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The effect of coteaching on EFL secondary school students' engagement

NÚRIA VERGÉS
INS Narcís Monturiol (Barcelona)
nverges1@xtec.cat

SUSAN HERNÁNDEZ
INS Reguissol (Sta. Maria de Palautordera)
sherna26@xtec.cat

Núria Vergés, with a degree in English Language and Literature from the Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona, has been an English teacher in secondary and vocational education since 1997, responsible for educational projects on language learning, digital literacy, and a teacher trainer in the Generació Plurilingüe programme.

Susan Hernández holds a degree in English Studies from the Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona. She has been an English secondary school teacher since 2006 and is currently working at Institut Reguissol. She is also a teacher trainer in the Generació Plurilingüe (GEP) programme.

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Abstract

It is generally agreed that learner engagement is a key factor for successful language learning and that coteaching increases instructional options for all students. However, it is still to be confirmed if supportive coteaching strategies can enhance active learner engagement in the English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classroom, which is guided by a communicative approach. This article explores the level of engagement of a group of students involved in a series of activities conducted by co-teachers in an EFL classroom at a secondary school in Catalonia, and reports on some strategies co-teachers use to promote students' interaction in English and their commitment to the task. Video recordings and transcripts were analysed in terms of a) students' level of engagement and b) potentially related coteaching strategies. Findings indicate that engagement is present in the classroom in various ways, and that the differentiated supportive actions of the co-teachers contribute to higher levels of engagement when compared to the actions of an individual teacher. We argue that coteaching should be promoted in EFL classrooms in secondary education and included in teacher development programmes as a complement to other school practices.

Keywords: Learner engagement, language learning, coteaching, interaction, coteaching strategies

Introduction

Active learner engagement is a key concern among second language teaching educators, who try to figure out why students are not engaged in classroom activities and how to increase their motivation. If meaningful learning is to take place, students need to become engaged and commit to their own learning. Engaged students develop further and faster while student disengagement can lead to passivity and unfocused attention (Hiver et al., 2021; Mercer, 2019).

Engagement in learning has been broadly defined as a set of positive attitudes towards schooling on the part of students that includes interest, curiosity and attention and the degree of their participation in school activities that results from those attitudes. It represents an indicator of students' successful academic achievement and the likelihood of their completing secondary school (Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development, 2003; Willms et al., 2009). In the narrower context of the language classroom, engagement has been considered a perquisite for a positive learning experience (Philp & Duchesne, 2016). According to the literature, teachers' support and encouragement play an important role in increasing student engagement in learning activities. Teacher guidance is considered crucial to build the environments where student engagement is fostered (Hiver et al., 2021; Reeve, 2006). However, this is often a complex task for only one teacher, so when two teachers work collaboratively in the classroom, managing such a challenge is more feasible.

Previous research highlights the importance of student engagement and the benefits and effectiveness of coteaching. However, research regarding the relationship between engagement and coteaching is scarce. Therefore, there seems to be a need to explore strategies used by co-teachers to set up the necessary conditions to enhance students' engagement. In the present paper, we report on a coteaching experience where two teachers work cooperatively as facilitators of students' active participation in a secondary education EFL classroom. A series of tasks was designed and instructional strategies were planned so as to foster students' oral participation in the English class. Students were expected to actively participate in the decision-making process through conversation and group discussion. Teacher–student interactions were analysed to identify evidence of the various dimensions of engagement, as described in the literature.

In the following sections, student engagement and coteaching strategies are defined and classified. A coteaching innovation experience in the EFL classroom is reported in Section 3 as an example of classroom instructional practice which potentially enhances student engagement. Section 4 analyses and discusses data from a video recorded session, and the final section concludes with some reflections about the positive learning experiences which may take place when co-teachers act as facilitators.

Literature Review

As stated in the OECD report (2003), secondary school students need to feel that they belong to and are part of school in order to be engaged, have satisfactory outcomes and not withdraw from schooling. According to Willms et al. (2009), student engagement should be seen as not only supporting student achievement at school but also an important outcome in and of itself, since it is a critically important lifelong skill which may also have an impact on a student's professional future. Based on these assumptions, engagement is considered a key factor for academic success, which in turn leads to a more positive learning experience. It is worth mentioning that many different factors potentially affect student engagement in the foreign language class, such as a motivating style on the part of the teacher (Reeve, 2006), motivating class activities or the use of coteaching, among other things. This section will first define and classify student engagement, and then focus on coteaching as one of the elements that can contribute to a high-quality relationship between teachers and students, and thus facilitate students' self-generated motivation and their classroom engagement.

Defining Student Engagement

Defining the concept of engagement becomes problematic given the variety of definitions used in previous studies, the variation in the number and types of dimensions in which engagement operates, and the methods used to measure it. Nonetheless, there seems to be agreement on the conceptualisation of engagement as a multidimensional construct as well as on the connections between engagement, achievement and school behaviour (Appleton et al., 2008; Fredricks et al., 2004). Previous studies have focused on engagement as a way to cope with student disaffection, increase low levels of academic achievement and decrease high school dropout rates (OECD, 2003).

Researchers have explored different types of student engagement at school and described theoretical models based on two foundational components, (1) behavioural, which revolves around the idea of positive conduct, participation and involvement, and (2) emotional, which focuses on emotions (e.g., happiness, anxiety, interest or boredom), reactions to peers, teachers or school and a sense of belonging to an institution or group (Fredricks et al., 2004; Marks, 2000; OECD, 2003; Skinner et al., 2009). Other authors have converted this into a three-component model by adding a cognitive type of engagement which draws on the amount of psychological investment, motivation and thinking necessary to undertake an activity and develop self-regulation strategies (Fredericks et al., 2004; Helme & Clarke, 2001). Still others have suggested a fourth psychological component which includes academic, behavioural, cognitive, and psychological subtypes of engagement. Thus, according to Appleton et al. (2006),

> …**Academic** engagement consists of variables such as time on task, credits earned toward graduation, and homework completion, while attendance, suspensions, voluntary classroom participation, and extra-curricular participation are indicators of **behavioural** engagement. **Cognitive** and **psychological** engagement includes less observable, more internal indicators, such as self-regulation, relevance of schoolwork to future endeavours, value of learning, and personal goals and autonomy (for cognitive engagement), and feelings of identification or belonging, and relationships with teachers and peers (for psychological engagement) (p. 429)

In recent years, within the framework of self-determination theory (Ryan & Deci, 2000), an agentic dimension of engagement has been proposed by Reeve (2013), referring to how students proactively create motivationally supportive learning environments for themselves. Following this theory, engagement is seen as a concept which requires not only active student behaviour, such as effort, resilience and attendance, but also positive psychological connections reflected in students' inner motivational resources as well as supportive relationships between teachers and students in an academic environment (e.g., the classroom). Engagement is considered a classroom phenomenon which can be observed. It contributes to the students' learning process, and it is also an indicator of teachers' efforts to motivate their learners (Reeve, 2006).

Research has mainly focused on the more observable indicators that are related to academic and behavioural engagement, whereas cognitive and psychological indicators of engagement have not been addressed to the same extent (Appleton et al., 2006). Some authors, like Fredricks et al. (2004), have proposed non-hierarchical models of engagement, whereas others, like Finn (1989), have described hierarchical ones, where certain dimensions of engagement are more important than others. Nevertheless, there seems to be a consensus that the various dimensions tend to be interdependent, mutually influencing one another, and that there are different degrees of engagement along each dimension (Fredricks et al., 2004; Philp & Duchesne, 2016; Reeve et al., 2019).

