JOINT DELIVERY AND TRANSNATIONAL TRENDS IN COLLABORATIVE TEACHING IN CHINA: AN INTERPRETATIVE PHENOMENOLOGICAL ANALYSIS

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Abstract

Joint Delivery (JD) emerges as a response to issues concerning pedagogical and contextual differences in transnational higher education in China. Trends in transferring skills between courses, simultaneous subject content and second language practice in where English is the medium of instruction (EMI), academic requirements and challenges in transnational environments, and the overall experience in multidisciplinary courses in learning and teaching cooperation, are some of the main questions that nurtured the JD programme. Leonardi (2015) argues that a combination of tools and strategies from approaches such as Content Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) and English for Specific Purposes (ESP) can maximise the output in tertiary education. How this combination shapes practice and impacts teaching and learning is unclear. Hence, this study explores how specialists in English for Academic Purposes (EAP) make sense of their collaborative experiences with departmental staff in JD courses. Focusing on its impacts in learning and teaching and its contribution to instruction and professional development, the research undertakes an Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis (IPA) approach (Smith, Flowers & Larkin, 2009) utilising a reflective standpoint and the researcher's context and field experiences. It provides a three-layer analysis of semi-structured, discussion-like interviews of 13 language specialists, held at the end of the semester to enhance the reflective factor. The analysis exhibited JD to be a complex phenomenon with a wide range of collaborative practices, teaching tactics, and means for professional development. The experiences in collaborative teaching revealed three main delivery modes: language-support, co-teaching and lecture-seminar models with variations in the departmental involvement. The characteristics of these collaborations agree with the evaluations made by Friend and Cook (2014). Yet, this study highlights three essentials that can lead to further the success of collaborations: 1) a thorough initial co-designing of the course materials; 2) a constant openness to adaptation through a share of responsibilities; and, 3) an equal exchange of expertise with a continual sense of learning at both personal and professional levels. Together with these essentials, there are optional practices that can be implemented in co-teaching such as involving the lecturers further in the JD programme, rather than having invitations for single lecture sessions; having more tasks-based and practical sessions, while transferring teacher-focused lectures to online platforms; generating hubs for co-teaching practices and exchange experiences; and, adapting policies towards equitable forms of course ownership amongst departments and centres. Ultimately, practitioners indicated through their experiences in the JD programme to have enriched not only their practice, but also their personal and professional undertakings as their courses were more transdisciplinary and their co-teaching more functional and organic, which essentially is the heart of collaborative transnational education.

Keywords

Joint delivery, phenomenology, IPA, pedagogies, second language acquisition, integrated learning, EAP/ESP/CLIL, collaboration, co-teaching, large groups, learning spaces, multidisciplinary learning, organic collaboration, teacher identity, transnational education.

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List of Abbreviations

CLIL	Content Language Integrated Learning
EAP	English for Academic Purposes
EMI	English Medium of Instruction
ESP	English for Specific Purposes
HE	Higher Education
HoD	Head of Department
ICE	In-house VLE, a Moodle version employed in this university context
ICLHE	Integrating Content and Language in Higher Education
IPA	Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis
JD	Joint Delivery – Term used in the university context conveying different forms of collaborative teaching across-departments/centres
L1, L2, L3	First language, Second language, Third language speaker
LC	Language Centre
PPT	Microsoft PowerPoint or presentation slides
TESOL	Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages
TNE	Transnational Education
TNHE	Transnational Higher Education
VLE	Virtual Learning Environment
CH-BR University	Pseudonym for the University's name for the purpose of this study and research ethics

Chapter 1 Introduction

1.1 Introduction

Collaborations are transforming education, generating a dynamic and innovative Higher Education (HE). At a macro level, transnational collaborations are increasing significantly the movement of students, academics and researchers, sharing backgrounds, cultures, ideas and identities (Stensaker, Henkel, Välimaa, & Sarrico, 2012; Cortazzi & Jin, 2013; Bennell, 2019). At a micro level, this movement of intellectual capital is creating new and innovative approaches to learning and teaching, with emerging collaborations across disciplines at all educational levels (Becher & Trowler, 2001; Kim, 2010; Schulte, 2019).

Advances in technology, and recent events such as the global pandemic (Scull et al., 2020), are also contributing to changes in how learning and teaching is conceptualised. Personalised technologies in and out of the classrooms, with easy and rapid access to information, are changing the paradigm in how knowledge is acquired, perceived analysed and verified.

Similarly, changes in the economic and geopolitical arena, with fluctuating perceptions between societies, increasing competitive attitudes, alterations in the workforce as automation advances, and power shifting, together with an increased change in climate and the natural world, the image of HE is also transforming. Thus, Education should provide the sampler of collaborations and expertise exchanges that a fast-changing world needs.

Collaborative and multidisciplinary models should motivate students academically in connecting different ideas, disciplines and philosophies, as well as socially embracing collaborations in diversity and social cohesion while integrating knowledge towards their professional futures in research and innovation.

The aim of this study, therefore, is to present some of these exemplars through the accounts of language teachers collaborating across disciplines in an umbrella term we name Joint Delivery (JD).

1.2 Challenges in Education and the Study's Rationale

The nature and approaches to education have changed fast in recent decades (Stensaker et al., 2012). There are two main reasons seemingly featuring these changes. One is a rapid influx of international cohorts of considerable size, mainly from China, with similar learning needs in language, learning skills and discipline requirements (Altbach, 2007a; Ho, 2010; González-Ardeo, 2012). Another has been the advent of the Internet and related technologies that have steered teaching approaches, such as blended learning (Ehlers, 2013; Hew and Cheung, 2014) and flipped-classrooms (Reidsema, Kavanagh, Hadgraft & Smith, 2017). These have prompted questions, not only on approaches used in teaching and learning, but also on the overall structure and logistics of the classroom, with emerging initiatives such as Content Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) and collaborative teaching (e.g. Mehisto, 2012; Evans, Tindale, Cable & Hamil-Mead, 2009), which have considerably sharpened existing practices and trends of the education palette for several decades. These developments lead us to consider, amongst other aspects, how classrooms should be organised, who should participate in them, how learning should be implemented, what combination of disciplines should be co-taught, what cohort size should be considered, and what innovations should be employed therein. Hence, to enhance our practice, we need to understand how these changes are experienced in HE, and what new understandings are established in collaborations between practitioners underpinning new learning requirements.

Joint Delivery evolved from these and related changes in our university, a Sino-British partnership established in 2006 with English as the medium of instruction (EMI). As an in-house term to a multidisciplinary set of courses, JD emerged from a collective of language and content specialists who recognised changes in students' learning needs in language, academic skills and subject specific content. JD developed as a collaborative platform amongst departments to jointly deliver language and content courses with varieties in classroom settings: from the lecture-seminar setting working with large cohorts, to co-teaching cooperation between two or more departments delivering content, skills and language to a smaller cohort, or light-touch collaboration where virtual learning

environments (VLE) play an essential role in the language and skills provision, such as BlackBoard or Moodle, known in the university as ICE.

Seminars comprise a variety of class-sizes (10-150+ students) and are generally co-taught in a variety of room designs. The room layout can range from lecture type rooms with fixed tables and chairs, to open and flexible spaces. In later years there has been some effort in providing more open and larger learning spaces, but there is some resistance, presumably due to differences in attitudes and philosophies in education and instruction in this context.

