particularly around feedback, are often limited to students who have failed an assessment (SL3B). A similar perspective is identified by Tuck (2018) who describes "[t]he notion of dialogue around student writing [as] attractive, but … elusive" (p.154). EAP lecturers' talk about dialogue portrayed a different perspective. EAP lecturers described numerous moments of dialogue that were fundamental to their teaching processes, so that in fact their teaching could be described as "a series of … discussions" (EAPL5). This was particularly important given the goal of language production that EAP lecturers aimed for (EAPL5, EAPL6). This slightly different focus may be a result of the questions that EAP lecturers were asked but it does demonstrate a core principle of language learning pedagogy: practice. The difficulty of negotiating the limited time available for dialogue and the shared understanding that it is a crucial part of learning for many is discussed further in *Curriculum design*.

Feedback

Feedback (often talked about in conjunction with the next shared code, Reflection) was valued positively by all stakeholder groups. Successful feedback was described as "supportive, formative, constructive feedback … in a repetitive manner" (AL2) and

ideally in a non-risky environment (e.g. formative assignments), so that students could reflect upon and use the feedback in their next assignments. Unfortunately for the subject lecturer it was not always clear whether that happened, because students would move to another module taught by another lecturer, or because the genre of assignments varied frequently (SL3B). This reality echoes Lea and Street's (1998) findings that feedback was often too late to be effective when students could only access the feedback after completing a module. In my research, it was also possible for students to receive contradictory feedback if they asked several people (lecturers, learning centre colleagues and others) for advice (SL2). As previously mentioned, it was also disappointing for the subject lecturer that often the only students who she had the chance to discuss feedback with were those who had failed (SL3B). EAP lecturers talked about feedback slightly differently, like *Opportunities for dialogue*, as an instant process that is part of teaching activities (EAPL6, EAPL10).

Reflection

Reflection was a key part of the academic leaders' own development in relation to effective language use and all of them spoke unprompted about times when they had made mistakes and were able to reflect upon and learn from them (AL1, AL2, AL3, AL4). As mentioned above, one academic leader specifically promoted formative assessment for students that could support reflection (AL2). EAP lecturers systematically embedded reflection into teaching, for example, asking students to reflect on their use of reading strategies (EAPL1), vocabulary learning strategies (EAPL5), and essay writing style (EAPL9). The subject lecturer discussed reflection as part of the process of undertaking a work-based learning project (SL1), and in relation to language and literacies development (SL3A). To support the latter, she introduced a self-confidence questionnaire into an assessment that would encourage students to reflect upon their own strengths and weakness and plan improvements (SL3A). For all of the stakeholder groups, reflection should be embedded into the language learning process, because it is valued as a fundamental part of the process of learning. However, reflection cannot be forced. The subject lecturer offered one way of compelling students to reflect on their academic language and literacies needs (through embedding it as part of an assessment) and promoted it as part of their personal, professional, and academic development.

Reading

Reading was discussed as a challenge to students across all of the stakeholder groups (AL1, AL4, EAPL3, SL3B). Challenges included the perception that, "a lot of the students want to do a degree, but really don't want to do the reading" (SL3B). Other issues were stamina, "one of the things we'd assumed was stamina for reading ... they didn't have it" (AL4), and competencies, "The students were here and the course materials were there and we just had no idea" (AL1). Reading was considered an essential part of being and succeeding in higher education (e.g. SL3B). In addition to reading for content, every stakeholder group acknowledged the usefulness of students learning to analyse texts – in other words, reading to notice language choices (AL2, EAPL10, SL2). EAP lecturers discussed strategies for handling complex texts (EAPL3), for avoiding reading overload (EAPL10), and for scaffolding students' use of sources so that they could use their reading to support their own ideas in writing (EAPL4). Fundamentally, EAP lecturers identified the importance of embedding scaffolded reading into curriculum design (EAPL1). This would play a role in challenging the invisibility of reading as a foundational step in academic writing.

Using models

The use of models to exemplify effective language use (oral and written) was supported by all stakeholder groups (e.g. AL2, SL1, EAPL3). Through AL2's 'deconstruction' of models, as highlighted above, students can become aware of the "the qualities … the approaches … the flavour of the language … in really good student work" (AL2). The subject lecturer commented that following a session in which students analysed audio-recorded models of a viva, "there were lots of feedback from students … 'I know what I've got to do ...' … and people did that really well" (SL3A). However, she queried "whose work do you show or let people listen to?" (SL2), in case extremely strong models could "wipe people's confidence" (SL2). This is one reason perhaps for using several models.

The subject lecturer also noted that the skill of 'deconstructing' any text is useful, because the process demonstrates that the language of academic texts is something that can be learnt (SL2). This idea of using models as part of the wider process of learning is reinforced by one of the academic leaders who when talking about a staff

development workshop on assessment criteria highlighted that it is important to "start where they [the audience] are … and bring them forward and give examples, so you're giving people the confidence to do it" (AL3).

EAP lecturers described using models in terms of a pedagogic process, as a fundamental part of a three-stage process of highlighting - noticing – practising (see Case Study 2, Nicholls, 2021). In their talk EAP lecturers applied varied linguistic analyses to models supplied by subject lecturers in order to highlight different aspects of texts. For example, the rhetorical triangle (EAPL7) was used to discuss the experience of the audience; the concept of semantic waves from Legitimation Code Theory (EAPL2) (see Maton, 2020) was used to demonstrate how academic language moves between abstract ideas and concrete examples; and information structure from Systemic Functional Linguistics (EAPL3) (see Halliday, 1967) was used to show how sentences move from information that is known to new information.

Only the subject lecturer noted a potential negative of providing templates (that can be generated by analysing models), which is that students could be limited by them, or the template might not fit the student's plans. This introduces a further critique of the use of models – the problem of taking a normative approach to language development. It is possible that by introducing models based on former students' examples, new students may reproduce genres and formats that need not be the only acceptable ways of demonstrating their learning. For those lacking confidence, or who are new to producing academic texts, however, they may be a useful departure point. They may provide insights into the language that is not the students' "mother tongue" (Bourdieu & Passeron, 1994, p.8).

A further point which is unexamined is where the discourse knowledge which emanates from EAP lecturers' analyses of model texts is stored and shared. EAPL7, who brought art and design poster samples to the focus group, mentioned in passing, "This is why I have all those rolls of posters on top of my cabinet." The models of student work which are analysed in taught sessions are not always available outside of those sessions. It would be useful if the models and the discourse knowledge developed locally within the group of EAP lecturers could be captured and made widely accessible. An example of this is mentioned under the *Use of IT*.

Curriculum design

All stakeholder groups talked about the curriculum and how language development could fit into it, but from varied perspectives. Academic leaders talked about opportunities to introduce responsive changes to meet short-term needs that are identified and in the medium-term using the course review process to embed changes (AL2). Online resources were mentioned (AL4) as were team-teaching and staff development workshops (AL3) as ways of embedding language into the curriculum. For the subject lecturer the curriculum was a way of bringing together the personal and professional, which each have different language choices associated with them, and tying them together with the academic self (SL3B). She was adamant that "standalone academic literacy module[s] … don't work", but the "dual hit" of combined language and content was a good use of students' time (SL2). This type of integrated delivery could go some way to counter the problem of limited time for dialogue through which shared understandings can be created. She also highlighted that language and literacies input needs to be reiterated across the curriculum to give students multiple opportunities to absorb concepts and practices. One practical example of embedding reflection on language and literacies development to support deeper learning was the confidence questionnaire which the subject lecturer introduced as part of an assessment. EAP lecturers spoke about the challenge of insufficient time (EAP4, EAP10) within the curriculum of English for Academic Purposes courses but acknowledged that they were in control of what should be included (EAPL6). In discussions about collaborative provision across degree courses, they suggested the integration of scaffolded reading across a curriculum to support students (EAPL1). However, one also acknowledged the awkward position of the collaborator which could put them in uncomfortable situation of moving from a language expert to a curriculum development advisor (EAPL1). Perhaps it is inevitable that collaborative work which investigates ways of integrating language development will segue into other curricular developments, because the explicit inclusion of language in the curriculum maps onto the often implicit assessment of effective language (see Figure 8.4) and is therefore a form of curricular re-alignment. This raises the question of whether potential collaborators should be made aware of this possibility in advance (for example,

through sharing case studies of previous collaborations) or whether the possibility of further change is allowed to emerge through the process of collaboration.

Use of IT

An additional shared code referred to the broad concept of IT use in the development of effective language use. AL4 praised the development of an online repository of resources at a former institution, emphasising that it was embedded into modules and referred to regularly by teaching staff. The usefulness of using online resources as supplementary materials was supported by the subject lecturer (SL2). In slight contrast, the use of IT was referred to as an immediate tool for in-class learning by EAP lecturers (EAPL2, EAPL5, EAPL7, EAPL10). It should be noted that all of the data for the three cases were collected before the COVID-19 pandemic, during which time many teaching practices diversified, so it would be useful to revisit stakeholders' views on the use of IT as a way of developing effective language use. This is a potential area for further study.

Summary

My description and analysis of codes grouped under the theme of learning highlight topics that are of shared interest to the stakeholder groups, but also illustrate stakeholders' different perspectives. All stakeholder groups acknowledged that language development takes time and time is precious in higher education contexts. Therefore, the "dual hit" (SL2) of integrated language development within the course curriculum enabled students to learn about the discoursal expectations of their lecturer and more about their disciplinary context. Being "local and relevant and timely" (AL3) is key to successful integration. Full integration makes language and subject lecturers indistinguishable to the students (SL3B). Ultimately, either language expert or subject expert can deliver language and literacies input (AL3) (see also Macnaught et al, 2022).

Three pedagogic activities - dialogue, feedback, and reflection - were identified across the stakeholder groups as important to the development of effective language use. The tension of limited time versus language development was related to each. Dialogue was acknowledged as important for learning: one academic leader proposed

a greater focus on interactivity in class time (AL1); the subject lecturer identified the challenge of working with students who also work, and whose input is necessarily compressed around work commitments (SL2); and the EAP lecturers' talk highlighted dialogue in that their preferred pedagogic approach resembled "a series of … discussions" (EAP5). This variety perfectly highlights the roles and diversity which the stakeholders bring to the discussion of how effective language use develops. Academic leaders bring ideas and expertise from previous experiences as well as perspectives on what could and should be possible to support students' language development. The subject lecturer sees the complexities and particularities of her students' situation and the complex demands of ensuring time and attention is given to content and language and literacies development, whilst all the time balancing group and individual student needs. EAP lecturers join the discussion with experience of pedagogies of language development that integrate input, dialogue, feedback, and reflection in cycles of highlighting – noticing – practising that require time and good timing. The fact that the three stakeholder groups' accounts of learning do align is promising for the discussion of a university-wide approach towards language development.

Two further points of convergence are the acknowledgement that reading is vital yet challenging to students, and that the identification of linguistic features of texts, including models of student work, is useful. EAP lecturers promote a scaffolded approach to reading across the curriculum. Their analysis of student models (audio or written) both make the "flavour" and "qualities" (AL2) of effective language use in course contexts explicit, and demonstrate that language choices can be learned, thus empowering students with a wider linguistic repertoire to choose from. There are risks of using student models, however. One is that students may be disheartened if they perceive the models to be beyond their abilities (SL2). A further risk is that the presentation of models limits students' work, because it creates normative expectations which need not apply. Both of these risks can be mitigated by careful introduction to multiple student models, which exemplify different levels and different approaches. The use of IT was also mentioned amongst the three stakeholder groups and as long as online resources are fully blended into the curriculum, there could be numerous models that could feed into the development of effective language use. IT use and emergent pedagogical models for language development are areas for future

research. These areas are particularly relevant given the systemic changes to teaching and learning which took place in UK higher education during the Covid-19 pandemic and which will have altered perspectives and technological preferences.

8.2.3 Learners

The remaining codes which were shared across the three stakeholder groups are affective factors and student engagement. Although there is less coded data numerically in this theme, I considered it worthy of its own category because the data are significantly different from those in the themes of language and learning. Specifically, the data in these shared codes refer to aspects which learners bring to the learning environment, rather than the language they are expected to produce, or the learning opportunities that can be offered to them. These aspects are not viewed as static by participants, but they are important to acknowledge and understand as contributory factors in the development of effective language use.

Affective factors

Affective factors were mentioned in relation to the stakeholders' own experiences and in relation to learners' experiences. This is significant because it highlights the shared experiences that stakeholders have which may help them to relate to learners. Academic leaders spoke about affective factors when they reflected on their own communications as leaders, and formerly as lecturers and students. One academic leader remembered when she had taken on a new leadership role and was "probably feeling quite anxious … so I'd gone to default" (AL4). This meant not valuing herself and what she had learnt, but instead reacting quickly to a request to communicate a change. She reflected that, "as I've got more experience, as I've become more confident and I value my own attributes, I think as a communicator, then I'm much more, 'Hold, let's just hold fire'" (AL4). This improved confidence has enabled her to return to what she knows about considering the needs of her audience of communication and preparing her communication from "where that person is" (AL4). Another leader recalled his first presentation as a student and being "struck down with fear" (AL2), leading him to discuss the importance of "risk free" opportunities for students to practice as mentioned earlier.

The issue of confidence was a key concern (AL1, AL2, AL3, AL4, SL1, SL2, SL3A, SL3B, EAPL2, EAPL5, EAPL6, EAPL7, EAPL8 and EAPL9). The collaboration with the subject lecturer began with her lacking confidence and questioning the efficacy of her own feedback (SL1). Over the course of the collaboration this changed: "I've become more confident in terms of what feedback I need to give students" (SL3B) due to a clearer understanding of "all of the things that people need to be able to do" (SL3B). In terms of her students, student confidence was contrasted with the "anxiety" felt in relation to assessments (SL2) and even when starting a new module as final year students (SL3B). Therefore, confidence building needed to be embedded through a "relational pedagogy" (SL2) that subtly encourages students to reflect on their strengths through the use of targeted feedback. Confidence was explicitly discussed in relation to multilingual students with a lower-level language proficiency (EAPL5) but also to those from a widening participation background (SL1).