Describing and Measuring Student Engagement in the Classroom

According to Reeve (2004, 2006), student classroom engagement refers to the intensity of a student's active involvement in a learning activity, especially in terms of behavioural intensity and the emotional quality of the student's involvement. Evidence can be either collected via direct observation or reported by students and teachers based on their perspectives. Behavioural features are more easily identified by direct observation, whereas psychological features are better identified by means of questionnaires, reports or interviews (Skinner et al., 2009).

According to self-determination theory (Ryan & Deci, 2000), students have inner motivational resources which can be enhanced or discouraged by classroom factors, the teacher's motivation style standing out as a crucial one. When teachers adopt an autonomy-supportive motivating style, they contribute to a high-quality teacher–student relationship and hence more engaged students (Reeve, 2006). Providing authentic instructional work has also been described as contributing substantially to student engagement and even attenuating negative influences, such as a student's adverse personal background (Marks, 2000). That is to say, when students perceive that the work they are doing is challenging and connected to the real world and when there is a positive environment which helps them with their learning, they are more likely to be engaged.

Within the context of the EFL classroom, Philp and Duchesne (2016) placed emphasis on attention (the cognitive dimension), as well as on the emotional, behavioural and social dimensions that support effective learning. The authors considered characteristics of engagement such as interest, effort, concentration, active participation and emotional responsiveness and provided a list of examples based on previous studies, arguing that "focus(ing) on one dimension, while useful, provides only a partial picture. We need to measure more than one dimension if we are to capture the full complexity of engagement" (p. 12). Based on these examples, one can identify instances of behavioural (e.g., positive conduct, attentiveness and participation), cognitive (e.g., self-monitoring and exchanging of ideas) and emotional engagement (e.g., interest, enjoyment, and relationships with teachers and peers) in a FL classroom.

Behavioural engagement can be seen as a dichotomy (on-task as opposed to off-task) or as "a continuum depending on degree and quality of participation, using amount of effort, persistence, and active involvement as indicators of this" (Philp & Duchesne, 2016, p. 8). Student levels of behavioural engagement can be analysed in terms of work-related behaviours (e.g., time-on-task, endurance in doing a difficult task, compliance with the classroom rules or attentiveness to task) or participatory behaviours (e.g., active participation in classroom conversations) (Fredricks et al., 2004). According to Böheim et al. (2020), hand-raising can be seen as an additional indicator of behavioural engagement which can be easily observed.

Classroom research has provided evidence of the relationship between hand-raising and student achievement, concluding that high-achieving students show higher levels of hand-raising (Böheim et al., 2020).

Cognitive engagement takes place when students are concentrated, and effort is devoted to solving a task. That is to say, teachers can identify cognitive engagement not only by listening to the students' verbal interactions, but also by observing their facial expressions and body positioning. Philp and Duchesne (2016) provided a list of indicators, previously described by Helme and Clarke (2001), such as students' verbal responses to teachers' questions, verbalisation of thinking, exchanging of ideas supported with arguments, completion of their peers' or the teacher utterances, making spontaneous reflective comments, giving directions and explanations to classmates in collaborative small group work or making eye contact.

Emotional engagement has been defined as "children's constructive, focused, enthusiastic participation in the activities of classroom learning" (Skinner et al., 2009, p. 493). By comparing students' and teachers' reports, the authors identified emotions like enjoyment, interest, boredom or frustration as key indicators of emotional engagement or disengagement. Students' feelings of connection or disconnection with their classmates may be indicators of emotional engagement, particularly while students are engaged in group work or other forms of classroom interaction, and they listen to their peers attentively, build on others' ideas and provide feedback to classmates. When this happens, learning is likely to take place (Philp & Duchesne, 2016).

Finally, engagement is a complex psychological process which implies various agents and is influenced by various factors, the teacher's motivation style being a crucial one to foster or diminish student engagement. Following this assumption, we will regard coteaching as an instructional strategy and analyse its strengths and weaknesses. In particular, we will focus on its contribution to higher levels of student engagement and active participation in their learning process.

Coteaching

Coteaching is defined as "two or more professionals delivering substantive instruction to a diverse, or blended, group of students in a single physical space" (Cook & Friend, 1995, p. 2). Such a partnership between two or more professionals can be a solution to the difficult task of dealing with the diverse student population often encountered in public schools (Friend et al., 2010). In addition, teachers should create lessons which are best suited for all students, bearing in mind their readiness, interests and background knowledge, that is to say, lessons which are engaging, well planned and well designed, following a differentiated rather than a one-size-fits-all instructional approach (Lawrence-Brown, 2004).

In EFL contexts, coteaching partnerships may be set up between a generalist teacher and an EFL teacher, an EFL teacher and a special needs teacher, or a native and a non-native English teacher. Whatever the case may be, these coteaching experiences are likely to have a positive impact on the students' learning outcomes because they bring the strengths of two teachers with different areas of expertise together in a manner that allows them to better meet student needs (Cook & Friend, 1995; Friend et al., 2010; Pratt, 2014). Additionally, the variety of methodologies used, and the reduced student-teacher ratio may result in higher teacher-student support and assistance, better guidance and instruction of the group and a chance for students to learn at a pace which is comfortable for them (Boland et al., 2019; Cook & Friend, 1995; Maduako & Oyatogun, 2015). Gifted and talented students as well as students who struggle to learn may benefit equally because more options can be created to make their learning more individualised (Cook & Friend, 1995). Wilson and Michaels' (2006) findings about students' perceptions of coteaching corroborated its affective benefits for students. Teachers used different styles and methodologies, and students could improve their skills because more help was provided to them. The students surveyed declared that participating in a two-teacher class contributed to a higher development of knowledge than participating in classes with only one teacher.

Together with the use of coteaching instructional strategies, a closer understanding of classroom discourse can help teachers improve their professional practice and thus contribute to "more engaged, dynamic classrooms where learners are actively involved in the learning process" (Walsh, 2011, p. 1). Classroom interactional competence (CIC) has been defined as "the teachers' and learners' ability to use interaction as a tool for mediating and assisting learning" (Walsh, 2011, p. 158). When the co-teachers enact CIC, there is a better understanding of classroom discourse and thus a positive impact on learning. When teachers interpret and react to the students' productions by providing assistance, facilitating interactional space or shaping students' contributions, opportunities for learning, which are determined by involvement, engagement and participation, broaden significantly (Escobar Urmeneta & Walsh, 2017). Coteaching can also provide a context for the meaningful use of the students' L1 in the foreign language classroom. There is evidence in the literature that a regularised use of L1 in FL instruction is beneficial for learners because L1 facilitates the construction of knowledge when linguistic and cognitive demands are high (Milán-Maillo & Pladevall-Ballester, 2019). Such a use of the L1 is bound to contribute to learner engagement as it facilitates task completion, boosts student confidence and ensures interpersonal relationships.

Research on coteaching and its impact on student achievement in foreign language learning is abundant (Boland et al., 2019; Dove & Honigsfeld, 2010). However, research on how coteaching might contribute to the increase of student engagement in EFL contexts is particularly scarce. The present study will analyse the use of some coteaching strategies and classroom discourse in an EFL class.