While there is literature reflecting on collaborative teaching and multidisciplinary courses (Bryant, Niewolny, Clark, & Watson, 2014), the setting of this transnational university is distinctive in that it experiences high turnover with specialists of multiple backgrounds and meaningful continuous growth as a young university. In their majority, students are of Chinese origin and broadly homogeneous from the Chinese perspective with shared learning needs and approaches including learning English using broadly similar approaches, methods and materials for many years in primary and middle school. Thus, the university enforces provision through its large Language Centre (LC) in English for Academic Purposes (EAP) (Jordan, 1997) as practice for success in departmental courses thereafter.

Hence, JD can be seen as an occurrence of an emerging cluster of phenomena that can be understood through the perceptions and experiences of those involved, the practitioners and the students in this particular context. In this study therefore, we take a phenomenological approach to construct meaning to JD through the participants' experiences and add knowledge of the underpinnings and significance in teaching collaborations shedding light on practices in similar settings.

1.3 The University

This is a young transnational Sino-British University established in China, a pioneer in its country, offering dual degrees from both local and international universities. Learners have the option to either stay locally for the whole degree, or study on a 2+2 system with two years in China and two at the partner university abroad. The proportion in students' selection in recent years seems to have split evenly between those staying and those

finalising their degrees abroad. Yet, the university's main attracting factor still remains in providing students with the choice to study abroad (see Willis & Sedghi, 2014).

This is also the first Chinese university in its own right, to be academically supervised externally while managed locally, and to be granted by the Chinese Ministry of Education, the permission to award national degrees at all levels (Ennew & Fujia, 2009; The University´s handbook, 2017). This endorsement is part of a vision in enhancing the Chinese international cohort to "*500,000 international students by 2020… competitive international programs with 'Chinese characteristics' taught in both Chinese and English*" (Kuroda, 2014 p. 446), placing China in the international market (Altbach & Knight, 2007). This, ultimately, impacts the university's status, its quotas in the local recruitment, types of courses offered, and the design of the university's curricula. This is positive in the sense that it offers diversity and range in course design and practices, so as to cater to a wider variety of cohorts of different backgrounds.

1.3.1 The Students

The university's programmes and curricula cater mainly for its majority domestic Chinese learners with the particulars of historical, cultural and educational backgrounds (Hayhoe & Ross, 2013), and the specifics in 'cultures of learning' (Cortazzi & Jin, 2013), English learning (Shi, 2006) and the characteristics of an EMI (Wong, 2004). However, it also hosts an increasing number of international students, searching for 'intercultural communication' (Liu et al., 2019) and 'universal perspective' (Zhu & Ma, 2011).

The learning needs between the international and domestic cohorts differ due to prior experiences (Zha, 2013), exposure to the English language and cultural backgrounds. Yet, international and domestic cohorts share also similarities in their pre-tertiary learning experience based on textbooks and requiring academic competences (Wang & Curdt-Christiansen, 2016).

Hence, JD results from an effort to cater for this diversity, attract a greater number of international recruits, and maintain its main purpose in preparing students to either

complete their EMI studies in our institution or continue later in the joint venture university abroad.

1.3.2 The Language Centre

The Language Centre (LC) provides students with the necessary support required to succeed at university. It coordinates designs and delivers modules for first and second-year students mainly, and offers throughout the university workshops, consultations, and lectures contributing for every student to the continuous study support programmes of its writing centre. With the implementation of the JD programme, the LC provides attempts to provide even closer support to the departmental provision.

The LC integrates an important role and responsibility in this EMI transnational university. With a body of over 200 specialists, it constitutes the heart of the university, as it provides support throughout the university at all stages of the students' university life. The LC not only prepares students with English communication and academic skills, it also facilitates venues for students to make closer associations between language, study skills and subject-specific content equipping them with learning capabilities to successfully complete their degrees. With the JD programme added, some multidisciplinary courses are now offered also to international and high-achieving students, whose English abilities exceed the average literacy requirements. Thus, the LC provision constitutes ultimately the main pillar of the university.

1.3.3 Joint Delivery

Joint Delivery can be considered as an umbrella term for approaches to collaborative teaching. These are designed to aid students' learning needs in meeting the demands of the university in subject based content, academic skills and English language adapting its curricula according to learning needs and subject specifications.

The success of JD can be seen implied through the increasing number of courses and their departmental committees' approval since 2012 (CH-BR University, 2017). These courses are cooperatively delivered, some by more than one department, and all in conjunction with the LC. Multidisciplinary modules are run and coordinated by the LC, while established

departmental programmes are LC assisted. In some cases, courses are transferred from the departments to the LC. This can be due to considered improvements, changes in delivery duties, cohort size, assessments, workload, and other arrangements. The university uses the British HE protocols for course approval and its partner university's quality control procedures.

A variety of elements triggered the development of JD courses. Some are reflected in the university's annual periodic review and minutes from committee meetings (CH-BR University, 2017). Amongst others, JD targeted difficulties in transferring skills across courses, such as language and study skills, appropriate use of academic integrity conventions, and the overall intercultural preparation of studying abroad in the 2+2 scheme (Willis & Sedghi, 2014). Classroom observations show trends in compartmentalising information particular to a course, obstructive attitudes towards EAP as yet another English course, and in more recent days, an increasing drive for more comfortable, faster, and more convenient forms of acquiring information via technology.

All these factors and considerations inspired this study to investigate whether JD tackles some of these overarching problems, whether it creates others, or if it is indeed a pedagogical approach that can enrich learning and teaching experiences in HE, while enhancing the university cohesion through collaborations in practices.

1.3.4 The Researcher

The phenomenological paradigm in this study's interpretation and analysis involves its author. In its fluidity, rather than anything 'mechanical', it enfolds the researcher's 'skills and intuition', shaped by nine years' experience in situ, and as part of the research process she aims at 'engaging in detail' and 'understanding writer and text' (Smith, Flowers & Larkin, 2009 p. 22). Phenomenologists recommend the analyst to bring her "*fore-conception (prior experiences, assumptions, preconceptions) to the encounter*" (Smith et al., 2009 p. 25). Hence, as in action-research's insider-researcher, the author's situatedness in the context forms part of the research development (Costley, Elliott & Gibbs, 2010).

My teaching experience in the JD programme started almost simultaneously with this research project. Although I had started JD co-teaching with a departmental colleague on an introductory course to urban-planning, my understanding of JD was forming at the same time as was my practice. Prior to this start I retained certain scepticism, as until then teaching had been a solo endeavour, with some twenty years developing teaching materials and patterns resistant to co-teaching. Yet, I was intrigued about JD, as I did recognise its potential and the need for further development.

My understanding of the university and students' context came from working in a large classroom in a late 1990s agricultural college in the north of rural China, to EAP provision at various British universities. Today, in this diverse transnational context it seems appropriate to explore innovative practices and collaborative teaching that combine previous experiences. Still, it requires some scope of flexibility to learn from others, students and colleagues, as well as from the cultural surroundings, so that best practice is facilitated in the classroom and to this study.

My experience with JD by the end of the enquiry included curriculum and assessment design, instruction and collaboration with six different disciplines from Social Science, industrial design and urban planning, to Business, Computer Programming and Environmental Sciences. Today, I coordinate a multidisciplinary programme that combines interest concerning students' disciplines and their future.

1.4 Summary and Study Outline

With an overview of the characteristics of the study's context and its university, students, language centre, and the programmes offered, as well as its researcher's place in this context, this chapter has also provided a rationale for the study and discussed some of the challenges Education faces today. An exploration of the literature concerning collaboration in HE will follow, touching on the transnational standpoint, to concentrate later on multidisciplinary cooperation in team and co-teaching perspectives.

The literature review will contextualise transnational education in China highlighting differences in approaches to learning and teaching, followed by an exploration of the

concept of collaboration and its characteristics and schemes evolving towards organic and multidisciplinary approaches. Thereafter, a discussion on pedagogies particular to the local context will follow with a look at classroom dynamics and what constitutes teacher identity to the language specialist in particular.