Whilst talk amongst academic leaders and the subject lecturer acknowledged a range of other affective factors including discomfort (AL2, AL3, SL1) and fear (AL2, SL2) it is notable that only one academic leader (AL3), but more than half of the EAP lecturers talked about enjoyment (EAPL1, EAPL6, EAPL7, EAPL8, EAPL9, EAPL10). This included both the students' enjoyment, "it was genuinely a nice buzz" (EAPL6) and their own: "I think effective teaching is a bit of enjoyment and the students get something out of it and the teacher enjoys it as well" (EAP10). Amongst EAP lecturers, enjoyment was specifically important both as a goal of inspiring students to think of opportunities to communicate as enjoyable opportunities (EAPL1) and in relation to the practice of teaching in the classroom – "if you're really enthused and … passionate about this, then it … expands onto your students, doesn't it?" (EAPL8)

Again, EAP lecturers' talk referred to practical approaches in the classroom (e.g. using pictures and IT) to influence affective factors (EAPL6). Understanding the interaction between students' motivation, their sense of achievement, and engagement made teaching easier (EAPL6). However, it was also acknowledged that motivation can be linked to various goals, e.g. taking a test (EAPL9), and it is not guaranteed that students are motivated by their discipline or subject of study (EAPL8, EAPL10).

Student engagement

As already mentioned, student engagement, by which I mean students' demonstration of interest in class, was sometimes discussed as problematic – ie. lacking (AL1, AL4, SL3A, EAPL3). Additionally, one academic leader suggested that "we need to think much more radically about … what kinds of things … we do in classrooms" (AL1). He suggested that more interactive sessions "might actually help with engagement" (AL1). Similarly, AL4 recounted a recent conversation with a lecturer who was upset because her students were not engaging or were not attending. The reason for non-engagement suggested by the lecturer was that "they don't get it" (AL4). A lack of understanding of what is expected and of what is being taught inevitably impacts on students' ability to communicate effectively. For one EAP lecturer working on the collaborative project to integrate language into the curriculum, "the elephant not in the room is the ones that don't show up! … And all the module leaders talk about that" (EAPL3). For EAP lecturers working with multilingual international students, "Anything that helps them to … engage with the language" (EAPL6) rather relying on online translators (EAPL4) is worth investigating, because "you can't really hope to get a distinction in your degree, which is what they want, if you're just going to translate from one language to another" (EAPL6).

The subject lecturer reported that the collaborative action research interventions had had good student engagement, perhaps because the interventions involved a different person and different pedagogical approach (SL2). However, in a later cycle, she noted variation between students' engagement: "we definitely had students who I feel benefited more maybe from it? But that's more because they had the inclination … to be more engaged and involved and then apply that to their assessed tasks" (SL3A). The subject lecturer was also unsure about how much students would engage with standalone resources, or other "sources of support, like Studiosity and what's available at the Learning Centre" (SL3A). Again, the challenge of working students being able to access resources due to their limited time at university was a substantial barrier.

Summary

The goal of finding shared codes was to highlight that the different stakeholder groups represented by the participants in the three single case studies do have a basis for

communicating with each other about academic language and literacies development. The above analysis highlights what each stakeholder group brings to a discussion of language development and there is diversity even under the shared codes. Nevertheless, the concepts in Figure 8.2 are broad enough to create bridges for communication between stakeholder groups. In particular, I suggest that the above analysis demonstrates that the stakeholder groups involved in these case studies have both shared goals and shared understandings of language, learning and learners that could contribute to a university-wide approach to language and literacies development. All stakeholders suggested changes; all had ideas about how language development could be enhanced; and all noted challenges to the development of effective language use.

8.3 Differences between stakeholder groups: other codes

In addition to the identification of shared understandings, it is useful to identify where differences lay between stakeholder groups, and what the possible reasons for those differences are. Understanding why stakeholders differ in the ways that they account for language development may help to explain why university-wide approaches to language development in UK higher education are rare.

The following analysis of differences between stakeholder groups comes with the caveat, identified in Chapter 4, that different data collection methods and different sets of questions will have contributed to the findings. Each set of questions was designed to elicit detailed answers that could provide rich data from which I could understand how the stakeholder groups account for language development. The questions were shaped by their professional roles (see Table 8.1) and the data collection methods varied according to my multiple positionalities (see Table 4.1). Although the rationale behind many of the questions were the same, and I used a consistent approach to data analysis - iterative, inductive thematic analysis (Figure 4.7) enabling consistent coding across cases – the data likely includes some differences which are the result of the different data collection methods.

There are two sets of codes which were not shared across all three stakeholder groups: codes applied to data from a single stakeholder group; and codes applied to

data across two stakeholder groups. The latter implies that there are further shared understandings between pairs of stakeholder groups, and it is those which I will analyse first.

8.3.1 Codes shared between two stakeholder groups

It is useful to know what accounts of language development are shared between pairs of stakeholder groups, because that knowledge could help to build further alliances in the pursuit of a university-wide approach to language development. Figure 8.5 provides a visual representation of the codes shared between pairs of stakeholders. The diagram should not be used as a tool for generalisation, however. The Venn diagram itself risks oversimplifying the actual data - my application of codes to transcripts of participants' speech - because data was not exclusively coded to single codes (see Chapter 4 for an explanation of the coding process). As highlighted in the previous section, there are sometimes overlaps between codes. Hence the lines in the diagram should be considered fuzzy. Nevertheless, as the data can be attributed to specific speakers, the visual representation is useful to demonstrate where talk in each case overlaps with another case.

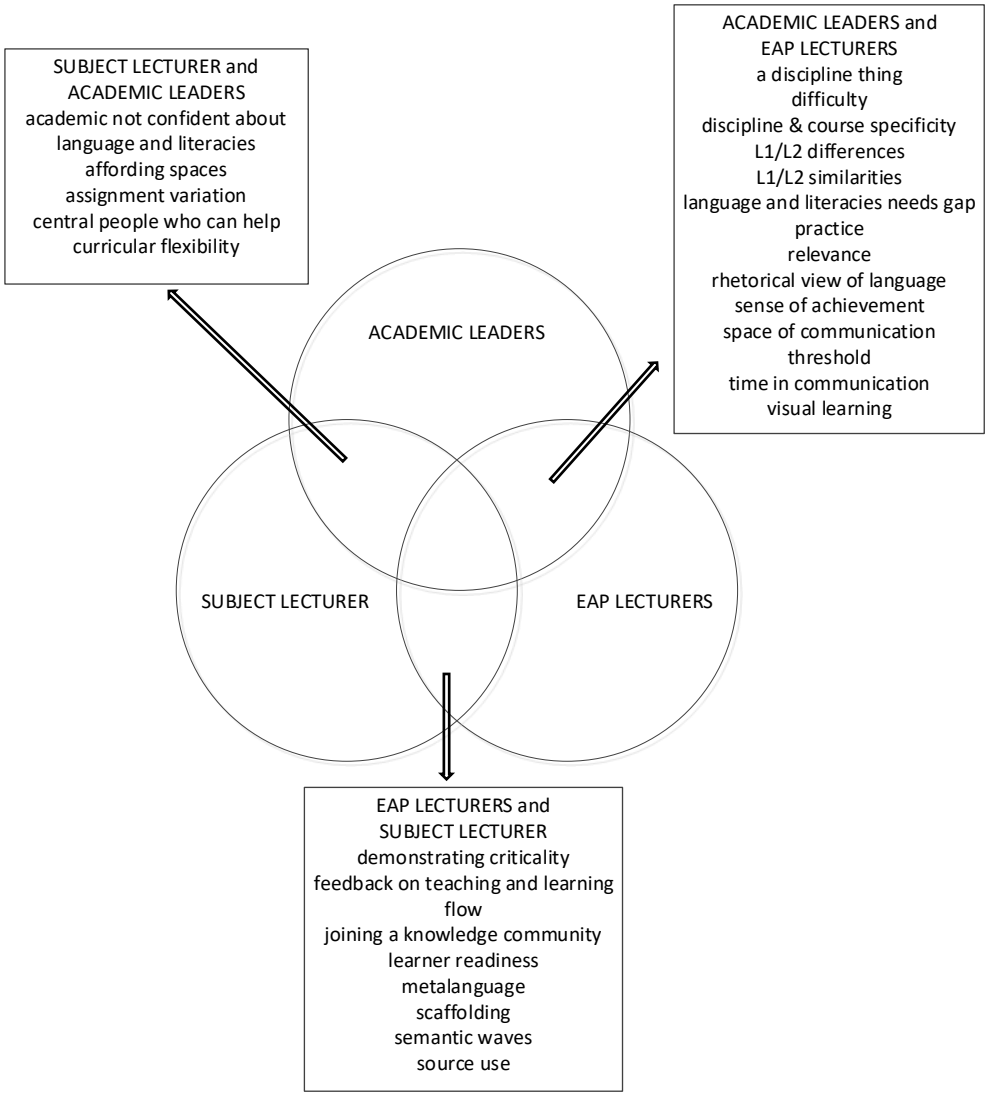

Figure 8.5 Codes shared between pairs of stakeholder groups

Codes shared by academic leaders and EAP lecturers indicate a broad view of students across the institution, which perhaps an individual subject lecturer would not experience. This includes an awareness of different disciplinary language and practices, differential needs of mono- and multi-lingual students and different spaces of communication. There are also several codes relating to learning, for example, visual learning, practice, and relevance.

Codes shared by EAP lecturers and the subject lecturer focus more narrowly on specific areas of language, on aspects of learning, and on feedback that could guide curricular development. Details of discoursal expectations, such as source use, demonstrating

criticality and flow, are not necessarily available or important to academic leaders, but they do demonstrate the importance of developing a shared understanding of students' linguistic needs in relation to specific subjects and courses. Issues such as learner readiness are also perhaps at the forefront of EAP and subject lecturers' consciousness because they are actively teaching specific groups. Feedback on teaching and learning to EAP and subject lecturers includes feedback from students, other lecturers, and external assessors. Interestingly, this type of information is captured differently in academic leaders' talk, where it is coded as part of "university processes". The data from EAP and subject lecturers gives an impression of being anecdotal. For example, "all the assessors were really pleased" (SL3A) with the improvement in grades after the collaborative action research intervention. In contrast, university processes including quality assurance processes, such as "our review of courses" enable triangulation and the formalising of "curriculum design interventions" (AL2). There is perhaps a gap in the flow of information that might seem anecdotal at ground level, and therefore is omitted at the level of university processes.

The third set of codes with data from two stakeholder groups came from talk by the subject lecturer and academic leaders. Codes which overlap between these stakeholder groups refer to staff and the curriculum. Codes about staff include "academics not confident about language and literacies" and "central people who can help". Codes about curriculum include "assignment variation", "curricular flexibility" and "affording spaces". These are one step removed from classroom practices and highlight the sorts of topics for discussion that could be shared between subject lecturers and academic leaders.

8.3.2 Codes used for individual cases

The final set of codes were applied to only individual cases – academic leaders, subject lecturer, or EAP lecturers. They represent further differences between the participants' talk about the development of effective language use and I will refer to them henceforth as unique codes. There were 28 unique codes applied to academic leaders' talk; 14 applied to subject lecturer's talk; and 14 applied to EAP lecturers' talk. The unique codes are listed in Table 8.3.

Academic Leaders	EAP Lecturers	Subject Lecturer
assumptions	abstraction in language	application of learning
cold communication	awareness raising	clarity
collaboration	experience-based	demystification
consequences of communication	group size	different pedagogy
currently available support	learner differences	differentiation
EAP provision	noticing	focussed on the mark
institutional responsibilities	questioning lecturers' expectations	identity
language related issues	research-based	impact
local people who can help	strategies	make clear links
make it happen	student behaviours	not just description
personal experience	systemic functional linguistics	process
persuasion	troubling teaching issues	student autonomy
policy	who's in the room	subject lecturer development
relationships	work produced	succinctness
resources		
responsibility - learning, teaching and assessment		
responsibility - quality assurance		
responsibility - student experience		
scaling up		
specialist support		
staff engagement		
statement of purpose		
student comm vs leader comm		
technical view of language		
tone of communication		
university processes		
university-faculty relationship		
use of assessment criteria		

Table 8.3 Unique codes applied to data from each of the three cases

As highlighted in earlier discussions, many of the differences between stakeholder groups can be explained by their different roles in relation to the question of the development of effective language use, methods of data collection or specific questions asked.

Unique codes applied to academic leaders' talk includes aspects of their own effective communication in their role, for example: collaboration, consequences of communication, persuasion, policy and interestingly, relationships and tone of communication. It is interesting that they acknowledge the role of interpersonal aspects of communication, which are absent from other stakeholders' talk. Academic leaders also talk about the structures and processes of the university and issues of responsibility, including institutional responsibility and responsibility for specific aspects of the processes of learning and teaching. Thirdly, academic leaders' talk includes practical aspects of the development of effective language use. This includes an understanding of who is able to play a role in developing students' effective language use – currently available support, EAP provision, local people who can help, staff engagement – and what is needed beyond the current provision to 'make it happen', including resources and scaling up. Murray (2022) discusses these challenges in the UK higher education context.

Unique codes applied to the subject lecturer's talk refer more directly to her own and her students' effective language use, e.g. clarity, not just description, succinctness. In addition to effective language use, codes applied to her talk refer to the broader processes of learning about effective language use, her own, and the students', e.g. subject lecturer development, demystification, and student autonomy. A significant aspect of the learning process for the subject lecturer is identity, which refers to the fact that identity might affect how we see ourselves in higher education. This aspect is fundamental to the academic literacies approach which highlights the empowering process of developing an academic voice (Lillis, 2001). The data in this code highlights the multiple roles that working students play, and the potentially transformative nature of increasing students' language choices through a more transparent and therefore equitable approach to higher education.

Similar to the subject lecturer's unique codes, the unique codes applied to the EAP lecturers' talk refer specifically to the narrower context of learning and teaching of effective language use. This includes linguistic descriptions (abstraction in language, systemic functional linguistics), pedagogic approaches (awareness-raising, noticing, strategies) and practical concerns (group size, learner differences, who's in the room).

Interestingly, they also referred to the research-based nature of their decision-making processes of what and how to teach.

It must be acknowledged that these unique codes applied to different stakeholder groups may be partially the result of the different data collection and specific questions used in interviews and focus groups (see Table 8.1). However, when considered in the light of the shared codes, the differences do highlight important perspectives that each stakeholder group might bring to discussions of a university-wide approach to language development.

8.4 Summary

This chapter has provided a detailed cross-case analysis of the three single cases. By comparing which codes were mentioned by which stakeholder group, I identified shared codes, mentioned by all stakeholder groups, codes mentioned by pairs of stakeholder groups, and unique codes which were mentioned by only one stakeholder group. This analysis illuminates differences in perspectives and accounts of language learning, but also similarities which can be used as the basis for future discussions about language development. In the final chapter, I review my research question on how stakeholders account for language development, and I evaluate how my study answers that question. I review the process and my findings, and I propose a framework for discussion based on these findings which has implications for future work.