Types of Coteaching

Friend et al. (2010) distinguished six different approaches to coteaching: a) the *one teach, one observe* approach, in which one teacher leads large group instruction while the other gathers academic, behavioural or social data on specific students or the class group; b) *station teaching*, where instruction is divided into three non-sequential parts and students, likewise divided into three groups, rotate from station to station, being taught by the teachers at two stations and working independently at the third; c) *parallel teaching*, in which the two teachers, each with half the class group, present the same material for the primary purpose of fostering instructional differentiation and increasing student participation; d) *alternative teaching*, in which one teacher works with most students while the other works with a small group for remediation, enrichment, assessment, pre-teaching, or another purpose; e) *team teaching*, in which both teachers lead large-group instruction by both lecturing, representing opposing views in a debate and illustrating two ways to solve a problem; and finally, f) the *one teach, one assist* approach, in which one teacher leads instruction while the other circulates among the students providing support. Witcher and Feng (2010) claimed that "the value of the co-taught teacher is assumed to give an opportunity for more students to work in small groups or with individualised assistance when needed" (p. 15). The authors highlighted that while one teacher is giving instruction to the whole group, the other teacher can help students stay focused and resolve their doubts their questions.

Various coteaching approaches can be used depending on the students' needs, since each approach has its benefits and drawbacks. Regardless of the approach used, however, there is general agreement that with coteaching more instruction is given, students are more involved, and they have more opportunities to participate and to be engaged (Cook & Friend 1995). In co-taught classes, students' needs are approached in a better way. Segregation is reduced, hence students with difficulties are not isolated but given support, students' socio-emotional and interactional skills are improved, and students' troublesome behaviours diminish (Friend et al., 2010; Krammer et al., 2018; Strogilos et al., 2015, 2016). In a co-taught environment, a supportive teacher is important to determine students' engagement, which consequently leads to students' success (Reeve, 2006).

Although coteaching has been widely explored, it remains to be seen if it can boost student engagement within the EFL class. The present study will contribute to this inquiry by analysing teacher–student interactions as an indicator of student engagement.

Methodology

With the aim of exploring whether coteaching enhances students' engagement in the EFL classroom, a number of samples of teacher–student interaction from a secondary school EFL lesson were analysed. This section describes the context of the school where the teaching innovation experience took place and the participants taking part in it. It further describes the activities carried out and the teaching goals of the lesson under study, as well as the instruments employed, and the type of analysis conducted.

Context and Participants

This teaching innovation experience took place in a secondary school in a town in Catalonia, Spain that served students from locally born and migrant families from various backgrounds. The session was implemented in a group doing the fourth year of their secondary education. It was a typical mixed-ability class of 30 students aged 15 and 16 of whom 15 identified as females and 15 as males. However, on the day the lesson was implemented six students were absent from school for various reasons. With regard to students' home language (their L1), twenty were home speakers of Catalan or Spanish and the remainder home speakers of various other languages, primarily Moroccan Arabic, Rumanian and Portuguese. The session was implemented by two non-native EFL teachers. Teacher 1 (T1) was the usual English language teacher of the group, and teacher 2 (T2) was unknown to the students and joined the session for the purpose of the innovation experience. The group was heterogeneous, of varied social character, with different educational needs and personal problems that sometimes led to a lack of discipline and attentional difficulties. In this group, five students tended to show no interest in learning English, irrespective of their intellectual capacity, five other students had been diagnosed as having some sort of psychological condition, ten students showed a certain amount of difficulty in following English lessons and the remaining ten had a good command of English. However, only about half of this last group were regularly eager to participate in class or showed themselves to be highly motivated. The students' level of English ranged from low to advanced, compared to the official standards, and the materials that were used in class were designed accordingly so that students with different needs were able to carry out the tasks. Half of the students with a high level of English were taking extracurricular classes during the year.

The group under study had not had regular tuition regarding English lessons for three years, either because they had been taught by teachers who were constantly on sick leave or because they had focused only on grammar and sporadic vocabulary exercises. Therefore, the students had not had the chance to develop their communication skills on a regular basis. As a consequence, most of them lacked self-confidence and underestimated their potential. It is for this reason that when planning the lesson, our focus was to ensure that students would be engaged, since we assumed this is a necessary precondition for learning and achievement. We tried to be drivers of student engagement, create a co-teacher–student relationship of trust and manage the sessions in a way that would keep their behaviour under control. All in all, our aim was to establish an environment that would enable students to stay focused and feel comfortable and confident enough to interact in the L2.

Procedures

For this teaching innovation experience, one session of a Problem-Based-Learning (PBL) project which had originally been designed for solo teaching was revised and reworked, and the teaching materials redesigned to meet the requirements of a coteaching experience. The PBL project, led by English and technology teachers, was about creating a scale model of a camper van for the students' families. Many families in the town have vans, so allowing students to design the most suitable van for their own families was thought to be challenging and engaging, since it would be related to the students' personal experience and might be relevant to their own lives. The first part of the PBL project had been originally designed as a series of task-based activities in the EFL class to be performed in various sessions. The underlying intention was that students would need to use and thus learn the target language necessary to achieve the final outcome, the actual making and presentation of a scale model of a camper van for their own families. Session one and two were intended arouse students' interest in the PBL project. It was thought that these two sessions would be an ideal context to introduce coteaching strategies into the EFL class and then analyse whether coteaching fostered student engagement. Finally, it was agreed to introduce coteaching strategies only in session one, whereas session two would be conducted by only one teacher, who would guide the students through the process of arriving at a consensual decision and then giving reasons for their choice in an oral report.

Before implementation, it was agreed that the main teaching goals of session one would be to describe, compare and contrast different types of camper vans, analyse the pros and cons and discuss the most suitable choice. Students were expected to be actively involved in the whole process and to develop cognitive skills such as understanding oral and written texts, selecting key information, classifying, analysing and evaluating information. In order to accomplish these teaching goals, three EFL teaching-learning activities were designed. The rationale for all three EFL activities was to encourage student engagement and promote interaction in the L2 through collaborative work (Gibbons, 2015; Kagan, 2009). Activity one was a vocabulary brainstorming task, which would activate prior knowledge and was focused on the necessary content obligatory language (COL). The design followed a Kagan structure, namely Round Robin, in which everyone contributes to a common goal by creating a class word cloud. Activity two was a listening comprehension task divided into part A and part B, which was intended to develop students' thinking skills. In addition, it would foster peer support and encourage teacher–student oral interactions in the L2, whenever students felt the need for clarification or further information.

While the students were listening to the teacher, they would summarise what she was saying by filling in a graphic organiser together in small groups. In part A, T2 would present information, with students being encouraged to spontaneously interrupt the presentation whenever they required clarification or wanted to add a comment. In part B, T2 would explicitly ask students to pose follow-up questions and students would take turns to ask them. Activity three was a small group reading activity, which was aimed at fostering student-student L2 interaction and developing student thinking skills. It contained the first part of a Jigsaw Reading activity, which was expected to be completed during session two.