The methodology is divided into two chapters. The first one provides the particular philosophical and theoretical underpinnings of the Phenomenological paradigm, and the second describes the practical approach of the enquiry. This distinction between them is aimed at the reader's recognition of the rationale of the approach of the theory to the method of the enquiry.

Various models for JD are described and analysed through the findings and analysis sections followed by a discussion chapter exploring the meaning of these analyses, contrasting the literature with the participants' own conceptualisation of their experiences and endeavours in collaborative teaching.

Chapter 2 Literature Review

By three methods we learn wisdom:
First by reflection, which is noblest;
Second by imitation, which is easiest; and
Third by experience, which is bitterest.
Confucius
(Stewart-Wynne & Macdonald, 2014 p.210)

2.1 Introduction

The literature suggests a shifting in the internationalisation paradigm triggered by a cluster of geopolitical events that are indirectly affecting transnational education. This shifting seems to be slowly favouring China, with implications for practices in teaching and learning. It is perhaps from the transnational classroom in China that multidisciplinary courses, jointly delivered by a diverse faculty, could presumably start permeating the collaboration ethos by combining different learning and teaching philosophies, that can better prepare future leaders and innovators.

The purpose of this study is to explore emerging collaborative teaching trends in transnational education. Focused on the case of a Sino-British university, the study investigates this phenomenon by looking at the changes, adaptations, processes and collaborative dynamics of language specialists' experience when jointly deliver courses with subject specialists in an umbrella of approaches called Joint Delivery.

This literature review explores current developments in the sphere of transnational education, touching on inquiries in collaborative teaching with a focus on language, content and interdisciplinary approaches to collaboration; this is followed by a review of some pedagogical aspects of learning and teaching in China; and, it is rounded off with an exploration of the literature on professional development, and the effects of change, adaptation, identity and reflective learning. The chapter closes highlighting the implications of the literature and the objectives of the study and a brief summary.

2.2 Transnational Education and China

Globalisation has adopted transnational collaborations in education, increasing student and faculty relocation, intensifying cultural diversity and mounting knowledge exchange. Transnational Education (TNE) fosters a number of motivators, from financial investment to collaborative exchanges in knowledge and global intellectual capital (Altbach & Knight, 2007). There is however, a sense of imbalance today, or unfair competition between the educational service providers and the receivers of knowledge (Hou, Montgomery & McDowell, 2014).

In China, Hou et al. (2014) argue that practices in transnational universities are somewhat contradictory to the country's motivations for TNE. The government wishes to improve its domestic institutions through transnational cooperation serving as a means of acquiring first-class education. The government's conditions for licence approval and continuation of service are in establishing transnational partnerships with renowned universities, recruiting reputable scholars, offering particular subjects, and sustaining good levels of quality and resources. While Hou et al. (2014) foresaw old geopolitical and TNE structures becoming more complex, five years later the motivations for transnational collaborations seem to be progressively changing direction (Kirby & van der Wende, 2019).

To understand these changes and how they are transmuted into learning and teaching, three areas are explored: transnational education in China and its connections with the current global geopolitical scene; the background of the main Chinese philosophies constructing today's sociocultural and educational domains; and concluding with where JD stands on these.

2.2.1 Transnational Education in China

Transnational Higher Education (TNHE) in China became more notable in the early 2000s. In its process of *reform and opening up,* led by Deng Xiaoping (Hayhoe , 2007 p. 69), China started to take part in the international scene. In the late 1990s it began welcoming a greater number of international experts in teaching and research at tertiary level (this author included). It also facilitated the movement of an exponential number of students to

universities abroad, enrolling about 25 million students by 2006 (Ennew & Fujia, 2009 p.22). At the same time, China also started to invest in transnational partnerships with overseas educational entities by enacting policies that permitted these joint-ventures to provide international degrees and education locally, as is the case of the university in this study.

This set of events suggests a gradual progression of thorough planning and strategic policy. Every five years from 1996 to 2020, the Chinese government has prescribed strategic plans that Wu (2019) categorises into two gradual and aligned goals. An initial 'inward oriented' stage acquiring knowledge, approaches, and educational models from entities abroad, followed by an 'outwards oriented' stage: a gradual plan transferring knowledge, culture and systems of education through settings that assist international recognition such as the Confucius Institution (Wu, 2019). This crafted plan, together with its large population and a fast-growing economy, has equipped the country with a quick undigested knowledge that has started to disseminate certain change with specific characteristics.

In parallel to Wu's (2019) inward/outward orientations, is the gradual detachment from the 'periphery' of the world's academic system and the move towards the 'centre' of global education and research (Altbach, 2007b), which has been thus far, dominated largely by university models and philosophies of Anglophone countries, with the US and the UK in the lead (Lamb, 2004; Li, 2009). The process has generated literature inferring the presence of imbalances in educational exchanges (Yang, 2014), a phase of neocolonialism (Altbach, 2004), and an element of soft power (Nye, 1990; Knight, 2015), as governments recognise the benefits of education in political and economic manoeuvres (Ennew & Fujia, 2009; Li, 2009; Knight, 2015). However, the last few years have given rise to an uncertain future in both the orientation of these balances and the future of TNHE and HE more generally (Bennell, 2019; Kirby & van der Wende, 2019).

If these inequalities and imbalances are interpreted as reaching the pinnacle of the bell curve for globalisation, then the options for the future may be in either finding a sustainable equilibrium between the various international powers, or shifting eastwards with different norms, approaches and perspectives of the world. While Altbach (2004) advocates for the recognition of 'a global academic environment' based on equal academic relationships and

averting neocolonialism, ten years on Wang (2014 p. 17) establishes that China is "*eager to expand its international influence and to promote the Chinese model globally*". In his analysis Wang (2014) observes progressive change in the discourse of policies regarding internationalisation, noting more assertiveness with linguistic devices such as: "*soft power, manipulation, promotion of Chinese model and value*" (Wang, 2014 p. 16).

On the ground, meanwhile, the initial 'opening-up' discourse, of dubious scope, still echoes along the corridors of our transnational university today. Likewise, there are echoes of Deng Xiaoping's 'one country two systems' motto that not only served the returning of Hong Kong and Macao to *the Mother Land* in 1997 and 1999 (Dow, 2010), but also embraces the philosophies and expertise from overseas, while ensuring the Chinese characteristics.

The concept 'with Chinese characteristics', tagged on to most policies and initiatives, appears to be ill-defined and needs to be treated with some degree of alluded caution. In relating this with HE, Yang (2005) finds respondents assuring that "*the Chinese characteristics of higher education are not at all in conflict with this integration with international trends*" (p. 106). Fifteen years on, Kirby and van der Wende (2019) find that in an "*age of de-globalisation and for all the Chinese government's rhetoric of building universities 'with Chinese characteristics', we can also see in the past and present of Chinese universities and students, much more continuity and significant cause for optimism*." (p. 141). Internationalisation and continuity in today's uncertainty does indeed bring some sense of optimism; still these characteristics seem dubious for HE, its collaborations and learning and teaching. The meaning can be widely interpreted, from the centralisation of decision-making without dialogue or anticipation of change; to a generic form in accepting non-Chinese approaches perhaps performed by Chinese with some perceived self-benefit or exclusivity; to possibly even denoting the revival of Chinese culture with elements such as Taoism and Confucianism; or, something entirely different again.