Chapter 9 Conclusion and recommendations

9.1 Introduction

My overarching research question was, “How do stakeholders account for the development of effective language use in higher education contexts?” The goal of this research was to develop a framework that conceptualises different stakeholders’ accounts of the development of effective language use in academic contexts. My aim was that the framework could be used to initiate discussions on a university-wide approach to language development that acknowledges the fundamental role of language in learning in higher education.

This chapter concludes the thesis by presenting an overview of the process and a collation of the recommendations from the individual case studies (Chapters 5, 6 and 7) and the cross-case analysis (Chapter 8). I also evaluate the research, including a reflection on the degree to which my research has been rigorous and ethical in my qualitative research methods and coherent within its constructionist paradigm. I summarise my contribution to knowledge, and I review my own learning from this process.

9.2 Summary of the process and findings

This thesis has investigated different stakeholders’ accounts of language development in higher education within a constructionist paradigm. The multiple case study approach enabled variable data collection methods tailored to my relationships as an insider-researcher and to my multiple positionalities. Methods included: semi-structured interviews with academic leaders from each faculty within the university that formed the quintain (umbrella of cases); a variation on nominal focus groups with English for Academic Purposes lecturers who hold expertise in the language of higher education; and a longitudinal collaborative action research project with a subject lecturer who holds expertise in her discipline. Each method was chosen to maximise the depth of data from stakeholder-participants. The systematic, inductive thematic data analysis (Attride-Stirling, 2001) across the three cases enabled both individual case (Chapters 5, 6 and 7) and cross-case analysis (Chapter 8).

The concept of language as a social semiotic (Coffin & Donohue, 2014), which highlights the interactive meaning making processes in effective language use, was originally introduced as a way of understanding the role of language in learning. It has become increasingly important to the interpretation of the research question, "How do stakeholders account for the development of effective language use in higher education contexts?" Through the iterative cycles of coding and analysis, this concept also became a useful lens through which codes were viewed and thematised.

The multiple case study has illuminated the specific perspectives of the three stakeholder groups represented in each of the individual case studies: academic leaders, EAP lecturers and the subject lecturer. The analyses of data unique to each case (section 8.3.2) and data shared between two cases (section 8.3.1) are particularly useful in highlighting the expertise and bird's eye view that the stakeholder groups bring to discussions about language development.

Academic leaders are responsible for university-wide change, and this is represented by their talk about policy, processes, scaling up, resources, responsibility and persuasion (Chapter 5). All of the academic leaders in this study were positive about implementing change in general, yet there was uncertainty about where responsibility for the development of effective language use lay. In common with the subject lecturer, academic leaders talked about curricular flexibility, assignment variation, and confidence levels about language and literacy development amongst subject lecturers. In common with EAP lecturers, academic leaders had a view across multiple disciplines and courses and discussed disciplinary specificity, the differential needs of mono-lingual and multilingual students, relevance, practice, and visual learning. These findings highlight the fact that academic leaders have a broad view across multiple disciplinary areas, and an understanding of the needs of multiple stakeholders including students and staff. They are therefore well positioned to lead change, but they need to be clear about who holds ultimate responsibility for the development of students' effective language use.

EAP lecturers are concerned with research-based linguistic analyses and pedagogic approaches and practicalities. Their expertise can be said to be both narrowly focussed on the linguistic needs of particular groups of students in specific disciplines (the what

of EAP) and broadly applicable in their ability to work flexibly with students and colleagues across and between disciplines with different epistemological stances and pedagogic preferences (the how of EAP). Data from this stakeholder group demonstrated a research-led, yet pragmatic approach to language development. EAP lecturers have valuable expertise for the institution but have not always had a way of communicating their expertise to other stakeholders. The framework of language as a social semiotic is a useful tool to express EAP lecturers' expertise, along with the model created in Case 2 (Chapter 6).

The subject lecturer is responsible for their course design, students' learning and assessment, and in this case, the impact of students' learning beyond university on their working lives (Chapter 7). For the subject lecturer in this study, the demystification of academic discourses was connected to the development of an academic identity – a professional, rather than a vocational habitus. Developing clarity and succinctness and moving beyond description were fundamental to effective language use. In common with EAP lecturers, the subject lecturer was keen to consider how language development could be supported through scaffolding and the use of a shared metalanguage grounded in an understanding of student readiness. Differentiation between students became a new focus for the subject lecturer towards the end of the collaborative action research that formed this case. The subject expert is best placed to understand the needs of their students but can lack confidence or declarative knowledge that enables curriculum integrated language development.

Based on this overview of the stakeholder-participants' perspectives and priorities that have been illuminated by the research, I present in the next section a summary of recommendations organised thematically around the shared discourses of empowering others, language, learning and learners.

9.3 Recommendations for professional practice

My recommendations proceed in two parts. Firstly, I present a document with a framework for discussion that is based on the research in this thesis. This takes the form of a policy proposal using a framework around which I pose a series of questions for discussion amongst key stakeholders, specifically academic leaders, subject

lecturers, and EAP lecturers. These questions serve as prompts for stakeholders to come to locally agreed policy decisions. Secondly, I list the detailed recommendations from each of the case studies and the cross-case analysis organised into five areas of activity. Guided by the constructionist underpinnings and the case study approach, I acknowledge that all of these questions are influenced by the interactions I have had with participants and the literature, and I present them as prompts for discussion rather than absolutist rules for implementation.

9.3.1 Policy proposal

The policy proposal (see Figure 9.2) comes from the data from the three stakeholder groups that illuminate their clearly different perspectives on the development of effective language use and that can be explained in part by their various roles. For example, academic leaders' talk included having an institution-wide view of university processes, resource implications and a focus on how to scale up change. The subject lecturer's data demonstrated how important it was to know their student cohorts, including their strengths and challenges and what is expected in terms of disciplinary discourses. The EAP lecturers' talk reveals their interest in analysing differences across disciplines in terms of linguistic, pedagogic, and epistemological preferences and their consideration of how best to make these explicit to students. Despite their different perspectives, priorities, and expertise, the three stakeholder types accounted for the development of effective language use in numerous overlapping and encouraging ways. Figure 9.1, reproduced below from Chapter 8, highlights codes which I applied to data in all three stakeholder groups and indicates that there are shared values, for example, the goal of empowering others, as well as shared understandings of language, language-learning processes, and learners' characteristics and contributions.

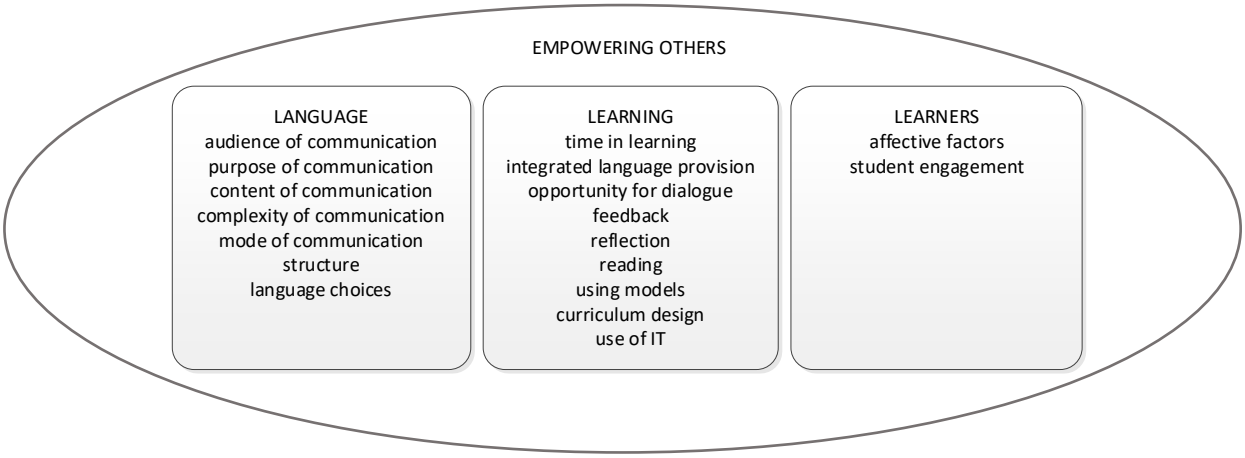

Figure 9.1 Shared codes across three stakeholder groups

My analysis enabled me to produce a detailed set of recommendations for consideration at a course level and a simplified series of questions that can be used by university stakeholders to discuss the implementation of a university-wide approach to language development provision. Figure 9.2 is a two-page document introducing a framework to initiate discussion on a university-wide language policy.

University-wide language policy paper

"Academic language is … no-one's mother tongue" (Bourdieu & Passeron, 1994, p.8)

Language and learning in higher education

This paper introduces the key role of language in learning in higher education and provides a framework for discussing a university-wide approach to language development provision. Acknowledging the specificity of institutional and disciplinary contexts, recommendations are presented as prompts for discussion, not fixed rules. The recommendations which follow are based on the underpinning principle of the co-constitutive nature of language and learning highlighted by Vygotsky:

> [t]he relation of thought to word is not a thing but a process, a continual movement back and forth from thought to word and from word to thought. In that process, the relation of thought to word undergoes changes that themselves may be regarded as development in the functional sense (1986, p.218)

and the understanding of the indivisibility of learning the language of a discipline and learning its analytical bases:

> Just as modes of analysis vary with disciplines and with the groups that practise them (physicists, psychologists, and literary critics), so too does language. For the student new to a discipline, the task of learning the distinctive mode of analysis … is indivisible from the task of learning the language of the discipline … One area of development cannot proceed without the other" (Ballard and Clancy, 1988 in Hyland, 2013, p.165).

A model of language in learning

The conceptual framework of Language as a Social Semiotic (Coffin and Donohue, 2014) provides a useful lens through which we can consider language in the process of learning.

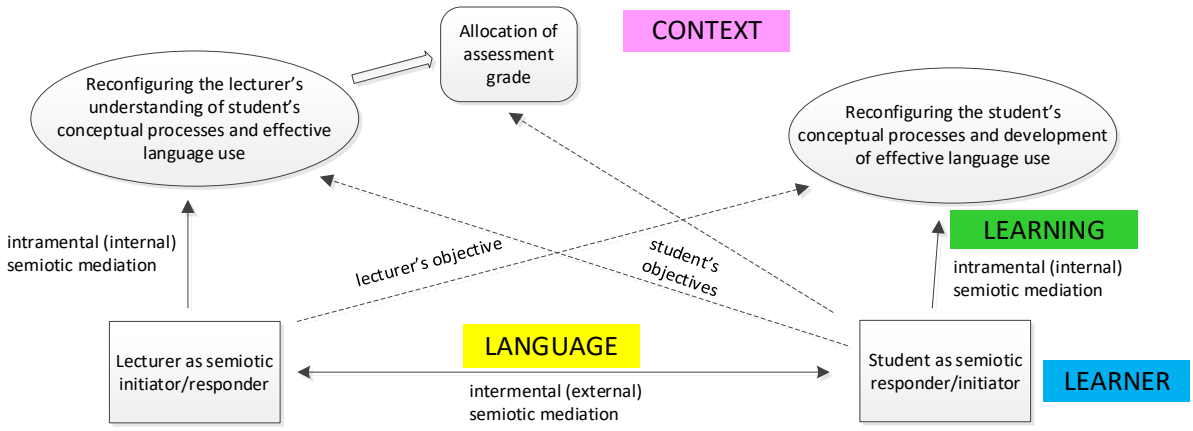

Figure 1 Moments of learning and assessment viewed through the lens of language as a social semiotic (my curriculum aligned adaptation of Coffin and Donohue 2014)

The figure demonstrates how the lecturer's objective is to reconfigure the student's understanding of a concept or issue. The student's objective is to reconfigure what the

lecturer knows about them and their learning in order to get an assessment grade. In the figure effective language use is also assessed. In reality, the assessment of language may be implicit (for example, when poor language use leads to lower grades) or explicit (when criteria are allocated for communication, or language use). In order to enhance curricular alignment and to avoid iniquitous expectations of students being able to acquire the complex discoursal preferences of their discipline, the lecturer also needs to have the objective of developing student's effective language use. To support that alignment, academic leaders, disciplinary experts, and language experts need to work together to combine their expertise to establish a sustainable, resourced approach based on shared understandings and a shared goal, for example, the curricular objective of students' increased language choices as a form of empowerment. The following framework enables this collaboration by focussing on the aspects highlighted in Figure 1. Examples are provided as prompts, not as limited options.

Questions for stakeholders to discuss:

Language
What aspects of effective language use does the university (course team/ module team) want to develop in students? For example, does Murray and Hicks' (2016) tripartite model help: general proficiency, academic literacies, professional communication skills?
How will course teams generate a shared metalanguage about their own disciplinary discourse knowledge that will be used with their students? For example, through their own analysis or through collaboration with language experts.
How can the concept of language choices (an expanding repertoire) be embedded in the way we talk about language? For example, is the rhetorical triangle (audience-author-purpose) useful within the disciplinary discoursal expectations of a course?
Learning
What mode of provision could support the "dual hit" of language and content input? For example, Wingate's "literacy windows", team-teaching within modules or blended approaches using online resources?
How can learners be given risk-free, relevant, and timely practice with feedback that enables development?
Learners
How can learners identify their own language and literacy repertoire and be encouraged to expand it? For example, would confidence questionnaires work?
How can learners be supported to develop their confidence, autonomy, and their academic identities?
Context
What timescale does the university want to work to?
What university processes can support the integration of language development?
What are the lines of responsibility for the development of an integrated approach to language development at each level of the university?
How can the policy/ approach/ provision be evaluated?

Figure 9.2 Language policy introductory framework

9.3.2 Stakeholder-specific findings from individual case studies

In addition to the cross-case analysis-based policy paper, I identified specific findings when analysing the data in each single case. For instance, the academic leaders revealed a good understanding of the needs of students in terms of language development but the way that they talked about their own language development revealed aspects of their own language development which are not always available in students' learning contexts (Chapter 5). This includes the importance of relationships in communication, for example, knowing your audience and what they want and value. EAP lecturers have considerable expertise in wide-ranging linguistic analytic and pedagogic approaches but have not been able to share these so as to counter reductive perspectives of language development (Chapter 6). The subject lecturer was aware of the interaction of her students' background and identities with the development of academic literacies but was initially unconfident about her own semiotic mediation with the students (Chapter 7). She benefited from and enjoyed the collaborative action research that we undertook and that led to the integration of academic language and literacies development into her own teaching and her curriculum.