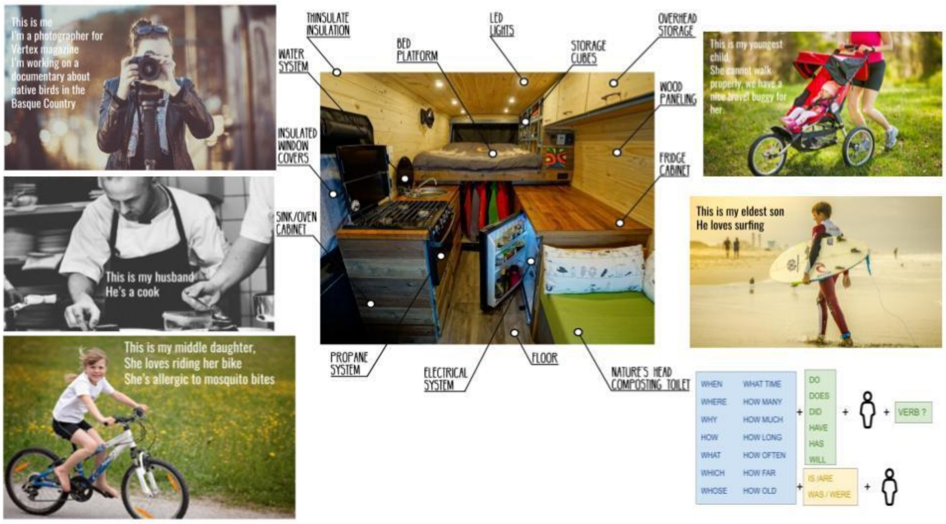
When planning the session, T1 shared relevant information about the participants and the school context with T2, and they then made joint decisions made as to about student seating arrangements in the classroom and what coteaching modalities they would use. With regard to how to arrange student seating, it was agreed that having students sit in groups around different tables would best facilitate interaction among them and foster peer support. It was believed that this arrangement would be better than having the students sit individually in rows facing the teacher at the front of the class. Concerning grouping, it was agreed that heterogeneous grouping, with students of varying mastery levels of English sitting together, would also facilitate peer support and allow students to learn from each other.

With regard to coteaching modalities, *one teach-one assist* and *parallel teaching* were chosen as potentially useful strategies for effective classroom management and the promotion of student engagement. In this particular classroom context, it was anticipated that challenges regarding whole class management would arise, namely students not following the lead teacher's instructions or students having disruptive behaviours. For activity one, the co-teachers did not anticipate that the students would have any difficulty understanding and following the activity instructions, so the assistant teacher would not be needed. As the lead teacher, T1 would make instructions understood by mimicking or drawing on the whiteboard and T2 would focus on observing. The co-teachers expected that most of the classroom management issues would arise during activity two, when T2 would take over as lead teacher, so she would need to make sure that all the students paid close attention to her and filled in the graphic organiser in small groups at the same time. Activity two had been planned as a complex activity, which involved attentive listening, comprehension of T2's speech, identification of key information and completion of a graphic organiser in groups. Therefore, the need for T1 to intervene as a support teacher was expected. T1 would offer support if students could not follow activity instructions and would manage students' disruptive behaviour if necessary. Meanwhile, T2 would focus on promoting students' output in the L2 and encouraging students to participate spontaneously in the conversation. For activity three, the co-teachers would follow a parallel coteaching modality, with both of them supervising small group work to activate students' output in the L2 and guide them through reading and discussion of a small text. Although some difficulties were anticipated, the co-teachers would take advantage of the reduced ratio that parallel coteaching offers.

During the session, the learning activities were successfully implemented as follows: Firstly, T1 led activity one, in which students watched a one-minute warm-up video about the steps involved in customising an old van and noted down some words describing the parts of a van which they could identify in the video. Secondly, each student contributed one word to a digital word cloud, an activity they performed using their computers. Finally, T1 presented the new vocabulary and compared it to the words suggested by the students in the digital word cloud. T2 observed but did not intervene. After that, T2 led activity two, starting out by introducing herself and the members of her family and giving details about why her family needed a van. The goal of this activity was to involve the students in a discussion about which type of van would suit the teacher's family best. T2 employed instructional strategies such as the use of body language, visual materials, and photos of her family members in order to make herself understood and draw the students' attention to the COL previously highlighted in activity one (Figure 1).

Figure 1.

Visual and Language Support



This is me
I'm a photographer for Vertex magazine
I'm working on a documentary about native birds in the Basque Country

This is my husband
He's a cook

This is my middle daughter,
She loves riding her bike
She's allergic to mosquito bites

This is my youngest child.
She cannot walk properly, we have a nice travel buggy for her.

This is my eldest son
He loves surfing

THINSULATE INSULATION
WATER SYSTEM
BED PLATFORM
LED LIGHTS
STORAGE CUBES
OVERHEAD STORAGE
WOOD PANELING
INSULATED WINDOW COVERS
FRIDGE CABINET
SINK/OVEN CABINET
PROPANE SYSTEM
ELECTRICAL SYSTEM
FLOOR
NATURE'S HEAD COMPOSTING TOILET
WHEN
WHERE
WHY
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WHICH
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WHAT TIME
HOW MANY
HOW MUCH
HOW LONG
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HOW OLD
+
DO
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DID
HAVE
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+
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VERB ?
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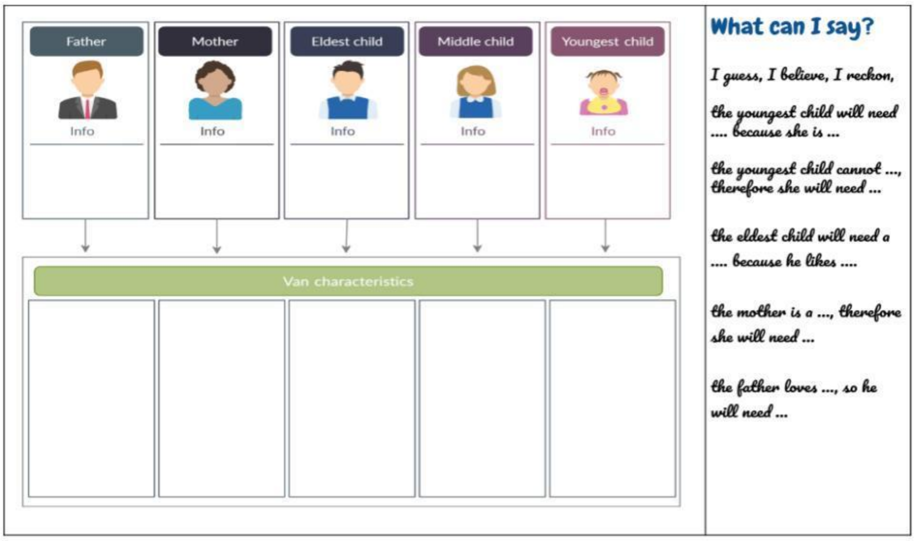
IS /ARE
WAS / WERE
+

T2 welcomed students to interrupt the presentation and ask follow-up questions at any time and encouraged their spontaneous participation in the conversation. Students were provided with a graphic organiser (Figure 2) to help them collect information about each of the family members and discuss in groups which information they considered useful to answer the question: '*Which van is the best choice for T2's family?*'

Figure 2.

Graphic Organiser and Language Support



Father
Info
Mother
Info
Eldest child
Info
Middle child
Info
Youngest child
Info
Van characteristics

What can I say?

I guess, I believe, I reckon,

the youngest child will need .... because she is ...

the youngest child cannot ..., therefore she will need ...

the eldest child will need a .... because he likes ....