Experiences working at the university today suggest careful considerations, as elements of the above characteristics are getting closer to home. The number of slogan banners and posters has increased considerably from every street and public space stretching its roots along the campus corridors to official emails with directions on conduct: "*College and*

University Teachers Code of Conduct in the New Era" (email received 14/06/2019). Indeed, this year marks an important anniversary (see Dow, 2010 p. 504), though from these most immediate experiences, situations such as these transmit a certain uncertainty as to the level of influence and future shaping of learning and teaching, research, and the overall transnational collaboration.

Uncertainty is also conveyed in the changes of the current geopolitical climate, as it seems to be distancing itself from the earlier movements of globalisation and internationalisation that arose with such a strong presence in the late 20th century, as Kirby and van der Wende (2019) also observe. It can be argued hence, that these changes may strengthen and intensify the emerging soft power embedded in China's foreign policy on cultural and educational exchanges; see for instance, the 2015 Euro-Asia Economic Forum (Kirby & van der Wende, 2019). As Wang (2014) asserts, *"[a] paradigm shift in internationalization strategies has become apparent in that HE is increasingly used as an essential part of a policy package to enhance China's national competitiveness and international influence*" (p. 9). This influence, as in previous forms of neocolonialism, seems to be focused on "*[t]raining future generations of intellectuals, technicians, and political elites from other nations [which] is a subtle but very significant form of soft power*" (Yang, 2014 p. 36).

Soft power is defined as the influence and persuasion placed on others for national interest (Knight, 2015), following on from neocolonialism. Yang (2014) argues that neocolonialism still exists in countries that still require the colonial powers' expertise in science and technology. In China, however, the need for this expertise seems to be fading, as Chinese universities are taking "*global leadership roles in engineering and applied science and more*" (Kirby & van der Wende, 2019 p.139) by recruiting and providing scholarships to a greater number of students from countries with economic links, such as those within the New Silk Road (Kirby & van der Wende, 2019), and African countries (Yang, 2014). Hence, it is significant and positive the steps that China has and is taking to improve education. At home, it generates and develops 'world-class' research universities (Altbach, 2007b), and abroad, it "*actively expand[s] its influence and promote[s] a Chinese model worldwide through education*" (Wang, 2014 p. 9; Yang, 2010), establishes "*Eastern educational*

philosophy and heritage", and it intensifies the position of domestic universities globally (Kirby & van der Wende, 2019 p. 133).

Chinese influence may certainly be positive and enriching at home and to the outside world; however, it is the uncertainty of its centralised paradigm, a lack of debate or a hidden agenda and overly national focus that can be of concern to intellectual development in research and learning and teaching practices.

In research, equal opportunities to funding and publishing need are increasing, since journal openings and grant offers are often restricted to nationality, language and even age (as per official emails received). Although there are more international avenues available now (Luo & Hyland 2019), this is perhaps rather aimed at potentially attracting returning national intellect (Kirby & van der Wende, 2019 p 113). Research collaborations between countries can often be difficult for some sciences when exchanging materials across tight border controls. More difficult to measure is the access to Internet information and the limitations to research in all sciences (Wong & Kwong, 2019). While censorship can lead to biases, clusters and research bubbles, access to information is pivotal to learning and teaching, emancipating in decision-making and developing critical thinking, reflection, creativity, initiative and innovation (Schulte, 2019).

China's aspiration and quick move to compete with global world-class universities, as Altbach (2004, 2007a) predicted, can be seen in the increase of the international intake in Chinese universities, more than five-fold between 2001 and 2011 (Ministry of Education, China [MOE], 2002, 2012 as cited in Tian and Lowe, 2014). While some norms and values may differ to some degree, the university model and core structures remain similar to that of its competitors (Lu & Jover, 2019), potentially re-balancing this competitive intent. Thus, at the institutional level, and as Altbach (2004) advocates, the recognition for 'a global academic environment' is in essence present, though it remains to be seen whether its bases are of academic equality and neocolonialism prevention.

Culture is valued in China as "*the main source of a state's soft power*" (Li, 2009 p.25), in particular the core traditional values that frame the concept of 'harmony', to which Confucianism and Taoism attach (Li, 2009). Although 'harmony' may be the antidote for an

era where cultural diversification and globalisation is at risk, one would question the power paradigm (Knight, 2015). Knight (2015 p. 9) proposes an alternative paradigm, a 'framework of diplomacy' that manages "*international relations, focuses on negotiation, mediation, collaboration, compromise, and facilitation*" rather than "*tactics and concepts … attached to power dominance, authority, command, and control*". She advocates for TNE to take the lead in acting on 'knowledge diplomacy' by addressing 'worldwide challenges and inequalities' that one country can no longer attain on its own.

By the same token, Evans (2008) highlights the value of educating for 'global citizenship'; from a broader attitude towards global values and issues, to the specificity of the learning needs of particular backgrounds or countries. While Hayhoe (2008) reminds us what can be learned from East Asia and the value of comparative education with 'dialogue among civilizations', TNE education settings can take the advantage and the opportunity to combine these values through multidisciplinary courses using JD, where different learning styles and teaching approaches (e.g. lecture-seminar) can aid future 'global citizens' to mitigate 'world challenges' that are already foreseen today. Hence, sharing eastern and western values further, complementing the learning and teaching ethos and preparing students to view issues globally may set the educational ethos.

It is important, nonetheless, that TNHE provides learning and teaching environments where dialogue, transparency, diversity and critical thought are exercised. Hence, JD courses offer opportunities to experience these and other fundamentals through the collaboration and integration of language within a range of fields, the practice of various teaching/learning styles, and working with a range of peoples, cultures, and viewpoints. This reach for variety and discovery can transcend generations' intellect and innovation for a future that seems so uncertain.

The intent in this section was to argue that in the face of these movements of separatism and nationalism, as well as the rise of China, it is more important than ever to project and develop learning and teaching environments that promote collaboration, diversity and multidisciplinarity such as JD, towards a future with a greater need of innovation and

intellectual power, as uncertainty (automation and climate change) seems to increasingly challenge human life.

2.2.2 Approaches to Education in China

This section takes a brief look at elements of two core philosophies that drive China's sociocultural and educational structures. It aims at understanding some of the constructs of education in China, learning drivers and how these inform today's education system and transnational collaborations. In this brief exploration, I will venture to connect the review with experiences and observations during my fifteen years' experience in the country.

2.2.2.1 The Confucian and Taoist Philosophies

A synthesis of salient Chinese cultural heritage, comprising various philosophical, religious, and political ideologies, denotes experiences in China today. The two main traditions that resonate are Confucianism and Taoism (or Daoism from the school of the Way, or Dao)[1]. These emerged contemporaneously to each other (Confucius 551–479BC and Lao Tzu 580–470BC), and although reciprocal in essence (De Bary & Bloom, 1999), they are often confused, intertwined or antagonistic to each other's doctrines and philosophical foundations (Lin, Ho & Lin, 2013). The Taoist scriptures, for instance, include Confucian teachings, the writings regarding the Yin-Yang School and other schools of thought from before the Eastern Han Dynasty (about 200 AD) (Kirkland, 2004).

As Lin et al. (2013 p. 91) elucidate in their study on leadership behaviour, Confucianism is concerned with "*order, duty, ceremony… respect of family and authority*", while Taoism's interests are in the forces of life and nature. While one bases its norms on hierarchical social structures, the other finds assurance in the cycles of nature and its processes.