9.3.3 Recommendations for specific activities involved in language development provision

From my research findings and discussion across the three individual cases and the cross-case analysis I have also identified a large number of recommendations for those in institutions who want to pursue the integration of language development into their courses (see Appendix 10). The recommendations sometimes address multiple stakeholder groups; therefore, in order to present them here, I group them into five areas of activity that may involve a range of stakeholders. The areas of activity are: leading an institution-wide approach; collaboration between subject and language experts; staff development; curriculum development; and enhancing pedagogic practices (learning, teaching, and assessment).

I have written these recommendations deliberately as 'should' statements in order to provide clear statements based on the research findings. However, I acknowledge that these recommendations have different potential audiences and that they emanate from a relatively small number of participants in a single institution and would need to be discussed rather than presented as a set of rules. They cannot be generalised across all departments or faculties or higher education institutions; they are recommendations that would be used as prompts for discussion.

9.3.3.1 Leading an institutional approach

Based on my research, a number of recommendations should be considered by those involved in leading the promotion of an institution-wide approach to curriculum-integrated language development. Several of the recommendations relate to the rationale for embedding language development. Firstly, the whole ethos of the development of integrated language provision should be understood as empowering students and staff. Empowerment is a fundamental rationale: for making explicit to students what linguistic choices are available to them and what their lecturers' expectations are so that there is equitable access to the discourses of higher education; for enabling subject lecturers to embed pedagogic strategies for language development, e.g. through interdisciplinary collaboration with language experts; and for creating shared institutional knowledge and practices in quality assurance and quality enhancement processes that support a sustainable process of integrated language development. Secondly, the rationale of shifting discourses of deficit to a discourse of language choices underpins the recommendation of explicit instruction with a language focus in 'dual hit' sessions combining content and language.

9.3.3.2 Collaboration between subject and language experts

The second set of recommendations relate to the collaboration between subject experts and language experts. Standard university practices, such as course review, quality processes, and the allocation of staff time to professional development and course enhancement should enable interdisciplinary collaboration aimed at the demystification of the academic language, cultures, and practices of disciplines. Collaboration should include the provision of models of good student work for linguistic analysis. Furthermore, the eliciting of discoursal expectations from subject

lecturers should provide the opportunity to create a shared metalanguage that can be used locally by lecturers and students.

9.3.3.3 Staff development

The above paragraph highlights the developmental nature of the process of implementing a university-wide approach to integrated language provision and I identified a number of specific recommendations for staff development. Primarily, subject experts should be given opportunities to develop their explicit, declarative knowledge of the linguistic expectations of their discourses. This should be supported by discussions of the expectations of students' academic language based on an introduction to the lens of language as a social semiotic and through activities facilitated by language experts. Opportunities for collaboration (as described in 9.3.3.2) should follow.

In addition, EAP lecturers themselves should share their personal expertise across the institution (for example, by sharing the model of EAP expertise developed in Chapter 6). They should also share their personal expertise of disciplinary discourses and practices amongst their EAP colleagues for their continued professional development.

9.3.3.4 Curriculum development

Curriculum development is the fourth sphere of activity for which my research provides recommendations. Firstly, curriculum level language integration should be considered at course level because it allows for recycling of concepts and deepened understandings to be developed by students. The dual hit of language and content should be planned because it both saves time in a busy curriculum and indicates to students the importance of language choices. Including the concept of language choice in work-based modules provides a rich resource for the consideration of different ways of using language for professional, academic, and personal audiences. Therefore, a focus on language should be included in both university-based and work-based modules. Furthermore, lecturers should consider threshold points where students may struggle across a course and these should be planned for. Moreover, too much assignment variation across a course should be avoided, so that students can learn from feedback and apply learning to future assessments. In addition, students should

be explicitly told the purpose of their assignments in relation to the objectives of their whole course, because understanding the purpose can help them to communicate their ideas. Finally, reading should be scaffolded into the curriculum design to support students' reading stamina, their ability to identify and analyse textual features, and their use of effective reading strategies.

9.3.3.5 Enhancing pedagogic practices

The final set of recommendations I make relates to the area of pedagogic practices – learning, teaching, and assessment. Fundamentally, to embed language development students should be introduced to the range of language choices available to them, for example, through the consideration of how our choices can change depending on the audiences we communicate with. Students should be taught how to analyse texts, including models of student writing that demonstrate effective language use. The link between effective language choices and the epistemological traits of disciplines should be made explicit. Developing confidence should be acknowledged as a key part of academic identity and language development and activities should be undertaken that support students to identify specific areas that they feel that they need to improve. In addition, students need to have risk-free, timely and relevant subject-specific practice from which they are provided with feedback and opportunities to reflect, including learning from mistakes. Time, timing, and frequency of language development opportunities should be carefully considered as well as who is in the room at the time of the provision, for example, is team-teaching possible? Different models of delivery should be decided locally. However, it should be acknowledged that standalone, online resources should be resisted, because without integration many students would be unlikely to access them.

These five broad areas of recommendations emanate from the single case studies and the cross-case analysis which form this research. I now evaluate the research using the criteria outlined in Chapter 3.

9.4 Evaluation of the research

First, I evaluate the quality of my research using Tracy's (2010) "Eight 'big-tent' criteria for quality" in qualitative research, under the criteria: worthy topic, rich rigour, sincerity, credibility, resonance, significant contribution, ethical, and meaningful coherence. I then indicate the limitations of this research.

Worthy topic – Current perspectives on the role of language in learning are both topical and important. The Office for Students (2022) report indicates that the issue of language assessment in higher education is current in the United Kingdom, and the recent literature on developments internationally that I have cited, both show that the topic is not limited to the UK higher education context.

Rich rigour – My thesis includes detailed description of my data collection and analytical process, not to be used for replication, but to provide a detailed audit trail that can inform readers who are interested in developing similar studies.

Sincerity – I have presented my own positionality from the beginning of the thesis, and to participants when I've collected data. Specifically, my multiple positions as an insider-researcher, EAP lecturer and middle manager have shaped the data collection methods and my epistemological stance.

Credibility – Throughout the thesis, I have provided concrete details and presented participants' voices as a way of allowing readers a detailed perspective on the interactions and my analysis of them. In this way I have provided a credible series of case studies and multiple case analysis.

Resonance – Feedback from my journal submissions provides one source of evidence that my research resonates with colleagues in similar contexts. For instance, an anonymous reviewer of the article based on EAP lecturers (chapter 6) wrote, "I so enjoyed reading this paper. As an academic developer and writing specialist - not quite EAP but connected to that context and work - I recognised myself in many of the practitioner comments and in your analysis" (Teaching in Higher Education – although following a split decision the journal ultimately rejected the article, I submitted it to the International Journal of English for Academic Purposes which published it). I also

make several recommendations that are directly transferable to institutions and stakeholder groups in settings where explicit language development would enhance learners' language choices.

Significant contribution – My contributions to knowledge from this research are: methodological, analytical, and implementable (see section 9.6).

Ethical – I have followed ethical practices throughout the research process from an initial inquiry into my own positionality, through the ethical process of the university including informed consent, design of data collection methods and reporting of findings in published journal articles. One of the challenges of insider research arose during the third case study due to the close working relationship between myself and the subject lecturer. We became so accustomed to conversing collaboratively that the final semi-structured interview included the subject lecturer asking me for my thoughts, all of which I had to exclude from the data.

Meaningful coherence – Throughout the process of undertaking this research, I have maintained a close focus on the research question from the design of the data collection methods to the analysis of the data and to my final recommendations. I have worked to align my constructionist epistemology with a constructivist view of language that acknowledges the importance of social interaction within educational contexts. In the literature these terms (constructionist and constructivist) are sometimes used interchangeably, and they are contested (Gergen, 2023). For example, Guba and Lincoln (1989) use "constructivism" to describe the epistemological paradigm that I subscribe to in this research, while Gergen (2023) uses "constructionism" to refer to the same concept. Part of my work has been to unpick the use of the terminology and clarify how the concepts relate to my process. Having explored this terminology, I can state that I subscribe to Gergen's (2023) usage.

Beyond this set of external criteria, there are additional points which I would recommend other researchers consider if undertaking a similar project. As the design of this study was to investigate in depth, using a multiple case study bounded by the quintain of a single institution, there were limitations in terms of the numbers and variety of stakeholders from whom I could collect data. Firstly, whilst this study focussed on stakeholders who could influence the implementation of language

development provision, there is clearly an important space for the voices of students to complement this work, although their voices are represented vicariously through the reflections of the subject lecturer in Chapter 7. To gather students' voices, alternative data collection methods would need to be designed that could garner students' accounts of language development which may also not be explicit to them. Studies such as Lillis (2001) and her data gathering "meetings to talk about texts" (p.6) would be useful in taking the study further by asking how students account for the development of effective language use in higher education contexts. Moreover, it would be interesting to undertake collaborative (action) research projects with subject lecturers from different disciplines who may have very different expectations of effective language use, pedagogical approaches and who work with students from different demographics.

In addition, the genesis and the reporting of this study has been influenced by the format of a PhD by Article. In particular, it influenced the writing up process for each single case, as each one needed to be a complete report and discussion in line with the expectations and interests of different journal audiences. Whilst this creates an unusual structure for a thesis, the process has allowed for close attention to be paid to each individual case, before the cross-analysis commenced. It also ensured that the analysis of the data was grounded and iterative.

9.5 Recommendations for future research

In terms of recommendations for future research, there are three main pieces of work that I recommend, and two methodological points based on my research.

Firstly, I recommend extending the research remit to include students who can provide insights into their own understandings and experiences of developing effective language use. More positivist-leaning researchers may wish to undertake studies with randomisation and control-groups with pre- and post- intervention tests either on students' performance (ie. speech or writing) or their explicit knowledge about effective language use in their discipline(s). However, in line with the philosophical approach in this study and the focus on obtaining in-depth understanding of stakeholders' experiences with a close eye on the impact of data collection techniques

and relationships between researcher and participants, I recommend case studies of small groups of students from different disciplines. Examples of data collection could include a variation on the listening rooms project (Heron, 2020) in which pairs of friends respond to prompts about their experience; or think-aloud protocols in which students are invited to talk through decisions they have made in producing texts (written or spoken) (e.g. Lillis, 2001).

The second piece of work that I would recommend for future research is to extend the number of collaborative action research projects between EAP lecturers and subject lecturers. Such collaborations would necessarily vary in the research questions and methods they use but could be co-ordinated as a way of investigating the experiences of a wider range of disciplinary experts.

Building on this, it would be extremely interesting to investigate the experiences of stakeholders in different universities (e.g. “Russell Group”), although a similar insider approach would require the researcher to consider their own positionality and the best ways of gathering data.

In terms of recommendations for research methodologies, my main recommendation pertains to the explicit variation of data collection methods in response to a researcher’s positionality, particularly when doing insider-research. Power relations, in particular, should be explicitly considered. Although it is complex to design separate data collection methods with different stakeholders, this study demonstrates that doing so can maximise participants’ responses and lead to rich cross-case data. The consistent approach to data analysis that I took provides a unifying framework for the consideration of that data. The basis for this recommendation is the recognition that structural and personal relationships in which we function, should form part of the considerations we grapple with as research designers.

My second methodological recommendation is the use of the variation of the nominal focus group that I developed in the second case study, with EAP lecturers (Chapter 6). This combination of preparatory tasks to elicit descriptions of successful teaching and learning activities followed by focus group discussion and a further task to elicit a hierarchy or concepts (in this case about language development) revealed both details of practice and underlying beliefs about that practice. This combination of tasks could

be used in multiple scenarios where the researcher's goal is to elicit participants' discourses of their practices.

9.6 My contribution to knowledge

Overall, this research offers several new ideas. I summarise my contribution in two areas: method and knowledge.

Contribution to method

The blend of data collection methods based on my own positionality and relationships with participants is, to my knowledge, unique. The variation of the nominal focus group used in Case 2 is novel. The multiple case study investigation into accounts of language development based on a range of stakeholders has not been done before. Through the application of the lens of language as a social semiotic I offer a new analytical approach to investigate the perspectives of each stakeholder group.

Contribution to knowledge

Most importantly given the goal of my research, a framework for discussions amongst different stakeholders based on their accounts of language development has not existed before. The practical resource put forward in Figure 9.2 has the potential to start conversations that could enhance curricula by demystifying academic language and cultures for students from all linguistic and cultural backgrounds and replacing the pedagogy of osmosis with an aligned curriculum integrating the expansion of students' language choices and repertoires. The practical resource has the potential to inform more equitable and accessible curricula. One outcome of this could be a more democratic higher education environment for speakers for whom academic language is not their mother tongue.

9.7 Reflection on my learning through the process

Personally, I have learnt from each case study and over time I have developed a more informed appreciation of the different priorities of each stakeholder group. I have also been acutely aware of the shifting sands on which this study has taken place. My insider position means that I know that the academic leaders who I interviewed have

all moved to different roles or even different institutions. EAP lecturers have continued to extend their understandings of different groups of students' needs. The subject lecturer has been moved to teach on different courses, and only some of her curricular developments remain in place in the modules which we collaborated on. She has taken some of her ideas forward with her into other courses. The act of undertaking this research has prompted further discussions within the institution, and I intend to share my recommendations with colleagues, initially to gain feedback, and then to put into practice.

The research design enabled me to gain confidence as a bricoleur in qualitative research. I began the PhD process wanting to investigate language in learning through people's stories but lacking confidence in my ability to present an academic argument based on purely qualitative data. I now feel confident in the rigour of this approach. I have deepened my interest in education policy and I have gained confidence as a publishing researcher of higher education. I particularly learned from conflicting feedback on Article 2 (EAP lecturers) that questions of language learning and language experts are highly contentious and worthy of further research. As with all case studies, there are inevitable limitations in that findings cannot be said to be generalisable. Nonetheless, I hope that voices of the different stakeholders are well-represented and that the research resonates with colleagues in institutions where the role of language in education is taken for granted.