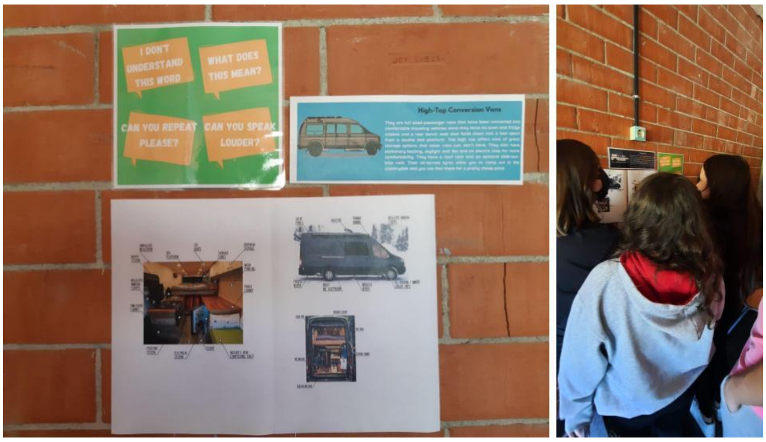
the mother is a ..., therefore she will need ...

the father loves ..., so he will need ...

T1 observed, circulated among students, and intervened to reinforce instructions, clarify content and manage disruptive behaviour. In the final part of the session, T1 and T2 led activity three as parallel co-teachers. Students were assigned the role of experts in a Jigsaw Reading activity. They were asked to stand up in a given order and gather at the assigned corners of the classroom to complete the group reading activity. Instructions were explained by T1, while T2 helped students find their correct groups and their allotted place in the classroom. In groups of 4–6 students each, they worked collaboratively to read a descriptive text about a type of van and make a list of pros and cons to answer the question: *'Is this van a good choice for T2's family'?* Students were provided with visual language support (Figure 3), namely an image of a camper van described in the text, a picture dictionary with nouns describing the parts of the camper van and useful sentences to ask classmates for help when reading the text collaboratively (e.g., '*I don't understand this word. What does it mean?', 'Can you repeat that, please?', 'Can you speak louder?'*).

Figure 3.

Jigsaw Reading and Visual and Language Support



One co-teacher monitored three groups and while the other monitored two. The co-teachers joined in the students' conversations to promote active participation of all the members of the group and students' outcomes in L2.

Both co-teachers made use of the planned instructional strategies to ensure students' understanding of the instructions of the activities, to achieve student–participation in the teacher-led activities and to foster student-output in the L2. The assistant teacher implemented instructional strategies to focus on work-related behaviours (e.g., time-on-task, compliance with classroom rules or attentiveness to task) whereas the lead teacher focused on participatory behaviours (e.g., active participation in classroom conversations). Both co-teachers also made use of instructional strategies to foster cognitive and emotional engagement by adopting autonomy-supportive instructional behaviours such as (a) listening carefully to students, (b) being responsive to students’ questions and comments, (c) providing opportunities for students to talk and allowing thinking time, (d) arranging seating and learning materials in a way that would facilitate active participation, (e) explaining the use, value and importance of the activities proposed in a way that justified the effort required, (f) accepting negative reactions to the teachers' requests for action and (g) using non-controlling language to manage disruptive student behaviour (Reeve, 2006).

During the lesson, a video camera on a tripod located at the back of the classroom was used to record the session. Moreover, whichever teacher happened to have the role of assistant and was therefore circulating among the groups of students used her mobile phone to record the interactions between the lead teacher and the students as well as the interactions among the students in the small work groups. Finally, when performing parallel coteaching, each co-teacher used a mobile phone to record the students’ participation in the small groups she was supervising.

Data Analysis

After the session, three video excerpts were taken from the full footage. The verbal content of each excerpt was transcribed for a detailed analysis of talk and paralinguistic features and all relevant non-verbal actions visible in the video were annotated based on conventions (see Appendix A) proposed by Jefferson (2004), with participants assigned a code to ensure anonymity. Two of these excerpts exemplify teacher–student interactions in a teacher-led activity where the *one teach, one assist* modality of coteaching is being enacted, namely activity two. The third excerpt exemplifies teacher–student interactions in small group work during activity three, where the teacher’s role is one of guidance and assistance in a parallel coteaching situation.

In order to clarify possible relationships between student engagement and the actions and words co-teachers employ to enhance it, the analysis of the video excerpts identifies both teachers’ and students’ behaviours in teacher-centred classroom discourse and explores a possible cause-and-effect relationship. Thus, the excerpts have been analysed on the basis of how the co-teachers adopt an autonomy-supportive style (Reeve, 2006), how CIC is enacted by the co-teachers (Escobar Urmeneta & Evnitskaya, 2013; Escobar Urmeneta & Walsh, 2017; Walsh, 2011), and what type of learner engagement, namely behavioural, cognitive and/or emotional is shown in the course of the activities (Böheim et al., 2020; Fredricks et al., 2004; Helme & Clarke, 2001; Philp & Duchesne, 2016; Skinner et al., 2009).

Analysis and Discussion

Our analysis of the transcribed data from Excerpts 1 and 2 mainly focuses on teacher–whole class interactions during activity two, which, as noted above, was conducted following the *one teach-one assist* modality of coteaching. It will be recalled that in activity two information was presented by T2 and students listened and summarised the information given using a graphic organiser. As indicated in the classroom ground rules, students were invited to raise their hands and interrupt the teacher spontaneously whenever they needed clarification to understand what was being said or extra information to complete the graph organiser. Students were also allowed to make free use of peer support within their work groups, even if this meant copying from a classmate's worksheet or using Catalan or Spanish to ask a classmate for help. They were also expected to ask T1 for support while she was circulating around the class. Students' active participation was analysed on the basis of the number and quality of students' questions and comments, as observable indicators of behavioural, cognitive and emotional types of engagement. The results are represented graphically in the classroom chart (Figure 4).

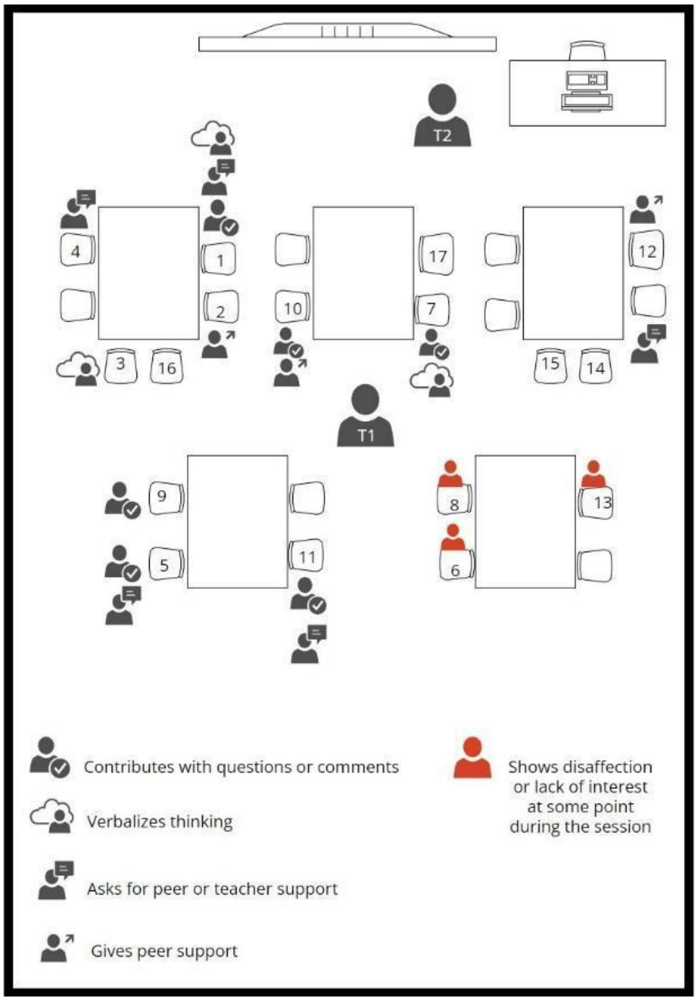
The teacher–small group interactions during activity three transcribed in Excerpt 3 reflect only the beginning of the activity. As noted above, the main purpose of activity three was to engage students in the collaborative reading of a text and the preparation of a list of pros and cons. By using this modality of coteaching, the student-teacher ratio was reduced, students received more individual attention and their active participation increased. In activity three, students' active participation in the activities has been analysed in terms of acceptance of the rules and the instructions to start the reading of the text, as observable indicators of behavioural engagement.