Confucian beliefs were adopted during the Han Dynasty (206BC-220AD) and continued until the Qing Dynasty in 1911, serving as the social and philosophical underpinnings of the

[1] Although the influences of Buddhism (400-301BC) on the cultural heritage are of great importance, it will not be discussed here but acknowledged its Taoist interpretations and influences (De Bary & Bloom, 1999).

imperial government (Yao, 2000 p. 84). Confucianism emphasises the value of the scholar-official and the exam process that measured the knowledge of the classics and moral excellence that brought about the elite and privileged status of those in imperial China. Confucianism started as a philosophy and religious tradition (Yao, 2000) that from 770BC through today has experienced a multitude of adaptations largely uniform to the social and political changes of the particular historical timeframe. Hence, Confucianism is 'multi-dimensional' (Shi, 2006) in its different forms through history; "*a tradition generally rooted in Chinese culture and nurtured by Confucius and Confucians*" (Yao, 2000 p. 17), who were often the scholar-officials of the emperor and government of each particular time.

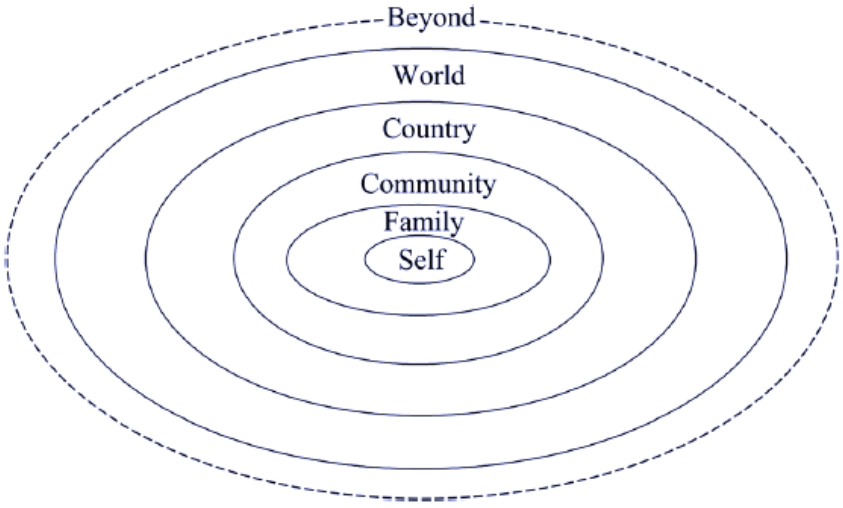
Even though Confucianism was attacked and adapted at various periods of history, it acquired elements of Taoism, in order to survive. Taoists' religious background, acquired from the more traditional nature-attuned beliefs such as the Yin-Yang principles (Yao, 2000; Kirkland, 2014), meant that Confucianism needed to compromise to some degree to satisfy both the government and the people, and thus it has endured.

Although uncertain in origin, the Yin-Yang traditions have endured embedded in the 'classical Taoist' together with the 'five forces' of nature (Kirkland, 2004 p. 31). Its mythological belief saw their harmonised combined forces create the world (Chan, 1999), symbolising balance. Despite the very long Chinese history, as Chan (1999) argues, some of the Yin-Yang features can still be found ingrained in today's culture (art, martial-arts, gardens). Contrary to the polarised contrast that Yin-Yang seems to portray, what one senses living here is the idea of harmony, balance, and an urge for finding the centre and middle ground of things (e.g. Mandarin offers at least five forms to express 'so-so'), which is partly the Ying-Yang balance of dual opposites; i.e. "*the paradoxical strength of passivity and the power of compliance are the central topics*" in Taoism (Lin et al., 2013 p. 91).

This search for the middle ground and happy medium can relate to Chan's (1999) argument about the misinterpretation amongst Taoists that at the time took literally '*wu wei*' or '*non-action*' and did nothing to avoid '*Tao*' (*creator*) taking the responsibility for their actions, leading to criticism for the "*decline of the Chinese society of the last 2000 years*" (Chun, 1991 as cited in Chan, 1999 p. 297). This can relate to the general avoidance of conflict,

which can be due to 'obedience', as in the Confucian ideology, or 'passivity' as in the Taoist – or perhaps, a general fear of the imperial constant conquering battles of the time. Yet, it seems to relate to the idea that one should look after oneself with views towards others' wellbeing – a Confucian and collectivist attitude (Shi, 2006). This collectivist attitude is depicted in Figure 1 with cosmic symbolisms illustrating relationships between the layers of self and others, which we consider social magnetic forces, and Tu (1997 as cited in Lu & Jover, 2019) labels '*anthropocosmic'*, since the Confucius anthropocentric dogma shares similarities with the cosmic dynamics. A further consideration to Chan´s argument is the loss of face; in that, it is better to do nothing rather than humiliating 'The *Creator*' dealing with the consequences of one's actions. In Taoism "*the morality is often regarded as the ideological summit of a scholar, as exemplified by the classical essay by Laozi (233BC*)" (Frankel, Leshner & Yang, 2016 p. 849). Hence, doing the right thing by doing nothing would project one's scholarly value (Yao, 2000).

Figure 1 – The Anthropocentric Confucian Philosophy and Anthropocosmic Symbolisms



"*The broadening process of the self. Reprinted from Confucian Thought: Selfhood as Creative Transformation*"

(Adapted from Tu, 1985, as cited in Lu and Jover, 2019, Fig. 2, p. 429)

It is noteworthy to highlight at this point that the depiction of Lu and Jover's (2019) above in Figure 1 comprises the emergence and developments of the Confucian Philosophy that responded to two thousand years of Taoism, Buddhism and utilitarianism immersion. The Song dynasty saw advances in the Confucian thought which were synthesised in particular

by Zhu Xi's (1130-1200) in '*Reflections of things at hand*' collection which portrays his version of the 'Succession of the Way' (daotong) an anthology that together with the 'Four Books' signify the key doctrines and players as the classic texts of the Neo-Confucian movement (De Bary & Bloom, 1999 p. 668).

These different ideologies can be subtle in the scheme of everyday learning and teaching; however, they can define particular moments in HE as a community collaborating and questioning knowledge (Figure 1). JD can bring the 'self' closer to this diverse community with the awareness of the important role these ideologies play in it various educational contexts.

2.2.2.2 Philosophy and Ramifications for Education

Education has had prevalent value throughout the dynasties. While Western philosophers, including Aristotle (383-322BCE), questioned the capabilities and potentials a person had through education, Confucianism valued the human ability to reach perfection, with maximum effort and support from family and those closest. The intrinsic motivation for learning was to develop one's own humanity, while the extrinsic was the offerings of the civil service status (Hayhoe , 2008 p. 33), hinting at Taoist and Confucian views respectively, and seemingly in an uncertain balance. While "*the emphasis that Confucians place upon learning is a method for improving one's own character and not for the sake of fame or praise from others*" (Yao, 2000 p.212), in a feudal society, encouraging a better life through the support of others suggests rather greater weight in the extrinsic motivators.

The crafted exam system initiated in the 6th century BC and continued, with adaptations, for a further thousand years, allowed equal opportunities to nearly all males to reach the heights of being scholar-officials, or civil servants. These government officials were the '*sidafu'* or '*literi'*, the intelligentsia of the Confucian society that stood above any manual labourer, craftsman or merchant (Hayhoe , 2008; Xiong, 2011). This is reflected today in the university choice of subject generally in business fields rather than technical ones. As Xiong (2011) asserts, the Confucian ideology has undermined the value of manual and practical professions, affecting the development of vocational education today. "*Those exploring the*

material aspect (such as natural science and technology) of learning were regarded as materialistic and tricky and had low social status" (Frankel et al., 2016 p. 849).