I have also come to more fully appreciate that the concept of power within an institution is a construct which stakeholders buy into. Given the surprising revelation in Case 1 that the academic leader participants I interviewed were themselves unclear where the power to implement change lay, I recommend all involved to play an active role in influencing change. Those with expertise should feel empowered to implement changes within our practices in line with the resources we have available to us. I would advise other colleagues not to wait for a top-down approach, but to proceed with the work of collaborating, extending, and sharing our expertise.

9.8 Summary

In this chapter I have presented recommendations that can be made based on the findings of this research. I summarised the differences between stakeholders' perspectives as demonstrated in the data to create a backdrop to the recommendations. I then presented a comprehensive list of all recommendations from the multiple case study and a paper that could be used to enable discussions about a university-wide approach to integrated language development. I evaluated the research and highlighted my contribution to knowledge – in the discipline, and finally, my own.

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Appendices

Appendix 1 Sample information form for participants (Academic leaders)

Sheffield Hallam University

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION (Case 1)

Title: Language development in academic contexts

I would like to invite you to take part in a study about students' language development in academic contexts. For the purpose of this research, the term "language development" means the changes in language choices made by students as they become acquainted with and confident in the discourses of their discipline and of the university in general. This includes meaning making in oral and written forms. The overall study will be comprised of a number of case studies, and one case study is with academic leaders.

This study is part of my PhD research at Sheffield Hallam University. In addition to my role as a doctoral student, I am also a Principal Lecturer in the Sheffield Institute of Education. In my PL role, I am hoping to use my research to inform the development of a language development framework in the University.

For this study, I would like to interview you both about your own experiences of producing successful academic work (see examples below), and about the ways in which your faculty promotes the language development of students. In order to talk about the first point, your own experiences, I would like you to share an effective piece of professional/ academic communication (eg. a lecture, presentation, thesis, article, policy document) that has given you a sense of achievement. You could bring this to the interview, or describe it.

The interviews will be audio-recorded and transcribed. Prior to analysis you will have the opportunity to review and if necessary revise the transcript as you feel is appropriate. Only I, and my PhD supervisory team will have access to the recordings and transcripts. The data will be kept securely on a password protected computer. It will be analysed for the purposes of the single case study, and the multiple case study which will be the culmination of my PhD research. I intend to publish my findings in articles in peer-reviewed journals, and present them at relevant conferences. The whole study will take between 4-6 years. I will be happy to send you copies of any publications that result from the study and I will email you at an address of your choice (see consent form) at the point of publication. The data collected will be confidential, in that no names, role titles or institutional details will be used. However, it may be that identity might be assumed given the small sample size, and the author's biodata. Participation is voluntary and you can withdraw up until the point when you return the transcript to me.

If you have any questions about the study, please do not hesitate to ask me at the email address overleaf.

If you have any concerns about the study, you can contact my lead supervisor, Dr Diana Ridley, d.m.ridley@shu.ac.uk .

If you are happy to continue with the interview, I will arrange a time and place that suits you.

If you agree to participate, these are some of the questions I will ask you:

- Can you describe your role as assistant dean for academic development?
- I asked you to share with me an effective piece of professional or academic communication that has given you a sense of achievement. Can you describe what it is?
- Why do you feel it was successful?
- Why does it give you a sense of achievement?
- Can you think of an example of academic or professional communication that has been less successful?
- Why do you think it has been less successful? What would you change? Why do you think that happened?
- If a course leader or a colleague in your faculty told you that there were concerns about a student's communication skills, or language use, what policies or mechanisms are in place to support that course team?
- Do you think those mechanisms are effective?

- Do they work for all levels: UG, PG, Doctoral?
- Is there anything different that you would like to happen?
- What do you think are the barriers to students developing their language use in academic contexts?
- What enables students' language development in academic contexts?

Best regards,

Karen Nicholls
PhD student, Sheffield Institute of Education, Karen.Nicholls@student.shu.ac.uk
Principal Lecturer, Sheffield Institute of Education, ext. 3351

Appendix 2 Sample log from case study 3, subject lecturer

Thoughts about coding Subject Lecturer Case

How do Subject Lecturers account for the development of students' language use in academic contexts?

21 August 2020

I have coded the 4 interviews with SP on paper, then gone back to edit the transcripts. That required a large number of interruptions, false starts and repetitions to be included. Each transcript length probably grew by 50%. Now I'm inputting the coding onto NVivo. I've printed out the codes (nodes) used in Cases 1 (academic leaders, blue) and 3 (EAP lecturers, orange) to refer to. These are additional codes that I have added based on SP's interview, and the overall research question above (red).

make clear links	refers to the importance of making explicit links (module content to case study) in (student's) academic discourse (student's presentations in this case)
use of assessment criteria	refers to students and lecturers referring to assessment criteria
**opportunity for dialogue	I amended this node definition to become broader, so from what it was, "refers to situations where there is an opportunity for dialogue between communicator and recipient," to include dialogue between students and between students and lecturers. I note that I called this "discussion" in the EAPL article.
clarity	refers to the importance of communication being clear
focussed on the mark	refers to the situation when students are focussed on their mark or grade
not just description	refers to the need to write more than a description, eg. analysis or reflection
application of learning	refers to writer or speaker applying what they have learnt to their practice, eg. recommendations
succinctness	refers to the importance of communicating succinctly
process	refers to the process of planning and producing a piece of communication COULD RENAME PLANNING?? 24/8/20 Is this what SP calls the fundamentals of academic literacy?? CHECK
different pedagogy	refers to having someone deliver a session with a different [EAP] pedagogy NOT SURE IF THIS IS THE RIGHT NAME (seen as a positive)
***time in learning	I added that this includes the amount of time needed to learn something, and the timing of delivery being very important
demystification	refers to activities that lead to students being able to understand academic practices and discourses
identity	refers to the fact that identity eg. age, gender, profession, ethnicity might affect how we see ourselves in higher education
subject lecturer development (from interview 3)	refers to professional development of lecturing staff around academic language development
impact 25/8/20	refers to the impact of any input on effective language use

student autonomy	refers to the process of giving students choices and autonomy in developing their language
differentiation	refers to the provision of differentiated learning opportunities for language development

22 August 2020

I wonder about making a new code called "breaking genres norms", because SP talks about the assignment missing the step of a research method. I put the quote into "assignment variation", but I think that could be the important point. At the moment I've chosen not to include "breaking genres norms" because I haven't written about genres per se. I still feel uncomfortable that "genre" can seem too fixed or rigid, and I don't think many of the assignments being requested are that fixed.

I think I might be putting longer sections into each node allocation.

GO BACK AND HAVE A LOOK AT EARLY CODED TRANSCRIPTS FOR COMPARISON OF WORD LENGTH OF CODED SECTIONS - How would this affect my analysis?? Maybe it wouldn't 25/8/20.

?? SP talks about the lack of confidence amongst her students and how it could be influenced by class, gender, age, work role - is that identity - is that learner differences? What is the difference between those? I suppose I could have different motivation, or different language experiences, that would come under "differences", but identity is about my self - how I see myself. CHECK ON HOW I AM GOING TO USE THE TERM IDENTITY - maybe Lillis? Or the article about changing identities over time. Add Identity as a new node.

24 August 2020

Interview 2 of 4, p.17 pre-edited notes: "… your beliefs about how children learn best for example … not just your beliefs … there are other people that have done research … so you can speak with authority and confidence in a practise environment …"

Is this the point about an applied university? Is this where discourse / language development comes in? We learn the discourse(s) of our course, and then we take the language and the knowledge, decouple the formal academic discourse and re-introduce the knowledge in our workplace discourse. Now we are an expert in our workplace. Audience of communication becomes really important. This is the point that Business school colleague made about the difference between an academic report and a business report.

There's a section on p.4 of interview 3 which I don't know how to code. It is SP giving an overview of how well the whole cohort of students did. She mentions there were some students who seemed to get the hang of being more concise, but the overall sense, is that it is difficult for her to make a categorical link between the sessions we did and any improvements. The suggestion of any improvement being linked to sessions we did are very tentative. There was a section like that in interview 2 I remember. HOW SHOULD I CODE THOSE IN RELATION TO MY RESEARCH QUESTION - How do subject lecturers account for the development of effective language use? …. tentatively?????

25 August 2020

For the question above - I'm going to add a code - IMPACT - referring to the any impact of any input.

GO THROUGH ALL TRANSCRIPTS LOOKING FOR IMPACT

Paper copy, interview 3, page 7 - it has just struck me how much curriculum design has changed from year to year across this collaboration. First, we increased the number of sessions from one (experimental) to five, and five again, then in the future down to three. The module order has changed (remember that in year 1, we worked with year 5 students, and the final year, they were level 6, top-up students). The modules were run back to back in the first year that SP led the top-up, then the dissertation module was made long and thin. The assignments are now being changed from having 2 vivas in 2 modules (helpful for students not to have to learn a new genre), to having a viva and now an e-presentation. So there is constant modification: changing staff, changing students, changing delivery (putting two degree cohorts together), changing assessment formats. How can language development enter that whirlwind, except as an embedded feature that the course leader, module leaders and lecturers feel they want to prioritise??

STUDENT AUTONOMY - New code to go back to check for - student autonomy (eg. in EAP lecturers' focus groups)

It's interesting that in SP's interview 3, this is presented as an opportunity (for students) and a risk ("It's very hard though … with a course that wants people to do so much in so little time.")

cf - the reading that I've been doing in Kramsch's book - if we change the metaphor of language learning, from input - to affordance - then it is perhaps more realistic. Input probably only goes in when someone is ready, or can perceive a use for what they are hearing.

I've put mention of Studiosity as "central people who can provide support" - although it's interesting that it is a) outsourced, and b) on a time-limited contract. Mmmh. I suppose we all are.

Interview 4 with SP p.17: As a lecturer, SP generally only gets the opportunity to have a dialogue with a student to give them feedback if they fail. That can't be true for everyone - but for those who do get the opportunity for dialogue. Why does this system persist in making the learning cycle monologue-based? Time and money? Does spoken recorded feedback feel more dialogic? It's all a bit like writing an email. You don't know what mood someone is in when they receive it. If they bother to read it at all (or just look at a grade) or understand it. And then if feedback is not relevant for the next assignment, how can the student hold on to that feedback information? Something else that has to be designed into a course curriculum.

I'm thinking about the codes - why have I used the term "learner readiness", but "student autonomy"? Should I change all "student" to "learner"??? THINK when I can look at all the coding.

NVIVO CHANGES 3rd September

1) I added a Case profile called "Lect1". I opened the case profile attributes and put in SP's data. I also added an additional role: "Subject Lecturer" in the role attribute choices.

2) I created a new Set called "Subject Lecturer" and I dragged and dropped the four files from Files>Case 2 Subject lecturers into that set.

I've created two visual comparisons using: Explore, Query Wizard
to compare node frequency (but don't want to think about numbers)

1) between all three case studies

Q:\Research\SIoE\PhD_KarenNicholls\NVivo data\Playing with data from NVivo\Comparing nodes in all three cases.pdf (need to remove duplicate node lists)

and

2) between the four interviews with the Subject Lecturer.
Q:\Research\SIoE\PhD_KarenNicholls\NVivo data\Playing with data from NVivo\Comparing nodes across four SL interviews.pdf

PUTTING CODES TOGETHER INTO THEMES 5th January 2021

I have used the figure of semiotic mediation in learning and assessment scenarios to group codes into themes. I looked at the data in relation to:

LSM – lecturer's semiotic mediation

Refers to data relating to the subject lecturer's effective communication to students.
This was the original focus – was the communication in SP's feedback clear?

*SSM – students' semiotic mediation

Refers to data relating to students' effective language use or when they weren't successful
This was the implicit goal across all cycles – to improve students' effective language use

C – curriculum

Refers to data relating to suggestions and thoughts about the curriculum (and pedagogy?).
This was one of the outcomes of the study – changes in the curriculum.

*DK – discourse knowledge

Refers to data relating to expectations of the discourses of Education and Early Childhood in academia

SI – student identity/ being

Refers to students' interiority (?)
This appeared in the first phase (student being) and became a key focus of the later interventions (confidence)

It is difficult to distinguish sometimes between student semiotic mediation and discourse knowledge. I've put data that relates more to abstract generalisations (this is what we expect students to do) into DK, but where students specifically do or don't do things into SSM.

Appendix 3 Example of analytic memo during EAP lecturer case coding process

new nodes and definitions

noticing	refers to the use of activities that enable students to notice key aspects of language use	
metalanguage	refers to the use of metalanguage (language that describes patterns or abstract concepts about language, eg. semantic wave, move)	
strategies	refers to the use of strategies in teaching that enable students to try a certain way of approaching some kind of language use (eg. note-taking whilst reading)	
moves	refers to the concept of moves in certain genres	
semantic waves	refers to the use of semantic gravity waves in teaching language use	
abstraction in language	refers to the use of abstract concepts (grammatical metaphor)	
flow	refers to how ideas in continuous language flow from one to the next	
structure	refers to the idea of a piece of communication (genre) having a certain structure	
challenging expectations	refers to students challenging why things are expected to be communicated in certain ways	
awareness raising	refers to a range of activities that raise students' awareness of language or strategies	= teaching something new
research-based	refers to decisions about teaching being based on research	
experience-based	refers to decisions about teaching being based on experience	
scaffolding	refers to the process of building supportive, incremental stages in the learning process	
source use	refers to the use of sources in academic discourse	
learner readiness	refers to the idea that learners have stages of learning, and therefore are more or less ready to learn something	

teaching issues	refers to issues/ factors that affect teaching in the classroom	
who's in the room	refers to who is in the room during teaching and how that influence teaching and learning	
feedback from lecturers	refers to feedback from subject lecturers	
group size	refers to how many students are in a group	
joining a knowledge community	refers to the idea that students are beginning to join a wider disciplinary community	
demonstrating criticality	refers to the importance 0f students demonstrating criticality	
structure	refers to the structure or organisation of a text	
student behaviours	refers to student behaviours that can be observed that relate to learning (eg. of strategies)	
learner differences	refers to learner differences that can influence learning	interacts with learner readiness, visual learning, motivation, etc
work produced	refers to work produced by students that demonstrates learning has taken place	

3rd March 2020

I amended mode of communication to include visual (re: students working on poster design, FG2). I also amended it to represent the lecturing mode (FG1).

Query - are a discipline thing and course or discipline specific too similar - should they be amalgamated into one code?