Special attention has been paid to the co-teachers' actions when initiating activity two and three, since teachers need to find a way to engage students in the activity with effort and motivation. It is precisely at this moment that autonomy-supportive teachers must adopt strategies and behaviours that nurture the students' inner motivational resources, communicate value and provide a rationale to enhance engagement (Reeve, 2006).

When initiating activity two (part A), the co-teachers worked cooperatively to give instructions, hand out materials and check students' readiness. Teachers complemented each other's words with gestures and accompanied them with actions. While T2 thanked students for their attention and explained the steps to complete the activity successfully, T1 handed out the worksheet, made sure the students had the materials ready to use and clarified individual doubts about the instructions and content of the worksheet. T2 used visuals, accompanied her utterances with hand and body movements, paraphrased and used repetition to make herself understood, and T1 circulated among all the groups to show her availability to the students. In keeping with an autonomy-supportive style, both teachers made a special effort to transmit a sense of challenge and explained why the activity was useful and worth the effort. Nevertheless, there is clear evidence (e.g., ongoing conversations) that, at some point, the class’s level of attentive listening was low, and some students were not following the classroom ground rules. In this situation, coteaching allows teachers to redirect student attention to themselves by supporting and complementing each other.

Figure 4.

Classroom arrangement and student participation in activity two. Numbers represent students


T2
T1
4
1
2
3
16
17
10
7
12
15
14
9
5
11
8
13
6
Contributes with questions or comments
Verbalizes thinking
Asks for peer or teacher support
Gives peer support
Shows disaffection or lack of interest at some point during the session

This process can be seen in Excerpt 1 below, where teachers employ what is known as a ‘gentle discipline’ strategy (Reeve, 2006) to ensure that the class is back on task: T2 stops talking to signal misbehaviour (Turn 1), and T1 then draws the students’ attention to one of the basic classroom ground rules, namely listening to classmates’ contributions (Turn 2). T1 does not reprimand students for their inappropriate behaviour, but instead explains why listening to classmates is the right way to do things, and T2 supports this decision by nominating a student and offering him the chance to pose his question again (Turn 3):

Excerpt 1 (Activity 2, part A)

1. **T2:** sorry I can’t hear you ((*T2 stops talking because classroom noise interferes with the presentation of content*))
2. **T1:** ((*draws students’ attention to compliance with of classroom rules*)) excuse me some people are asking questions they may be useful for everybody so can you listen to Adri, now? ((*chattering is reduced*))
3. **T2:** yes Adri can you say it again?
4. **ST1:** una cosa, però (.) què vol dir husband [jusban]?
5. **T2:** ((*makes eye contact with ST1*)) My **husband**? ((focus on the right pronunciation)) I’ll tell you don’t worry ((addresses the class)) does anyone know what **husband** means?
6. **ST2:** marit marit husband és el marit ((*2 more students raise hands, but are not selected*))
7 **T2:** yes he’s my partner we are married ((shows ring on her finger))
8. **ST3:** ah vale el seu marit
9. **ST1:** is your (·) ((points at visual support, cannot find the word)) is your husband ((wrong pronounciation by ST1 /jusban/)) =
10. **T1:** = **husband** ((corrects pronunciation))
11. **T2:** yeah he’s my husband this is Xavi ((points at visual support))
12. **ST1:** very famous no?
13. **T2:** ((smiling)) not really famous, he works in a restaurant in Barcelona
14. **T1:** ((smiling))
15. **ST1:** pues jo m’he equivocat
16. **T2:** it’s OK he works in a restaurant in Barcelona in the Gràcia neighbourhood he will be very useful on the holidays because there are no campsites available so we are staying in the campervan most of the time OK? so I will need him to cook for the family and he’s a very good cook right? so he needs lots of space for food beverages for all the things he needs to cook

17 **ST1:** ah OK

18. **T2:** this is my eldest son this is Eduard and he loves surfing, he is just 15
and so we thought ((facial expression))(0.1) the Basque country is a very good place for surfing that’s why he is coming and he’s very happy to come with us and he’s going to take all the surfboards with him so we need a lot of space in the van, as well. (0.2) yes, and this is my middle daughter OK? this is Laia.

19. **ST4:** com es diu? ((side conversation asks for peer support and cheats on a classmate in the work group))

20. **T2:** she loves riding her bike actually, the whole family, we love riding, and so we are taking our bicycles with us as well OK? the only problem with Laia is that she’s allergic to mosquito bites OK? so whenever we travel in summer we have some problems with that, so we need to be careful this is dangerous right?

21. **CL:** ((acknowledging voices))

22. **T2:** then this is my youngest ((points at visual support)) you saw my **eldest** my **middle** and my **youngest** child

23. **ST5:** Susan, mosquito que més? ((side conversation clarification request to TEA1 who is circulating among students))

24. **T1:** [mmm] mosquito screen

25. **T2:** this is Iria and as you can see she is very active but doesn’t walk yes that's why we take the travel buggy this is a travel buggy ((points at visual support)) it’s quite big but it’s very useful

26. **ST1:** com es diu?

27. **T2:** what’s her name?

28. **ST1:** yes

29. **T2:** her name is Iria this is Íria very young.

30. **ST6:** (   ) llamarse Íria ((side conversation. Laughing partly unintelligible comment in L1))

31. **CL:** molt bonic Íria Íria Íria ((surprised as if they hadn’t heard about the name before))

32. **T2:** Íria Íria that’s not a very common name

33. **ST7:** so beautiful name

34. **T2:** sorry? ((asks for repetition because she couldn’t hear ST7))

35. **ST7:** so beautiful name

36. **T2:** **it is** a beautiful name thank you

Furthermore, as shown in Excerpt 2 below, the co-teachers' complementary actions work successfully when they initiate the second part of activity two (part B), namely time for additional voluntary follow-up questions. Although T2 explains the use of asking further questions (Turn 1), there is clear evidence that the students' level of motivation to continue with verbal contributions to the activity is low because there are various side conversations happening simultaneously and two students clearly show their lack of interest (Turns 3-4). In this situation, both co-teachers work collaboratively to make students realise that the task they are asking the students to do is worth doing (Turns 5, 7, 8, 11, 13), and the outcome is that one student breaks the ice with a first question (Turn 14). For about five minutes, up to five different students (ST9, ST10, ST5, ST1 and ST11) interact, and nine questions are posed.