These exams tested memory, the understanding of the classics, political issues and morality (Durant, 1992 as cited in Xiong, 2011; Jin & Cortazzi, 2020). They were strict and competitive requiring many years of exhaustive study, though "*Confucians were [also] well known for their tireless chanting of ancient texts, singing of ancient songs and playing music…. as always, reciting and discussing their books*" as a form of expressing value to life rather than mere enjoyment, Yao (2000 p. 211) maintains. Contradictorily, it rather suggests practicality and pragmatism in the face of imperial exams. It is perhaps the historical endurance of these exhaustive and strict exam processes that transcended to today's emphasis on exams and the learning styles and approaches that embody current Chinese education (see Cortazzi & Jin, 2013 p. 6). Such is the *Gaokao* university entrance exam that curbs students' teen years on exams, determining, not only the calibre of the university at which they can enrol, but also their social status and future employability. The Confucian philosophy shapes approaches to learning, as "*education today still focuses on the acquisition of a vast store of knowledge through rote memorisation, at the expense of creativity*" (Chan, 1999 p. 228), even though stereotypes of traditional rote learning are fading with current developments in the Chinese education and cultural synergy (Jin & Cortazzi, 2020). This reflects parallel correlations with the pressure students experience today in academic achievements, family expectations and societal anticipations.

A reflection of this doctrine, as if a list of commandments, is provided by Yao (2000 p. 212) in his list of steps for learning. Drafted originally by Zhang Huang (1527–1608) a Confucian headmaster, it gives an idea of the principles and the discourse of the time (Table 1, bold my emphasis). Although dogmatic in nature, these steps are based on human willpower, social exchange with those closest, generational respect, emotion and conflict restraint, the value of investigation, the expansion of mind, and endurance until success.

Table 1 – Zhang Huang's (1527–1608) Steps for Learning

Steps for learning Zhang Huang (1527–1608)
1. The foundation of learning is an **established will.**
2. The principle of learning is to **promote humaneness (仁 *ren*) through gathering with friends.**
3. The pathway to learning is the **investigation of things and the extension of knowledge.**
4. The **regulator of learning is caution and fear.**
5. The true ground of learning is **filial piety, respect for elders, earnestness and faithfulness.**
6. The certification of learning is the **controlling of anger, checking of desires, and moving to the good.**
7. The last measure of learning is the **complete development of one's nature until destiny is fulfilled.**
8. The proof of **good faith in learning** is in **searching out the ways of old and mining the classics**

(Adapted from Yao, 2000 p. 212)

The prominence in the "*value of harmony, urging individuals to adapt to the collectivity, to control their emotions, to avoid conflict, and to maintain inner harmony*" (Kirkbride and Tang, 1992 as cited in Chan, 1999 p. 298) may explain how thoughts and actions closely relate to their significance to prior, present and future generations, in the inner circle in Figure 1, rather than to oneself (Chan, 1999). Consequently, the social construct is generationally founded with the responsibility placed on students and their capabilities to enrol in key universities, as expectations and hard work mount from previous generations; parents, family, friends and country relying on their success:

> "*Confucianism today is all about the correct observation of human relationships within a hierarchically orientated society. In particular, the key emphasis on the family is manifested in the five constant virtues and corresponding cardinal relationships as shown [below]:*" (Oh, 1991 as cited in Chan, 1999 p. 298).

Table 2 – Virtues and Cardinal Relationships

Constant virtues:	Cardinal relationships:
(1) Filial piety.	(1) Father and son.
(2) Faithfulness.	(2) Husband and wife.
(3) Brotherhood.	(3) Elder and younger brother.
(4) Loyalty.	(4) Monarch and subject.
(5) Sincerity.	(5) Between friends

(Adapted from Oh, 1991, as cited in Chan, 1999 p.298)

Tables 1 and 2, together with Figure 1, help us to understand the relationship between self and the social construct in the Confucian paradigm. Table 2 provides a simplified way to identify key factors that are observable in the classroom, as well as living in the country. Factors including the teacher-student relationship (Chan, 1999) or sincerity in the discussion of academic integrity (Frankel et al., 2016); Lu and Jover (2019 p. 423) "*argue that despite being based on European models, the Chinese university, in fact, boasts a unique Chinese character that can be traced back to its Confucian learning traditions*", claiming that these traits can contribute to the university globally with its human focus and 'continuum consisting of community', what they call an anthropocosmic character. Indeed, Chinese cultural characteristics can add value to the university at large, that up-to-now has been driven by western values. This is in part the argument here with the idea that programmes such as JD can blend teaching approaches and procedures to meet a variety of learning styles (Wong, 2004).

In a brief depiction of what is entailed within the main character of traditional Chinese cultures, one observes a perfect structure with two opposing forces in constant balance as a pendulum: placing oneself at the centre of a hierarchically organised but interactive social structure, and another allowing natural cycles transporting the self in an organic manner (as in classical expressions of art), while Yin-Yang provides an equilibrium of the two concurrently, i.e. in a dynamic equilibrated balance, since the Yin-Yang is not one extreme

or the other, but part of the other and reciprocally eventually becomes the other (Simpson, 2003 p. 96), as visually portrayed in the iconic symbol of cyclicity.

The literature offers other interpretations, philosophies and religions with less extreme or polarised perspectives than these two philosophies seem to insinuate, but it is in the experiences of life in China that one does encounter polarised situations and that pose interesting questions about these polarities.

Confucianism, thus, seems to relate to correctness, being disciplined, obedience to laws and social structures, while Taoism relates rather to human need for humility and to some degree a tolerance of a free mind and experimentation. Wu (2004) argues, in Simpson's (2003) book review, that traditional classrooms include some experimental learning, and vice-versa, one presumes. The literature can differ in the interpretation of what signifies these ideologies to the different relationships and workings of the classroom and in today's education system. Also not included here, are the questions that Western philosophical values pose in the discussion of education, so as to understand students' behaviour and learning needs. However, it might be in similarities between philosophies and the balance in learning and teaching where a variety of approaches can facilitate best practices.

2.3 Collaboration in Higher Education

Collaboration is an integral part of the workings of this university. It collaborates with its British and Chinese counterparts, cooperates with outside parties in research and local industries, and on campus departments increasingly jointly deliver their courses.

This section explores the concept of *collaboration* in this context, its components and characteristics, the types of collaboration that have evolved in and outside the classroom, and the collaborative workings of content-language and multidisciplinary models serving HE.

2.3.1 Collaboration – Definition and Characteristics

In understanding JD, based on departmental collaborations in planning, delivery and assessment for a variety of modules, we explore here the definition of *collaboration*, its

characteristics, the potentials of organic collaboration, and the attitudes and contributions to learning and teaching.

2.3.1.1 Definition

Education fosters a culture of collaboration and cooperation. Embroiled in a network of tasks, it is based on collective work (Grangeat & Gray, 2008) and grounded in teamwork in learning and teaching (Snyder, 2009). Yet, the concept of *collaboration* does not seem to have an explicit definition. As Croker (2016) declares, "*it seemed that because collaboration is a familiar word used in everyday language, this very familiarity created problems when the concept and phenomenon became the objects of investigation*" (p.56).