Thoughts

Some of the EAPLs' descriptions of their hierarchies are difficult to code because they create a narrative about how ideas fit together (eg. EAPL4, p41 on cream paper). Therefore, the existing codes aren't helpful for these descriptions. If I code these sections to the existing codes, it misses the higher level of relationship. I have therefore created categories HOW, WHAT and CONTEXTUAL CONSIDERATIONS so that those descriptions can fit. However, whilst some EAPLs give an overview, others go back into detail about individual codes (eg. EAPL5, p46). For those, I have reverted to former codes (eg. confidence).

For the narrative

There are some interesting things I notice while I've entered the codes onto NVivo. For example, there are several notable debates about what metalanguage means and whether we should use it (FG1); paraphrasing and whether we should teach it (FG2). There are some inconsistencies in the data too. For example, EAPL3 talks about avoiding metalanguage, but introduces new terminology (What's the POINT) rather than talking about given and new information, because linguists use the existing terminology differently (given and new). Does it matter if linguists use it differently? Wouldn't it be better to use something that is at least recognisable to linguists (even if we have to define how we are using it) than to create a whole new terminology (point). This is EAPL3's research area, though so probably quite important to them.

Paraphrasing vs summarising has been discussed in quite an animated discussion. The question is whether paraphrasing sentence by sentence (decontextualised) is useful, as it can lead to "mangled sentences" that miss the point being cited. The suggestion is that summarising is a better skill to practice.

Time and prioritisation of vocabulary in a syllabus has also been raised and discussed. Time seems to be felt by some as a real hindrance to achieving the goal of the teaching, both full-time language courses, and in-sessional embedded sessions.

If you can't change something, change the way you look at it. What if we said - these are our priorities. These are the activities that we want to set in place because they have long-lasting positive influences on students. What would they be? Some were suggested, eg. scaffolding the idea that sources are cited for a reason in academia.

4th March

Work produced new node - I put EAPL9's comment that she knew the activity had been successful because she saw work that students had produced and edited improve. I have checked how I coded EAPL4's comment about seeing students' writing demonstrating learning, and I've added the code in there. Previously I had gone straight to the higher level of EVALUATION. Now it will be on both. Hopefully when I apply categories to all the codes for this case, it will automatically be there.

CHECK WITH NVIVO TUTOR

I notice that as I'm coding, sometimes I code without reverting to my paper coding, and then I am happy to see that I have got good intra-rater reliability. I am coding in the same way now as I did last summer. If anything, though, I notice that my coding areas are slightly larger. I am including more peripheral data now perhaps, because I am thinking of looking at the coded data later, and I want to remember what things are referring to. I'm also adding [details], for example "they [art students]" (EAPL8, p6, FG3), so that I can read the data easily later.

It will be interesting to look at combinations of nodes. I think METALANGUAGE and LANGUAGE CHOICES will give good insights into the WHAT of language development.

NVIVO QUESTION - How can I compare the WHAT, HOW, etc, with the EFFECTIVE LANGUAGE USE mega-category - should I look at CATEGORY and MEGA-CATEGORY levels?

Appendix 4 Information sheet for EAP lecturers

Sheffield Hallam University

PARTICIPATION INFORMATION SHEET (Case 3)

Title: Language development in academic contexts

I would like to invite you to take part in a study about students' language development in academic contexts. For the purpose of this research, the term "language development" means the changes in language choices made by students as they become acquainted with and confident in the discourses of their discipline and of the university in general. This includes meaning making in oral and written forms. The overall study will be comprised of a number of case studies, and one case study is with EAP lecturers.

This study is part of my PhD research at Sheffield Hallam University. As you know, in addition to my role as a doctoral student, I am also a Principal Lecturer in the Sheffield Institute of Education. In my PL role, I am hoping to use my research to inform the development of a language development framework in the University.

For this study, I would like to hear about a teaching activity you have used that you feel has been successful in developing students' language for an academic context. If you are willing to join the study, I will ask you to complete two tasks: filling in a form describing the teaching activity and sending this to me one week before our meeting (see attached); and joining a focus group in which you and other EAP lecturers share and discuss your activities.

The focus group will be audio-recorded and transcribed. Only I, and my PhD supervisory team will have access to the transcripts. The data will be kept securely on a password protected computer. It will be analysed for the purposes of the single case study, and the multiple case study which will be the culmination of my PhD research. I intend to publish my findings in articles in peer-reviewed journals, and present them at relevant conferences. The whole study will take between 4-6 years. I will be happy to send you copies of any publications that result from the study and I will email you at an address of your choice (see consent form) at the point of publication. The data collected will be anonymised and pseudonyms will be used. However, complete anonymity will not be possible because you will be known to the members of the focus group. Participation is voluntary and you can withdraw up until one week following the focus group.

If you are happy to join this research, I will arrange the focus group time and place to ensure that all interested can take part. If you have any questions about the study, please do not hesitate to ask me at the email address below. Please read the back of this sheet for information on what to do if you have a complaint.

Best regards,

Karen Nicholls, PhD student, Sheffield Institute of Education, Karen.Nicholls@student.shu.ac.uk
Principal Lecturer, Sheffield Institute of Education, ext. 3351

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However, all University research is reviewed to ensure that participants are treated appropriately and their rights respected. This study was approved by UREC with Converis number ER9749594. Further information at https://www.shu.ac.uk/research/ethics-integrity-and-practice

You should contact the Data Protection Officer if:	**You should contact the Head of Research Ethics (Professor Ann Macaskill) if:**
• you have a query about how your data is used by the University • you would like to report a data security breach (e.g. if you think your personal data has been lost or disclosed inappropriately) • you would like to complain about how the University has used your personal data DPO@shu.ac.uk	• you have concerns with how the research was undertaken or how you were treated a.macaskill@shu.ac.uk
Postal address: Sheffield Hallam University, Howard Street, Sheffield S1 1WBT Telephone: 0114 225 5555	

Appendix 5 Sample consent form (Academic leaders)

Sheffield Hallam University

PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM (Case 1)

TITLE OF RESEARCH STUDY: Language development in academic contexts

Please confirm that you have read the Information Sheet and that you consent to participating in this study by the ticking the boxes below.

	YES
1. I have read the Information Sheet for this study and have had details of the study explained to me.	☐
2. My questions about the study have been answered to my satisfaction and I understand that I may ask further questions at any point.	☐
3. I understand that I will have the opportunity to review and revise points on the transcript.	☐
4. I understand that I am free to withdraw from the study up until the point when I return the transcript, without giving a reason for my withdrawal and that I am free to decline to answer any particular questions in the study without any consequences to my future treatment by the researcher.	☐
5. I agree to provide information to the researchers under the conditions of confidentiality set out in the Information Sheet.	☐
6. I wish to participate in the study under the conditions set out in the Information Sheet.	☐
7. I consent to the information collected for the purposes of this research study.	☐
8. I understand that even though the data will remain confidential, complete anonymity cannot be guaranteed because of the small sample size.	☐
9. I understand that anonymised, aggregated findings may also be used to influence the development of a language development framework in the University.	☐

Participant's Signature: _____ **Date:** _____

Participant's Name (Printed): _____

Contact details: _____

Researcher's Name (Printed): _____

Researcher's Signature: _____

Researcher's contact details:
Karen Nicholls
PhD student, Sheffield Institute of Education, Karen.Nicholls@student.shu.ac.uk
Principal Lecturer, Sheffield Institute of Education, ext. 3351

Please keep your copy of the consent form and the information sheet together.

Appendix 6 Transcription protocols

Transcriptions serve different purposes according to the research goals and methods (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007). For example, conversation analysis requires a detailed transcription including pauses, overlapping speech, intonation and more (see Jefferson, 2004, for a detailed glossary). The goal of this research is to gather different stakeholders' perspectives of the development of effective language use. The method used for analysing data is thematic network analysis (see section 2.6 Data analysis). For that reason, decisions about transcription were based on the representation of spoken language in order for themes to be analysed. Below is my analytic memo outlining the decisions made during the transcribing process.

Thoughts about transcribing 13th September 2019 **reviewed August 2020

All of the data from interviews and focus groups was initially transcribed by a paid transcriber. This was followed by intensive editing of the transcriptions that involved at least one full listening of each audio file with certain sections listened to multiple times. For example, if two people were talking at the same time. This process yielded an opportunity to recall the interview or focus group and listen closely to the content.

In line with the research questions and methodological approach, the goal of each transcription was the recording of verbal content. At times this involved adding information based on my memory of the interview or focus group, the audio recordings, and when relevant, visual information, eg. photographs. Examples include: in Academic Leader 1's transcript, I added when they were being humorous, as this was not evident from the written word, but was clear on the audio tape. In EAP Lecturer 1 I noted that a certain name referred to a lecture theatre, and I might not have remembered this later. In EAP Lecturer 4 I noted that "it" referred to something that they had been pointing at/ talking about, as it was also ambiguous in the written word.

Specific transcribing issues that required careful thought included:

i) deciding whether hesitations, repetitions, or interruptions should be included. In all cases, I decided that all speech on the recording should be represented, so "Um" or "Uh" are included in the transcripts where they were spoken. The disadvantage of this is that coding has to sometimes cross many lines, and many people talking. In citing excerpts from transcripts, these hesitations and interruptions are often indicated by ellipses (...) within the quotations. **On checking the transcriptions of the interview with the subject lecturer (which were chronologically the first interviews that I did), the interruptions/ aizuchi were very very frequent, and I decided to only keep the "OK"s and "Yeahs" where they fitted between pauses in the interviewees' speech. A number of aizuchi which were simultaneous with the participants' speech are therefore omitted. (6th August 2020)

ii) deciding how to indicate an interruption, rather than just consecutive utterances. I did this with a final dash (-) and an introductory dash (-) of the interrupted person's speech. In the focus group, in particular, this demonstrates a high level of interaction amongst the participants, which was the goal of using that format.

The next step, initial coding on paper, inevitably highlighted small numbers of typographic errors, for which I then listened again to the original recordings and, if necessary, or amended the transcripts.

At this stage, I uploaded the edited transcript onto NVivo. In only one or two cases (Academic leader 3) did I need to further amend errors on the transcript inside NVivo, and on the equivalent filed word document.

12th August 2020

I also reduced sentence length to single utterances, to ensure that the ending of chunks of meaning were captured.

Appendix 7 Code book from whole thesis after cross-case analysis

Whole thesis final code book (from NVivo)

Name	Description
a discipline thing	refers to differences due to disciplinary background of academics or students
abstraction in language	refers to the use of abstract concepts (grammatical metaphor)
academics not confident about ALL	refers to academic lecturers not feeling confident about how to teach academic language and literacy skills
affective factors	refers to affective factors that relate to communication, eg. fear, confidence
anxiety	refers to a feeling of anxiety
confidence	refers to the significance of confidence as an aspect of language use
discomfort	refers to a feeling of discomfort when communicating
dynamics	refers to ways in which interpersonal dynamics affect communication
enjoyment	refers to a feeling of enjoyment
excitement	refers to a feeling of excitement or anticipation
fear	refers to a feeling of fear when communicating
interest	refers to the feeling of being interested
relaxed	refers to a feeling of being relaxed
reluctance	refers to a feeling of reluctance
self-worth	refers to a feeling of self-worth
student motivation	refers to the importance of students being self-motivated to develop their own langauge use

Name	Description
surprise	refers to people being surprised
tedium	refers to feeling of boredom
vulnerability	refers to a feeling of vulnerability
affording spaces	refers to people (staff/students/others) giving time and space for sharing and learning from each other with a goal of enhancing learning
application of learning	refers to writer or speaker applying what they have learnt to their practice, eg. recommendations
assignment variation	refers to the range of assignment types given to students
assumptions	refers to institutional/ staff assumptions about what students' abilities, knowledge and skills are or what staff's abilities, knowledge or skills are
audience of communication	refers to the importance of considering the audience of a piece of communication
awareness raising	refers to a range of activities that raise students' awareness of language or strategies
central people who can help	refers to central staff who are available to develop students' language use
clarity	refers to the importance of communication being clear
cold communication	refers to unsolicited, unexpected communication that may take the respondent by surprise
collaboration	refers to the ability to collaborate with others or work in a team in order to achieve a certain outcome
complexity of communication	refers to communication which is complex to achieve, for example, because multiple stakeholders are involved
consequences of communication	refers to consequences of communication which extend beyond the content of the communication (eg. people's roles removed sent a message to departments about their own autonomy)

Name	Description
content of communication	refers to the specific importance of the content of the communication
currently available support	refers to provision for language development that was available at the time of the interview
curricular flexibility	refers to the possiblity of course teams having different choices in the delivery of their course
curriculum design	refers to the importance in curriculum design in developing students' language use
demonstrating criticality	refers to the importance of students demonstrating criticality
demystification	refers to activities that lead to students being able to understand academic practices and discourses
different pedagogy	refers to having someone deliver a session with a different pedagogy
differentiation	refers to the provision of differentiated learning opportunities for language development
difficulty	refers to a certain task/ job being difficult to complete
discipline and course specificity	refers to the specificity of disciplines or courses and the needs of students or practitioners in them
EAP provision	refers to current or future provision of English for Academic Purposes for students
empowering others	refers to the work of empowering others to achieve certain tasks
experience-based	refers to decisions about teaching being based on experience
feedback on communication	refers to feedback given formally or informally to the communicator
feedback on teaching and learning	refers to feedback from on teaching and learning

Name	Description
flow	refers to how ideas in continuous language flow from one to the next
focussed on the mark	refers to the situation when students are focussed on their mark or grade
group size	refers to how many students are in a group
identity	refers to the fact that identity eg. age, gender, profession, ethnicity might affect how we see ourselves in higher education
impact	refers to the impact of any input on effective language use
institutional responsibilities	refers to institutional or staff responsibilities towards students' learning and development
integrated language provision	refers to the integration of language development provision and subject provision
joining a knowledge community	refers to the idea that students are beginning to join a wider disciplinary community
L1 L2 differences	refers to comments that highlight differences between L1 and L2 speakers
L1 L2 similarities	refers to comments which highlight the similarities between L1 and L2 speakers
language and literacy needs gap	refers to a gap between students' existing language and literacy competencies, and the competencies needed to succeed at university
language choices	refers to specific language choices made
language related issues	refers to the fact that language use in academic is interrelated with other issues, eg. retention, attainment, etc
learner differences	refers to learner differences that can influence learning
learner readiness	refers to the idea that learners have stages of learning, and therefore are more or less ready to learn something