Excerpt 2 (Activity 2, part B)

1. **T2:** would you like to ask me anything else about my family and our needs so that you can take notes and get some ideas? ((*smiling*)) don't be shy! Just ask me what you'd like to know
2. ( ): don't be shy! ((*side conversation. student mockingly repeats T2's words*))
3. **ST6:** OK ((*signals with thumbs up in laissez faire attitude*))
4. **ST8:** OK McKay ((*laughs*))
5. **T2:** so you've got enough information? you don't need anything else?
6. **CL:** ( ) ((*unintelligible chatter*)) (0.5)
7. **T1:** guys no more questions? (0.3)
8. **T2:** you're happy with all the information?
9. **CL:** /yeah/yes/no/
10. **ST9:** ((*raises hand. classroom noise impedes conversation*))
11. **T2:** yes tell me
12. **ST9:** mmm how many bedrooms=
13. **T1:** =shhhhh guys remember remember people's questions can help you Mariona can you speak louder please?
14. **ST9:** how many beds do you need?
15. **T2:** OK did you hear that? ((scanning the classroom)) how many beds do we need? actually brother and sister get on very well they have a very good relationship so they can sleep together no problem and the youngest one Íria can sleep with us we don't need a lot of beds two beds it's OK (0.3) would you like to know anything else? (0.3) that was a very good question because space is a key thing.
16. **ST10:** do you need very much storage room? ((raises hand))

17. **T2:** yes ((nodding)) we need a lot of storage space remember I’m a photographer and I’m working so I take all my things with me we need some space for the bicycles we need some space for the surfboards and we will be staying in the camper van most of the time that was a very good question that’s a key thing space that’s necessary.

18. **ST9:** do you need more than one bathroom? or just one?

19. **T2:** well that’s a tricky thing! we’ll manage we’ll be staying in the camper van for most of the time and if it’s very, very necessary we can go to a hotel, for example one bathroom one toilet will be fine for us

20. **ST10:** how big is the van you have now?

21. **T2:** it looks like the one you saw on the video maybe a bit bigger a bit bigger ((hand movement to clarify meaning)) if that’s not useful for us in the end we can buy a new one

22. **ST5:** do you need a big table?

23. **T2:** I think what we need is just a table for eating for playing board games with my children nothing special about that (0.2) anything else you would like to know?

24. **ST9:** will you need a TV?

25. **T2:** actually we are OK without a TV it’s just one week we’ve got our mobiles our computers we don’t need a TV very much and we would like to be together as a family maybe a TV is not really necessary that’s fine.

26. **ST5:** did you say that your husband need a big kitchen?

27. **T2:** not a big kitchen but something (1.5) an **oven** for example something that he can use to cook in a somehow comfortable way we’ll manage with everything we don’t eat special food nothing special just common things

28. **ST1:** did you eat in the van or for example in a restaurant?

29. **T2:** that’s a very good question

30. **ST1:** has vist? ((the student shows a proud face))

31. **T2:** most of the time we'll be eating in the van because we are on a **low budget** so it means we cannot spend a lot of money in restaurants_five people in the family

32. **ST7:** wow

33. **T2:** that would be very expensive

34. **ST1:** però sempre hi ha un dia així especial

35. **T2:** yes it’s true we can go for an evening dinner for example that’s fine you are right

36. **ST11:** ((first, she asks for peer support, and then she dares to ask

out loud)) why you live in a van and not in a house?

37. **T2:** not in a hotel? ((asks for confirmation because could not hear clearly))

38. **ST11:** in a house

39. **ST10:** ((spontaneous contribution)) perquè van de vacances Isona

40. **ST11:** ah vale…! res res

41. **T2:** Is that OK? do you understand that? it’s just on holidays for a week it’s only for a week

42. **T1:** do you understand Isona?

43. **T2:** yes? I think that’s all

44. **ST12:** ((side conversation a student clarifies activity instructions to a classmate using L1 while T2 is giving clarifications to other students))amb la informació que ens ha donat abans ella per exemple ha dit que la seva filla és al.lergica a les picades de mosquit

Finally, in Excerpt 3 we see the teacher acknowledge and accept students’ expressions of negative affect, thus bringing the students back on task using non-controlling language (Reeve, 2006), thereby persuading the students to start activity three in small groups. There is evidence of some resistance among the students to following the instructions, which are to read the text collaboratively and aloud. T2 acknowledges the initial reluctance of ST4 and ST5 to read out aloud and accepts ST5’s proposal to read only one sentence (Turns 1-7). Using non-controlling language, T2 then sets a rule for the whole group, which is quickly accepted by all the members (Turns 8-10), thus turning the initial disaffection into active participation on the part of all group members.

Excerpt 3 (activity 3)

1. **T2:** so who’s, who’s reading first?

2. **ST4:** Maria reads ((*giggles and points at ST5*))

3. **T2:** Maria? is that your name? ((*makes eye contact with ST5*))

4. **ST4:** yes

5. **T2:** yes? ((*makes eye contact with ST5*)) come on! don’t be shy! ((*smiling*))

6. **ST4:** come on! ((*giggling*))

7. **ST5:** only the first sentence, OK? ((*reluctant*))

8. **T2:** OK, one sentence each? ((*makes eye contact with all the group members*))

9. **GR:** ((*nod*))

```
10.   T2:   that’s fine!
11.   ST5:  the first. ((reads aloud)) cargo vans are great for stealth
            camping and and, and and per què posa and and? ((makes eye
            contact with the other teammates when she realizes she has made
            a mistake))
```

During the course of activity two, the co-teachers make use of a range of CIC strategies which can facilitate interactional space for the learners (Escobar Urmeneta & Evnitskaya, 2013; Escobar Urmeneta & Walsh, 2017; Walsh, 2011) and thus increase opportunities for the students to participate orally in the conversation. First, Excerpt 1 shows how T2 accepts students’ clarification requests in their L1 and encourages their classmates to act as mediators using translation as a strategy (Turns 4-7) or reshapes the students’ requests in their L1 by translating them into the L2 (Turns 26-28). She accepts students’ contributions in English even when they are poorly phrased (Turns 35-36) and reshapes them. She also accepts comments in both L1 and L2 even though this means a momentary deviation from the plan or the contribution is not relevant to the activity, because they might be considered indicators of students’ cognitive and emotional engagement (Turns 9-15, 30-36). Moreover, T1 responds to individual requests for clarification of meaning (Turns 23-24) while she is circulating unobtrusively among the work groups.

Additionally, Excerpt 2 shows how the co-teachers allow for private conversations to take place in order to give students the chance to work out their doubts before contributing to the class conversation aloud (Turn 36). T2 praises contributions in order to acknowledge the students’ effort and perseverance in asking questions, for example, when it is the first contribution (Turn 15), when the contribution is very relevant (Turns 15, 17) or when a student contributes significantly to the conversation (Turns 29, 35).

In terms of analysing the students’ level of engagement, we see signs of strong engagement in the students’ verbal contributions (i.e., asking and answering questions or making comments), the instances of attentive listening to the co-teachers’ and the classmates’ contributions and their compliance with classroom ground rules and instructions. Excerpts 1 and 2 show instances of behavioural engagement, such as when the students listen attentively, ask spontaneous questions, fill in the graphic organiser, and use their time effectively. Our data suggest that there is a working atmosphere, and the teachers’ proposals are well received by the students, since the class shows positive conduct and in general stays on task. None of the students are completely off-task, although there are signs of boredom and disaffection in one student (ST13), who leans on the table several times during the activity and only partially completes the graphic organiser. A range of degrees of engagement are shown by students, depending on the degree and quality of their participation (Fredricks et al., 2004; Philp & Duchesne, 2016). On the one hand, those with a low level of behavioural engagement stay silent and refrain from asking questions or making comments, but they do fill in the graphic organiser with the information they get from the teachers and their peers. They use strategies such as asking for peer support in their L1 or even copying what their peers have written to complete the task assigned, which can be seen as indicators of cognitive engagement, since they imply devoting a certain amount of effort to solving a task (Philp & Duchesne, 2016). These students are low achievers or very low achievers (ST14, ST15, ST16, ST17) who do not have skills or lack the confidence to face public exposure. It is worth mentioning that they do not ask for teacher support either, even though T1 circulates among them. ST6 and ST8 listen and fill in the graphic organiser partially, but explicitly state that they have no interest in asking questions in public (Excerpt 2: Turns 3-4) and show a low degree of compliance with the classroom rules, because they do not use time effectively and are easily distracted.