Depending on context, there are multiple combinations of interpretation that can confine the idea of working together. However, a more explicit definition is provided by Friend and Cook (2014 p. 7) whose extensive work focuses on schools' collaborations in special education providing integrated and inclusive learning to students with some level of learning impediment. In their work they assure that a more explicit definition of what *collaboration* entails can ultimately provide greater support to: 1) describe practices; 2) establish initiatives and approaches; and, 3) set potential collaborative interactions. Thus, Friend and Cook (2014) find *collaboration* to be a 'unique professional concept' defined as:

> *"Interpersonal collaboration is a style for direct interaction between at least two coequal parties voluntarily engaged in shared decision making as they work towards a common goal" (Friend & Cook, 2014 p. 8)*

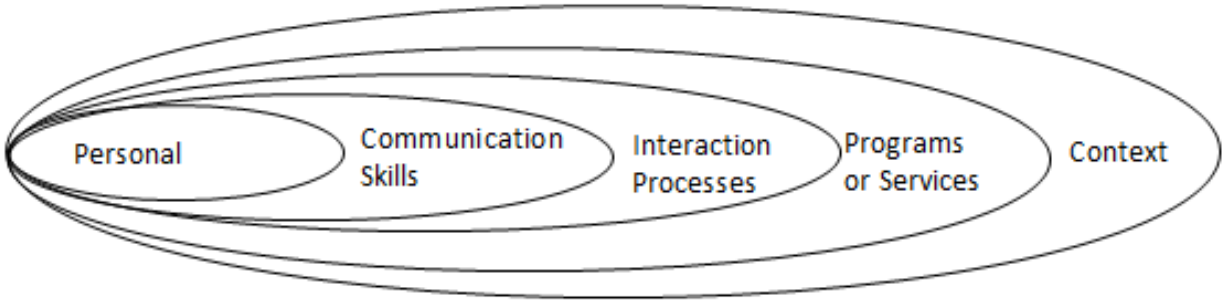
Friend and Cook (2014) further stress that the concept of 'interpersonal style' allows recognising different personalities employing different interacting forms, since these may differ between people. Further noting that 'style' helps in differentiating between the 'nature of the interpersonal relationship' and the actual 'activity' shared. Hence, "*collaboration is a style of interaction*" (p. 8) manifesting in particular tasks.

In sharing common principles, Healthcare offers important definitions to the notion of *collaboration*. Along with the above definition, Croker, Trede and Higgs (2014) differentiate between the concept of *collaboration* and the act of collaborating, highlighting the

importance between having the notion and having the experience. This is central to this study, since *collaboration* is viewed as an experienced phenomenon core to human endeavour.

Friend and Cook's (2014) work is also significant here, as they provide detailed analysis of collaborative skills and processes, together with a holistic overview of what *collaboration* entails. They offer a framework that scaffolds the necessary components of *collaboration*. From the personal commitment that one places on the interrelationship of exchanges, to the skills needed for these, the processes involved, the facilities provided to achieve the interaction, and the context that wraps them all.

Figure 2 – Components of Collaboration



(Extracted from Friend and Cook, 2014 pp. 25)

Paradoxically, Friend and Cook's (2014) symbolic representation of their framework in Figure 2 exhibits similarities to that of Confucianism's in Figure 1 with the centre 'self' and its commitments to the larger social construct. The 'self' or 'personal' here can be attributed to the perks of collaboration, such as personal and professional development. The 'communication' and 'interaction processes' in Figure 2 may relate to relationships with 'family' and the 'community' in Figure 1. Ultimately, the two figures symbolise human nature as a social construct.

2.3.1.2 Characteristics of collaboration

Similarities in Health and Education help scaffold the notion of *collaboration*. Their core service functions require a good number of collaborating networks sharing the goal of providing for their users. Authors in both fields share two main elements: a 'common goal'

for the collaboration to occur, and having a system of 'different interacting forms' according to context (Friend & Cook, 2014; Croker et al., 2014). Friend and Cook (2014) identify the core characteristics in collaborations (Table 3), providing great detail of the parameters, achievements and problem-solving techniques required in collaborative settings.

Table 3 – Characteristics of Collaboration

Voluntary	• Collaboration cannot be forced • It needs action, inclusivity and diversity
Parity	• Contribution and decision making are of equal value in a diverse group regardless of seniority, gender, age, culture, race, etc.
Mutual goals	• Collaboration has at least one goal, if not more • This one goal should be 'the greater goal' or the common commitment (e.g. to best meet the interest of the students)
Shared responsibilities and decision-making	• A shared participation in task completion in a 'convenient division of labour", implying not necessarily equal shared but equal in decision making • (I would add, a logically efficient share of tasks)
Share of resources	• It takes many forms depending on task and professional resources; e.g. time and availability, technical knowledge, access to assisting contacts, sharing motivation to collaboration, and in achieving the best possible outcome
Share of accountability of outcomes	• Shared accountability of either positive or negative outcomes o e.g. reflected in students learning outcomes and whether collaboration influences learning.

(Adapted from Friend and Cook, 2014 pp. 8-11)

This detailed outline (Table 3) provides a platform to identify levels of collaboration in a team. By focusing on the individuals involved, these characteristics help recognise success in particular areas of the collaboration and precise aspects that need modifying and developing further. As individuals value their collaborations, the potential of future success would improve the learning outcomes, nourishing and strengthening in time the trust in one another: thus, building a sense of community and acquiring equilibrium between strengths and weaknesses (Friend & Cook, 2014). Through collaboration individuals can generate a sense of ownership and commitment, while learning professionally from each other, and intensifying the motivation to collaborate, share resources, and build trust.

2.3.1.3 Organic collaboration

Collaboration seems to exhibit a great deal of positivity. Such is people's natural behaviour, it can pose a variety of challenges and complexities in reaching balance in agency as trust and patience are built up over time. Croker et al. (2014; Croker, Higgs, & Trede, 2016) categorise collaboration into two main modes: *ordered* and *organic*. An ordered mode comprises the idea of structure, where efficiency and effectiveness are the purposes, and discipline and planning are the processes. An organic mode consists of awareness of synergy, where the focus is on the individuals building plasticity to the collaborative undertakings, generating *creativity, trust, respect, taking initiative, willingness and responsibility*. As Croker et al. (2014, 2016) further illustrate, different degrees of both modes are present in collaborations, while all the elements are confined within a four-dimensional alignment: *people, place, purpose* and *process*. Although regarded as resources, *time*, *space* and *proximity* can be added dimensions to collaboration in Education, since they affect the outcome of other dimensions.

Croker (2016) studies the above dimensions in relation to the rationale presented in definitions of collaboration across various domains in the literature. She finds that authors emphasise particular dimensions over others regarding their context, rather that providing an understanding of what *collaboration* is, an otherwise fairly common word. This, however, elucidates the complexity of this phenomenon and its variability.

Croker's (2016) work provides a platform to organise and locate themes with some level of flexibility. For instance, Massey (2016) in her experience as a healthcare practitioner, collaborated with a schoolteacher in the recovery of a child with brain injury, finding a pattern to their collaborative process: "*starting out in the interactive space*", "*moving into the collaborative space*" and "*embracing the collaborative space*" (p. 205). This suggests a longitudinal process with resources such as mutuality and persistence. The latter seems more accentuated in Massey's account as she finds the need for 'tenacity' in cooperating with the schoolteacher. Even though she recognises the tensions of the profession, this implies differences in perceptions with distinct foci in different fields, whilst collaborating towards their common goal, the welfare of the child. These experiences and collaborative

processes can help identify elements in collaborations between lecturers working together in HE.

In evaluating organic collaboration in a larger community, Fisher, Squires and Woodley, (2016) also employ Croker's (2016) platform arguing that an overbalance of rules and regulations can be overwhelming, while 'behind the scenes' collaborations can be more rewarding and resourceful with participants "*fostering connections, using imagination, being resourceful, and ensuring vigilance*" (Fisher et al., 2016 p. 211). These suggest a greater weight in the *organic* mode than in the *ordered* mode, where rules and policies are embedded reinforcing the qualities of the *organic* mode in community engagements.