Name	Description
local people who can help	refers to course or department specific staff who are available to work with students on their language development
make clear links	refers to the importance of making explicit links in academic discourse
make it happen	refers to a desire to make changes happen
metalanguage	refers to the use of metalanguage (language that describes patterns or abstract concepts about language, eg. noun, semantic wave, move)
mode(s) of communication	refers to the importance of the mode (written/ oral/ email/ lecture/ visual) of communication
unsuccessful mode of communication	refers to unsuccessful communication due to the mode chosen
not just description	refers to the need to write more than a description, eg. analysis or reflection
noticing	refers to the use of activities that enable students to notice key aspects of language use
opportunity for dialogue	refers to situations where there is an opportunity for dialogue, eg. between communicator and recipient, or between students or student and lecturer as part of learning process
no opportunity for dialogue	refers to situations where there is no opportunity for dialogue between communicator and recipient
personal experience	explanation for learning is based on personal experience
persuasion	refers to the importance of persuasion in order to achieve tasks
policy	refers to a policy about language or communication in learning
practice	refers to the opportunity to practice a certain type of communication

Name	Description
process	refers to the process of planning and producing a piece of communication
purpose of communication	refers to the importance of achieving something through communication, eg. to influence behaviour
questionning lecturers' expectations	refers to the process of asking lecturers' what their expectations are - both in order to discover what language objectives to focus on, and as part of the teaching process (eg. in team-teaching)
reading	refers to the need for students to be able to read to succeed at university
reflection	refers to formal or informal opportunities given for reflection
relationships	refers to the how relationships influence communication and communication influences relationships
relevance	refers to perceived relevance of academic language and literacy provision
research-based	refers to decisions about teaching being based on research
resources	refers to resources that can be used to develop language use
responsibility - learning, teaching and assessment	refers to being responsible for learning, teaching and assessment
responsibility - quality assurance	refers to being responsible for quality assurance processes
responsibility - student experience	refers to being responsible for student experience
rhetorical view of language	refers to a view of language that includes an understanding of the importance of author, audience and purpose

Name	Description
scaffolding	refers to the process of building supportive, incremental stages in the learning process
scaling up	refers to the size and scaling up of provision
semantic waves	refers to the use of semantic gravity waves in teaching language use
sense of achievement	refers to a sense of achievement after successful communication
source use	refers to source use in academic discourse
space of communication	refers to place or space where communication takes place
specialist support	refers to the idea of specialist support (as opposed to development)
staff engagement	refers to staff engagement in the development of language use
statement of purpose	refers to the explicit statement of the purpose of communicating, eg. We have had a problem with X, and we are going to improve it by Y, this means that you need to do Z.
strategies	refers to the use of strategies in teaching that enable students to try a certain way of approaching some kind of language use (eg. note-taking whilst reading)
structure	refers to the structure or organisation of a text
student autonomy	refers to the process of giving students choices and autonomy in developing their language
student behaviours	refers to student behaviours that can be observed that relate to learning (eg. of strategies)
student comm vs leader comm	refers to similarities or differences between communication by students and communication by leaders

Name	Description
student engagement	refers to the importance of students being engaged in their learning
subject lecturer development	refers to professional development of lecturing staff around academic language development
succinctness	refers to the importance of communicating succinctly
systemic functional linguistics	refers to ideas of Halliday's theory of language (eg. field, tenor, mode, interpersonal, ideational, textual)
technical view of language	refers to a view of language that focuses on technical aspects such as grammar
threshold	refers to the idea of there being a minimum threshold level (in language) at which students will start to cope with studies
time in communication	refers to situations where time plays an important role in how and why communication takes a certain form
time in learning	refers to the importance of time in the ability to teach and learn something - this includes the amount of time, and the timing of activities or information delivery
tone of communication	refers to the tone of a particular piece of communication
troubling teaching issues	refers to issues/ factors that affect teaching in the classroom
university processes	refers to processes that take place across the university
university-faculty relationship	refers to the relationship between an individual faculty and the whole university
use of assessment criteria	refers to students and lecturers referring to assessment criteria
use of IT	refers to the use of IT
using models	refers to the use of models of academic language (eg. student writing) to exemplify key aspects of target texts

Name	Description
visual learning	students learn through visual stimuli
who's in the room	refers to who is in the room during teaching and how that influence teaching and learning
work produced	refers to work produced by students that demonstrates learning has taken place

Appendix 8 Extract of grid of data coded from case 1 to separate academic leaders' talk about their own language development and students' language development

Grid analysis of Case 1 Participant 1

(RQ: How do [academic leaders] account for the development of effective language use in higher education?)

SELF/ OTHER ACADEMIC LEADER'S LANGUAGE USE	STUDENTS' LANGUAGE USE
nodes linked to positive elements (page number on NVivo print out)	
• **collaboration** ("I work very close with [specific colleagues] … and then through the people who work with me with the Quality Leads") 1/31("they're [SEM] the ways in which I get things done") 2/31 ("that's been a team effort") 16/31 • **empowering others** (role: "empowering those closest to students and staff to get change done and kind helping shape ideas") 2/31 ("empowering the academic community") ("trying to give autonomy, but equally accountability") 3/31 ("trusting our academic communities to kind of own their own subjects and students") 4/31 ("seeing them [academic departments] feel that they genuinely own their stuff" 8/31 ("the rest of us are just there to support") 8/31 ("I've actually devolved a huge amount to departments") 16/31 • **persuasion** ("the only way I can get them to stuff is by kind of persuading them it's the right thing to do" 2/31 ("that involved work with all the PVC Deans and my opposite numbers to kind of persuade them because there was quite a lot of resistance") 12/31 may need to change wording for anonymity • **university faculty relationship** ("liaising between the faculty and the university") 3/31 • **university processes** (aim to localise responsibility) 3/31 ("look at the change in some of the … changes") 3/31 ("I was the person who overturned that") ("discussing the policy [of verification]") 6/31 ("It's something about protocol that works I think… formal governance meetings don't' ever make decisions and they shouldn't…") 13/31	• **local people who can help** ("finding people within subject groups") 22/31 ("more of just the day to day academics who … knew a little bit … I don't think you need to know a huge amount … to make some change") 22/31 ("part of it is about finding people within subject groups, departments, who in effect can be developed, equipped to do the work") 22/31 ("What we could do was work with tutors to … recognise the problem [of the needs gap") 24/31 • **empowering others** ("it's about finding enabling ways. It's back to my point about enabling.") 25/31 ("what kind of things and ways can we work with staff, so that they would feel more confident and feel they had some kinds of tools at their disposal.") 25/31 • **language related issues** ("it's connected to so many things") 22/31 ("we did a load of work … on retention and progression, a lot of it was about English for academic purposes") 22/31 ("the students who were weaker on … [EAP] were the ones we were los[ing]") 22/31 IS THIS POSITIVE OR NEGATIVE - IT'S NOT AN ENABLER • **make it happen** ("we need to kind of hold her feet to the fire") 22/31 ("we should be a bit more directive … active …) 22/31 ("we need to put a bit of institutional faculty kind of weight behind it" (22/31 ??? ("we need to think much more radically…") 29/31 • **EAP provision** ("I would like to … get that [EAP provision] mainstreamed") 21/31 ("load of work … on retention and progression … a lot of it was about English for Academic Purposes") 22/31 ("He did some work with students to

- **content** ("let's not bombard her with every bloody think under the sun") 5/31 ("They don't operate at that level of detail") 13/31 ("to get rid of quality committees") 14/31
- **time in communication** ("I spent quite a bit of time") 7/31 ("I spent two years just trying to rip that stuff up") 11/31
- **mode of communication** ("let's not bombard her with every bloody think under the sun") 5/31 ("I sat in a meeting where they were discussing the policy") 6/31 ("face to face and on email, just putting little ideas into her head") 7/31 (talk) ("I went to the university secretary … and just said we should just abolish these committees") 12/31 ("I did talk to people in the right order") 12/31 ("nobody should go into a meeting not knowing what I'm going to say") 13/31 ("I went to see… [the] registrar … and the other PVC Deans") 13/31 ("formal governance meetings … are about confirming decisions that have been made through discussion beforehand") 13/31 ("the paper I wrote") 14/31 ("one to one meetings") 17/31 ("took papers through Senate") 18/31
- **audience** ("there's some things a course leader needs to know, there's other things that she doesn't …") 5/31 ("'Colleagues, there's a lot of money sitting round this table'") 6/31 ("putting little ideas into her head") [PVC] 7/31 ("I did talk to people in the right order") 12/31 ("I work on the no surprises principle") 13/31 ("They don't operate at that level of detail") 13/31 ("not putting people in spaces where they're going to get asked questions that they don't know the answer to") 13/31 ("I exaggerate for effect a lot" 14/31 ("shock effect") 15/31 ("a bit left field") 16/31
- **personal experience** ("I kind of live on the motto of 'Don't ask permission, You can always apologise afterwards.'") 7/31
- **consequence** ("I was the person who overturned that") 6/31 ("[the PVC] wants to do it university wide") 7/31 ("I: So the sense of achievement is the message that kind of rippled out from it? R: Yeah" [about departmental empowerment]) 11/31 ("I got rid of all the faculty quality committees") 11/31 ("shock effect … 'Oh, Perhaps we could do it rather differently then.") 15/31 (I … got established projects for change and so on") 18/31
- **cold communication** ("not") 13/31

assess their English proficiency" = needs analysis) 22/31 ("[he] assessed what competences do you need to be able to read and study those [course materials]") 23/31 ("what kind of things and ways can we work with staff, so that they would feel more confident and feel they had some kinds of tools at their disposal.") 25/31

- **resources** ("if we could get [EAP provision] better supported, better resourced … academics who kind of knew a little bit… ") 22/31
- **academics not confident about ALL** ("what kind of things and ways can we work with staff, so that they would feel more confident and feel they had some kinds of tools at their disposal.") 25/31
- **empowering others** ("it's about finding enabling ways") 25/31
- **reading** ("[he] assessed what competences do you need to be able to read and study those [course materials]") 23/31 ("we need to get them to read more") 25/31 ("it's not just the practice of writing, it's exposure to significant amounts of text of different kind and there's no shortcut to .. reading the stuff… how do we get students to do that") 26/31 ("I read dozens of books every week … that's … how I got my good degree") 26/31 ("A lot of our students don't read and I don't know how we encourage them to do that.") 26/31 ("I'm thinking of trying to ... teach [politics] through novels and films, so they're going to have to read") 26/31 ("I'm thinking of trying to make the reading not just the academic reading") 26/31 ("everything I know has come out of a book") 27/31
- **personal experience** ("I read dozens of books every flipping week … that's how I got my good degree") 26/31 ("I know from my own children" [visual]) 26/31 ("I'm an old lag… everything I know has come out of a book") 27/31
- **visual** ("they're very much a visual…") 26/31 ("utterly a visual generation") 27/31 ("if it's a … more visual generation than we were … we need to kind of rethink how do we teach") 27/31
- **use of IT** ("… if in terms of information you can get most stuff out of Google … we need to rethink how we do teach") 27/31 ("I scarcely know how to use Google … 'just Google it Dad'") 27/31

• **tone** ("'Do you really think it's a sensible use of our time'") 6/31 ("'Wouldn't it be good if we could do this? … And if we did this, here's how it might work.'") to PVC 7/31 ([antagonistic is] not the tone of my conversations") 9/31 ("'bold'") 14/31 ("I exaggerate for effect a lot") 14/31 ("not that I'm rude or aggressive, but I do state things fairly boldly") 14/31 ("shock effect") 15/31 ("bold") 16/31 ("they're not being summoned to me.") 17/31 ("You don't say that to people in meetings, do you?") 20/31 • **affective factors** ("You can't have them being surprised") 13/31 • **confidence** ("'he's never afraid of a bold formulation.") 14/31 ("probably sometimes say too much.") 16/31 ("wouldn't have got changed … if I hadn't put my head above the parapet.") 16/31 • **space of communication** ("their offices") 17/31 ("I go to them") 17/31 ("the odd meeting … needs to be confidential) 17/31 ("I can't get out to Collegiate in two minutes") 17/31 • **reflection** ("by getting it badly wrong") 17/31 ("'don't do that one again'") 19/31 ("basically screwing up big time … before kind of forced me to reflect") 19/31 ("You don't say that to people in meetings, do you?") 20/31 ("that stuff blowing up in my face kind of forced me to reflect"*) 20/31 ("actually the way I've worked here has been far more effective") 20/31 ("unsuccess brings success … because we all make mistakes") 20/31 • **personal experience** ("by getting it badly wrong") 17/31 ("I just had not idea [about gap in text book language level]." 23/31 • **opportunity for dialogue** ("decisions that have been made through discussion beforehand") 13/31 (" also hearing properly") 19/31 ("I do listen") 19/31 • **personal experience** ("I read dozens of books every flipping week") 26/31 • **language choices** ("being fairly bold") 16/31 ("he asked it with a kind of clarity that I hadn't been able to muster" 28/31 • **purpose of communication** ("they [formal governance meetings] 're about confirming decisions that have been made through discussion beforehand.") 13/31 ("the paper I wrote … to get rid of quality committees") 14/31 ("just confirming") 14/31 ("I kind of tried to spearhead these changes") 18/31	• **audience of communicatio**n ("the ability to perform in front of an audience … interview panel… peers … voluntary group… performance … and settings") 28/31 ("definition of professions? … ideas of objectivity… represent others … if you had to write a report for a voluntary organisation or … script a lecture … not just as regurgitating text books or lectures back to us") 29/31 • **opportunity for dialogue** ("we need to think much more radically about what kinds of things do we do in classrooms … more interactive") 29/31 ("you engaged in a dialogue not a monologue") 30/31 • **responsibility - learning, teaching and assessment** ("we need to kind of rethink how do we teach given that's the world they live in") 27/31 ("we need to think much more radically about, so what kinds of things do we do in classrooms that are about [audience, awareness, being persuasive] ... that might actually help with engagement as well because they might see a point. It's more interactive.") 29/31 • **mode of communication** ("'What are the activities that you need to engage the student in that aren't lectures and seminars in order to develop them?'") 28/31 ("the ability to perform in front of an audience .. interview panel .. your peers … voluntary group") 28/31 • **assignment variation** ("if you had to report for a voluntary association or if you had to script a lecture for this performance … getting them into thinking about writing not just as regurgitating …") 29/31) • **student engagement** ("we need to think much more radically … that might actually help with engagement as well because they might see a point. It's more interactive.") 29/31