On the other hand, those with a higher level of behavioural engagement (ST1, ST2, ST5, ST7, ST9, ST10, ST11, ST12) listen attentively, raise their hands (Excerpt 1: Turn 6; Excerpt 2: Turns 10, 16, 20, 26, 36), ask questions to clarify meaning or content (Excerpt 1: Turns 4, 23, 26; Excerpt 2: 26, 36), ask follow-up questions to find out further information, which they believe useful to complete the graphic organiser in more detail (Excerpt 2: Turns 14, 16, 18, 20, 22, 24, 28), make comments to show interest or surprise (Excerpt 1: Turns 31, 33; Excerpt 2: 32), offer peer support (Excerpt 2: Turns 39, 44) and fill in the graphic organiser, as assigned.

The fact that the students utilise their L1 in clarification requests (Excerpt 1: Turns 4, 23) and feedback to peers (Excerpt 1: Turn 6; Excerpt 2: Turns 39, 44) is in line with the findings of Pladevall-Ballester and Vraciu (2020), who report that “the use of the learners’ L1 is instrumental in the fulfilment of the L2 communicative task, particularly with low-proficiency learners” (p. 466). What we observe here supports the claim that high-achieving students show higher levels of hand-raising (Böheim et al., 2020), ST5, ST9, ST10 and ST11 being high-achievers in the EFL class. As far as verbal interaction is concerned, it could be argued that these students are also cognitively engaged when they respond to the teacher’s questions aloud (Excerpt 1: Turns 5-6), verbalize thoughts as proof of their understanding (Excerpt 1: Turns 8, 15; Excerpt 2: Turn 40), make spontaneous reflective comments (Excerpt 1: Turns 8; 15, 17) and give directions and explanations to classmates (Excerpt 1: Turn 6;

Excerpt 2: Turns 36, 44). Regarding body language and body positioning, there is evidence that students make eye contact with the teachers whenever there is interaction. Among these students, there are signs of interest, humorous amusement, surprise, enjoyment, and pride in their contributions (Excerpt 1: Turns 30, 31; Excerpt 2: Turns 30, 32). There is also evidence of students' feelings of connection with their classmates (Philp & Duchesne, 2016) such as when ST10 contributes spontaneously out loud to clarify a classmate's misunderstanding (Extract 2: Turn 39) or when ST12 responds to a group member's request for support (Extract 2: Turn 44).

It is worth mentioning the case of ST1, who is the most participative student in the oral conversation with T2, contributing to the conversation spontaneously at various moments in activity 2 (Excerpt 1: Turns 4, 9, 13, 16, 18, 27, 29; Excerpt 2: Turns 28, 30, 34). His contributions are outside the usual interaction scheme (teacher initiates, student responds, teacher gives feedback) described by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975), since he adds information or comments on the teacher's feedback and expands the conversation. Nevertheless, he does not fill in the graphic organiser at all, so he does not fully comply with the activity instructions. ST1's inner motivation seems to be curiosity rather than a willingness to fulfil the teachers' instructions to complete the activity.

The analysis of the data collected shows evidence of three types of student engagement – behavioural, cognitive and emotional (Fredricks et al., 2004; Philp & Duchesne, 2016; Reeve et al., 2019) – as well as evidence that the co-teachers' instructional behaviours may have contributed to increasing student engagement in all three dimensions. Our data support the idea that when co-teachers work collaboratively using CIC strategies and enacting an autonomy-supportive teaching strategy, then student motivation and learning are enhanced. In this innovative experience, the co-teachers seem to have succeeded in nurturing the students' inner motivational resources, such as interest and a sense of challenge to understand what is being said, as well as building a safe environment and creating effective opportunities for students to ask their own questions, whether in front of the full group or more privately to the assistant teacher or to a peer. These are basic requirements for engagement to take place (Reeve, 2006). Nevertheless, since one of the main objectives of the session was to foster active oral participation in L2, further attention should be paid to those students who remained silent throughout the session. The co-teachers' strategies might not have been effective enough to increase these students' levels of proactivity, since they behaved merely as information receivers. The presence of the assistant teacher was intended to serve as an affordance for those students who tended to avoid public exposure and self-selection; however, the data show that they preferred to ask for peer support in their L1 and in private, rather than asking the assistant teacher for help, not even when she was close to them. One-to-one assistance was explicitly requested in activity two only once, precisely by an actively engaged student. Therefore, we might consider the creation of a homogeneous group of students who tend to avoid public oral participation in class as one possible strategy to address this issue. The assistant teacher could devote some time to this group specifically and enact strategies to increase these students' oral participation in class. Nonetheless, it can be argued that all in all, the coteaching strategies described here succeeded in guaranteeing equity and creating an inclusive classroom. Moreover, our analysis has provided evidence that the co-teachers' actions and words were effective in reviving levels of engagement whenever they flagged.

Conclusions

This paper has shown that coteaching can be successfully implemented by two non-native teachers of English in a foreign language classroom, bringing benefits to both teachers and students. Whereas for their part the co-teachers enjoyed a positive professional experience, students gained more opportunities for active participation in classroom activities and meaningful learning. The students' involvement exceeded the co-teachers' expectations, since the students were actively engaged not only because they did what the teachers told them to do (i.e., filling in the graphic organiser while they listened to the teacher in activity two), but also because they actively showed their process of learning, when they spontaneously posed clarifying and follow-up questions or comments, either to the full class or in their work groups. It can be argued that the use of coteaching strategies played a role in creating these opportunities.

With regard to this study's limitations, the findings presented here are restricted to the analysis of one video-recorded session of an EFL classroom with 24 participants. These findings could be complemented by further research in which classroom data are gathered using classroom observation grids, or in which the perspectives of students and teachers are included through questionnaires, reports, or interviews.

Despite the limitations of the study, however, our analysis suggests that the benefits for both teachers and students can be maximised when both co-teachers enact an autonomy-supportive teaching style, when they use CIC strategies, when they are actively engaged with the students' learning process and when they are equally responsible for all students. All in all, coteaching is an instructional approach which is worth considering in EFL teacher development programmes, in particular because it holds promise as an effective way to deal with the increasing diversity found in today's secondary EFL classrooms.

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Appendix

Appendix A

Transcription conventions

T1:	teacher
ST1:	student
CL:	whole class
GR:	group of students in a work team
( )	empty parentheses indicate that the transcriber was unable to decipher what was said or to identify a speaker
(( ))	double parentheses contain transcriber's descriptions of non-verbal actions
(·)	a dot inside parentheses indicates a brief unmeasured interval
(0.0)	silence; length given in seconds
=	a pair of equal signs, one at the end of one line and one at the beginning of a following line indicate that there was no break between the two
/ok/ok/ok/	overlapping or simultaneous utterances by more than one student
word	underlining indicates speaker's emphasis