• **rhetorical view of language** ("I exaggerate for effect a lot") 14/31 ("has a kind of shock effect") 15/31 ("part of what I do is, … by being fairly bold") 16/31 ("I'm going to them, they're not being summoned to me") 17/31 • **feedback** ("I got some coaching … 360 surveys") 19/31 ("There was a comment from him…I thought 'I've cracked it … the other… 'He needs to learn that's not the way to do it'") 19/31 • **sense of achievement** ("So the sense of achievement is the message that kind of rippled out from it." "Yeah.") 11/31	
SELF/ OTHER ACADEMIC LEADER'S LANGUAGE USE	STUDENTS' LANGUAGE USE
nodes linked to negative elements (page number on NVivo print out)	
• **university processes** ("dysfunctional processes and procedures") 3/31 ("the insanity of verification") 5/31 ("dismantling") 6/31 ("I'm not going to wait for the university to get its act together before we do something sensible here" 7/31 ("I got rid of all the faculty quality committees… There were masses and masses of papers, just to receive.") 11/31 ("crazy sets of roles, bureaucracies") 11/31 • **cold communication** ("all staff emails") 5/31 ("no effort") 18/31 • **no opportunity for dialogue** (" 'I can't understand why … your faculty is resistant to registry communicating directly with your staff!' " 5/31 ("papers, just to receive") 11/31 (To note. Nothing to decide, nothing to discuss" 12/31 ("I realised this kind of chasm.. and I put no effort into closing it") 18/31 • **mode of communication** ("your inbox is just full of this exclamation marked crap") 5/31 ("I delete most of them and I'm supposed to read them.") 5/31 ("in a meeting … discussing 'What is it we're verifying'" 6/31 ("I just thought what the hell is going on here? There were masses and masses of papers, just to receive") 11/31 • **time in communication** ("Friday afternoon") 5/31 ("'there's a lot of money sitting around this table'") 6/31 ("it took me two years to overturn that policy") 6/31 [is time an enabler here?] ("For various reasons … me being away	• **currently available support** ("as of now very little") 21/31 ("I wouldn't know where to refer them") 21/31 ("I think it's a massive deficit if I'm honest) 21/31 ("most course leaders … wouldn't know") • **local people who can help** ("other than what I could do individually which would be very limited") 21/31 ("I wouldn't know where to refer them") 21/31 ("most course leaders… wouldn't know") 21/31 ("'do you know your students are here and your course is there?' I just had no idea") 23/31 ("'It's not our job to teach students English skills.' ") 24/31 ("And that's what we'll get from some of our academic staff") 24/31 ("you might not know anything about it [today]") 24/31 (" 'that's for the little people' ") 25/31 (CHECK NODE - responsibility student experience??) • **central people who can help** ("I wouldn't know where to refer them") 21/31 ("if you asked most course leaders what resources are available in the university to support that kind of activity they wouldn't know the answer") 21/31 • **make it happen** ("we haven't really done very much about it") 21/31 ("we should be a bit more directive active in trying to make that happen") 22/31 • **difficulty** ("there is a real difficulty about thinking how do you scale this stuff…" 22/31 • **scaling up** ("there is real difficulty about thinking how do you scale this

through injury … that didn't go ahead in the faculty") 7/31 • **tone of communication** ("exclamation marked crap") 5/31 ("fairly antagonistic relationship … there were even kind of almost stand-up rows") 9/31 ("destroy a PVC"*) 19/31 "'You've done nothing'") 20/31 ("being way too bullish, too arrogant*…") 20/31 • **content of communication** ("this is mad. … 'but what is a brief'") 6/31 • **difficulty** ("formal change process … some disquiet about it") 10/31 ("it was an unpopular thing to do and it was a little bit bruising and it certainly wasn't nice for the people involved") 10/31 ("it's going to sound negative but I think it was positive") 11/31 ("that just makes them defensive and it [communication?] can be difficult") 13/31 • **audience of communication** ("all staff emails") 5/31 ("took it for granted … staff didn't get it … didn't understand … didn't agree") 18/31 (I just kind of arrogantly assumed, or stupidly assumed, … that because I thought it was the right, sensible thing to do so would everybody else and they just didn't" (18/31) ("'do you know your students are here and your course is there?' I just had no idea.") 23/31 • **consequence of communication** ("chasm") 18/31 • **persuasion** ("I didn't put any effort at all into bringing staff with me")	stuff, … we're a big faculty, institution") 22/31 ("half the people in TESOL are not going to be able to do it") 22/31 • **resources** ADD??? current provision ADD??? ("half the people in TESOL* are not going to be able to do it") 22/31 ("in the short term there was bugger all we could do about it… half a million pounds more investment into making [the textbooks]") 23/31 • **reading** ("assessed what competences do you need") 23/31 ("students were here and the course materials were there") 23/31 ("Most of our students read very, very little") 25/31 ("I don't think we've put thought into how do we get students to do that [reading]" 26/31 ("a lot of the assignments we set can be done with very, very limited reading") 26/31 ("I'm not sure the last time the youngest one read a book.") 27/31 • **visual** ("they're utterly a visual generation. They really are and we can't just kind of moan about that.") 27/31 • **personal experience** ("I'm not sure the last time the youngest one read a book") 27/31 • **language and literacy needs gap** ("The students were here and the course materials were there and we just had no idea") 23/31 ("'do you know your students are here and your course is there?' I just had no idea.") 23/31 • **responsibility - learning, teaching and assessment** ("'It's not our job to teach students English skills'") 24/31 ("And that's what we'll get from some of our staff") 24/31 (it's not just around this topic, … it comes up with employability, 'It's not my job to do employability' … it probably is your job actually …if you're saying that in three year's time that's kind of problematic" 24/31 ("it's a defensiveness born of not knowing…") 25/31 ("in some cases it's just, 'That's not for me, that's for the little people'") 25/31 ("I don't think we have put thought into how do we get students to do that [read].") 26/31 ("they're utterly a visual generation… and we can't just… moan about that") 27/31 • **responsibility - student experience** ("'we're getting students who can't do this, this and this' … We have to work with what we get") 24/31 Is this maybe responsibility LTA?

	• **academics not confident about ALL** ("you might not know anything about it [today]") 24/31 ("a defensive born of not knowing") 25/31 ("But in most cases it's more defensive. I think it's 'I don't know what to do. I don't know how to do it.'") 25/31 • **no opportunity for dialogue** ("most of what we do is in effect monologue … we speak to them in lectures, they write back to us in essays") 29/31 ("That's not communication …") 29/31 ("'My students don't understand the written feedback …when they come and talk to me, they completely get it'") 30/31

* probably shouldn't use as a quote

Definition of language use from RF1

… the term "language use" relates to the language choices made by students that enable meaning making or "semiotic mediation" (Coffin and Donohue 2014) as students in higher education become acquainted with and confident using the discourses of their discipline and of the university in general (Biber 1996). Coffin and Donohue's (2014) work on "language as social semiotic" (LASS) acknowledges that language is just one of many components of communication. They also highlight the centrality of language to the meaning-making process (p258) and propose that an approach to learning that acknowledges the centrality of language, has the potential to "democratize education" (p36).

Thoughts:

I will need to amend this to include the wider discussion of [everybody's] development of language use.

Are academic leaders, just "post" students?? Are they experts? But the language use / communicative events they describe are different genres, have different purposes. What would Coffin and Donohue / Biber say about these nodes? Do I need a different framework? Do I need to consider a broader focus on communication vs language use??

Appendix 9 Analytic memo from cross-case analysis

Thoughts about shared codes

The twenty-one (nineteen if I merge modes of communication + unsuccessful and confidence + affective factors) shared codes are:

Shared nodes across three case studies	thoughts 10th August 2021
affective factors	important to understand aspects of "student being" and their effect on language development, links with confidence
audience of communication	rhetorical view of language understood as useful to explain variation in language choices
complexity of communication	appreciation for the multiple aspects that make up effective language use
confidence	viewed as important to develop in students in order to try out different language choices
content of communication	importance of getting the content right (linked to audience)
curriculum design	potential of language development to be included in curriculum, links with integrated language provision below
empowering others	shared motivation between stakeholders
feedback	importance, combined with reflection and dialogue, of a dialogic approach
integrated language provision	best way to develop language is for it to be embedded
language choices	knowing that there are multiple voices available to them increases students' possibilities – a form of empowerment
modes of communication	importance of using appropriate modes of communication (see unsuccessful mode below)
opportunity for dialogue	important in the process of learning
purpose of communication	rhetorical view
reading	importance of academic language being based on evidence and the crucial element of reading as part of knowledge building and lang devmt
reflection	key element of learning
structure	important aspect of successful communication in students' work [added 13th Nov 2022]
student engagement	appreciation of the importance of student engagement which can be variable
time in learning	significance of time as a key part in the learning process (links to feedback and dialogue) – always a resource issue
unsuccessful mode of communication	includes different aspects (e.g. monologic, wanting to express something but not appreciating audience's needs/ expectations)
use of IT	multiple uses as a source of info and a tool for learning and teaching
using models	commonly agreed way of approaching language development

empowering others		
LANGUAGE	LEARNING	LEARNERS
audience of communication	time in learning	affective factors
purpose of communication	integrated language provision	confidence
content of communication	opportunity for dialogue	student engagement
complexity of communication	feedback	
mode of communication (merged unsuccessful modes)	reflection	
language choices	reading	
structure [added 13th Nov 22]	using models	
	curriculum design	
	use of IT	

Table 6.1 (Shall I number things per chapter?) Shared codes across three stakeholder groups

Appendix 10 Table of recommendations

Based on all the findings and discussions across the three cases and the cross-case analysis the following table captures my recommendations.

Stakeholders	Specific recommendations from individual case studies
Academic leaders (Chapter 5)	1. Leaders need to clarify where responsibility lies for language development. 2. Contradictory discourses (e.g. technical vs developmental) should be identified and their implications resolved. 3. Subject lecturers should be provided with opportunities to discuss their expectations of students' academic language. 4. Risk-free, timely and relevant subject-specific practice should be given to students. 5. Students should be provided with opportunities (feedback and time) to learn from mistakes.
EAP lecturers (Chapter 6)	6. Local, specific disciplinary knowledge should be shared amongst EAP staff as part of their professional development. 7. EAP practitioners should express the full range of their expertise to non-EAP colleagues. 8. Subject lecturers should provide models of good student work which EAP lecturers can analyse in order to support the process of demystification of academic culture, language and practices. 9. Time, timing and frequency of language development provision should be carefully considered. 10. Students should be given enough time for practice including feedback and reflection. 11. Careful thought should be given to who is in the room during language development provision. 12. EAP lecturers should be encouraged to share our enthusiasm/passion for language. 13. Access to subject lecturers should be supported through standard university practices (e.g. course review, quality process, time allocations). 14. EAP lecturers' expertise in terms of metalanguage should be shared to enable talk between subject lecturers and students.
Subject lecturer (Chapter 7)	15. Subject lecturers should be given opportunities and time to increase their confidence in relation to academic language development. 16. Interdisciplinary collaboration should be supported as a way of leading to curriculum change and the expansion of pedagogic approaches. 17. Eliciting discourse from the subject lecturer should be the first step in language development provision. 18. Too much assignment variation should be avoided so that students can learn from feedback and apply it to future assessments.

	19. Models should be used as a way of exploring effective language use. 20. Explicit language teaching should be included in modules because it shifts discourses of deficit to ideas of language choices (a person's repertoire) Explicit teaching of language should present language development as a continuous expansion of language choices, not deficit. 21. Activities (such as the academic literacies confidence questionnaire) should be used to highlight and support the integrated development of an academic identity and the development of effective language use. 22. Students should be provided with the "dual hit" of integrated language and content focus because it saves time and indicates the importance of language choices. 23. Explicit integrated language development should be considered at a course level. 24. The lens of language as a social semiotic should be used as a way of introducing language development to staff.
Themes	Recommendations from cross-case analysis (chapter 8)
Empowering others	25. The ethos behind the development of integrated language provision should be to empower students and staff.
Language	26. Make the co-constitutive nature of thought and language explicit for those involved in the development of provision, e.g. Vygotsky quote. 27. The concept of "audience of communication" resonates easily with staff and students and should be used to help explain different language choices. 28. Subject experts need to make models available for linguistic analysis and then for sharing with student. 29. Metalanguage needs to be created between subject experts and language experts. 30. The link between language choices and disciplinary-based epistemologies need to be made explicit to students and staff. 31. Students need to be told the purpose(s) of their assignments. 32. The mode of communication (monologue, dialogue, written, spoken, email) should be considered in both communication and learning settings. 33. Students should be shown how to identify key linguistic features of a text (move to learning?). 34. Use models to highlight epistemological traits of disciplines. 35. Concept of language choices/ repertoire should be introduced in workplace-based modules and university-based modules. 36. Language experts, such as EAP lecturers, should be used to provide a catalyst for discussions of language and the development of shared understandings.
Learning	37. The "dual hit" of language integrated into content sessions should be standard practice.

	38. Language development moments should be local, relevant and timely. 39. Language development provision should be cyclical across a degree so that concepts are introduced, built on and expanded (deepened). 40. Students should be prompted to identify specific areas that they need to develop on their modules, e.g. through the use of confidence questionnaires based on an analysis of assessment details. 41. Threshold points (at which things get "sticky" for students) should be identified and planned for, based on subject lecturer experiences. 42. Subject experts should be supported in developing their explicit knowledge of the linguistic expectations of their discourses. 43. Opportunities for discussing language expectations, particularly in relation to assessments, should be provided to students. 44. Reflection on effective language use should be embedded as part of the language development provision. 45. Reading should be scaffolded into curriculum design. 46. EAP lecturers' knowledge should be shared between themselves and across the institution. 47. Different delivery models should be designed locally, for example, online resources, team-teaching. 48. Opportunities for collaboration should be supported on the understanding that curriculum changes may result from a starting point of understanding the language needs of students.
Learners	49. Confidence building should be acknowledged as part of language development. 50. EAP lecturers bring the concept of enjoyment to teaching language – this should be shared! 51. Different people in the room (ie. team-teaching) can be positive for students and should be encouraged. 52. Standalone online resources are unlikely to be successful and isolated resource banks should be resisted.

Table 10 Summary of all recommendations from individual cases and the cross-case analysis

I have written these recommendations deliberately as "should" statements in order to provide clear statements based on the research findings. However, I acknowledge that these recommendations have different potential audiences and that they emanate from a relatively small number of participants in a single institution and would need to be discussed rather than presented as a set of rules. They cannot be generalised across all departments or faculties or higher education institutions.