With a greater focus on education and on mature students, Littlefield, Taddei and Radosh (2015) use a reflective questionnaire to analyse their collaboration through their doctoral studies. They identify four main building blocks in their *organic* collaboration: *a common goal* or purpose generating shared attitude and motivation; *group dynamics* that can vary in levels of support and commitment, amongst others; *peer-to-peer support,* emerging as a community of practice of shared interests; and, *intentional relational learning*, or learning through reciprocal sharing of ideas (Figure 3).

Figure 3 – Nested Venn diagram of Organic Collaboration

(Extracted from Littlefield, Taddei and Radosh, 2015 p.138)

These blocks offer a simple platform to identify *organic* collaborations. This type of collaboration, however, "*occurred in a naturally evolving, rather organic way*" (Littlefield et al., 2015 p.130), which perhaps in a study with more diverse, larger, less closer groups, or without multiple shared goals or similarities (e.g. their doctorate, journal paper, demographic factors, etc.) would have provided some variance to its issues and added extra factors to some of these themes. Yet, Littlefield et al. (2015) provide an important definition to consider for a term that it is rarely discussed in the literature: organic collaboration, "*a*

*naturally formed dynamic peer to peer support group, built on individual strengths and differences, while focused on a common goa*l" (p.131).

One aspect in this definition prompts questions about the ways in which these collaborations are 'naturally formed'. One tactic may be in utilising settings and spaces that are less constrained than that of the formalities of offices and classrooms. As Littlefield et al. (2015) explain, "*[i]ntentional relational learning includes opportunities for Faculty and students to interact and learn with one another in settings that are collaborative and may not only occur in an academic setting*" (p. 137). Massey (2016) and Fisher et al. (2016) also point out the importance of embracing informal spaces as settings for interaction. Thus, in collaborative settings, where learning is not implied, it can be rewarding and encouraging to encounter structures for learning and the motivation to sustain collaborations.

The *learning* component in the theme *intentional relational learning* is also of interest. Even though structures have been placed in the collaboration for the participants to learn (Holloway & Alexandre, 2012), it poses the question whether the learning manifests itself unintentionally, as a natural occurrence in the collaborative endeavours, or whether learning occurs either with or without realising it is taking place. Elements of this realisation could affect or boost other elements and motivate the collaboration (Weiler, 2004; MacLeod, Yang & Xiang, 2017).

2.3.1.4 Collaboration in Learning, Attitudes and Benefits

The learning benefits in collaborative and interactive tasks are often assumed to be embedded in class activities; seldom are these explained to students on how they can assist their learning. Yet, collaborative tasks are considered important learning and teaching tools for developing students' teamwork and 'soft skills' that are often required in business and future professional activities (Bravo, Catalán, & Pina, 2019). They also "*improve understanding and performance*", as Vangrieken, Dochy, Raes, and Kyndt (2015 p. 27) find in their review of the literature in the field. However, practices may depend on the beliefs of teachers/lecturers about the beneficial scope of collaborative learning (De Hei, Strijbos, Sjoer & Admiraal, 2015). In their mixed-methods study with 100 lecturers, De Hei et al. (2015) find inconsistencies between practices and lecturers' belief in this approach. If this is

the case, when it comes to their collaboration, teamwork or even co-teaching, practitioners may encounter a 'paradox' between independent work, as traditionally teaching is viewed, and collaborating with colleagues in all aspects of teaching (Vangrieken, Grosemans, Dochy, and Kyndt, 2017), even when instructors collaborating brings such benefits to their learning and teaching.

Collaboration between teachers and lecturers in and out of the classrooms can illustrate and motivate students in collaborative tasks, reflecting all its benefits. For instance, Rice and Pinnegar (2010), who embarked on an exploration of their own collaboration, as school and university teachers respectively, posed the question on the potentiality of 'sustain collaborations'. They found interactions to be more sustainable and effective when incorporating informal settings. They claim "*being engaged in learning, conversation, and good food…drifted toward curriculum development, especially the kind of development that gave students new physical, intellectual, and social experiences*" (Rice & Pinnegar, 2010 p. 375). A combination of formal and informal effective interactions can help students develop their social skills. As Austin (2001) finds in a mixed methods examination of factors affecting collaborating teachers at various schools: "*according to the majority of co-teachers, inclusion facilitated the social development of students, with and without disabilities, in the classrooms; however, this perception was based on teacher observation of students' behaviour in response to collaborative teaching*" (p. 254). Thus, according to these observations, the effect of collaborative teaching can provide added value to the learning and social development of students, which seems key in today's technologically individualised societal trends.

Collaborations do not only occur in the classroom, but also in all settings where a teacher is present. A teacher's mind does not reboot after each class interaction, it absorbs material to transform into active tasks for the following session; it makes connections with its environment. Hence communication and collaboration with other teachers and the larger world is part of that constant learning and development of their private and community self.

Grangeat and Gray (2008) highlight that "*teachers' work involves collective processes which underpin both their professional development as individuals and their potential efficiency as*

team members" (p. 177). They identify this as 'collective work' implementing 'collective activities' that evolve as not 'just incidental interactions', but as a network of workflow (Grangeat & Gray, 2008). Their investigation explores teachers' competence in organising and developing 'collective work'. They identify two forms of organisations: a vertical one with delegation of work, and a horizontal one with agents of equal status sharing tasks. Categorising also three modes that may overlap in practice, though, bundles collective work into: 1) a share of tasks and goals, 2) a share of support and space, not necessarily common goals, and 3) short-term cooperation towards a shared greater purpose. Grangeat and Gray (2008 p. 180) advocate for management and administration to facilitate collective work as a means to encourage development of work teachers inevitably do on a regular basis, and consequently benefit their classrooms and education at large. For instance, English teachers in many Chinese universities and middle schools frequently work in collaborating teams for planning specific skill-related teaching sessions, solving problems related to student learning, co-constructing knowledge, or reflecting on teaching (Fang, 2010); often this is normal practice in organic mode to share ideas, explanations, and pedagogic techniques socially for immediate tasks and goals.

Facilitating spaces and collective tasks for long and short term, formal and informal settings can encourage collaborations in any learning and teaching environment, thus assisting the paradoxes teachers may face in co-teaching or *teaming* (Vangrieken, et al., 2017). That is, providing greater support and value to building collaborations and relationships as a principle would encourage not only work satisfaction, but indirectly construct a better learning experience for the student.

It is important to recognise and analyse existing collaborations. It may require significant commitment and conviction; however, their benefits can be significant to all the stakeholders at the professional and personal levels. In complex collaborations such as community or interdisciplinary interactions, an *ordered mode* can be seen as more operational, though it can affect the organic and human component, which the literature shows to be often more fruitful in education. Achieving an *organic mode* of collaboration and sustaining this cooperation and learning momentum has its difficult beginnings and may

take time, but it can provide rich added value to teachers in the collaboration and to students serving as models contributing to skills in team working and wider social skills.

2.3.2 Types of Collaboration in Instruction

The literature offers a range of interactive forms of collaboration that suggest process and progression. Friend and Cook (2014) initiated the conversation in the meaning of an effective collaboration concluding that all collaborations have a 'life-cycle' and the need of a 'common goal'. Contributing to these are Dudley-Evans and St John's (1998) three levels of collaboration, and Baeten and Simons's (2014) five models of team-teaching.

Friend and Cook's (2014) work on special education is extensive and well denoted. They, refer to Tuckman's (1967) stages of group development or collaborative life-cycle. Four phases are highlighted: team *forming*, through a set of polite encounters and tests; *storming,* confronting and controlling difficulties; *norming*, generating, sharing organising ideas; and *performing,* including closeness, openness and effectiveness. These stages seem appropriate and standard to most forms of collaborations with long-term views to consolidate and maintain collaborative teams, as they may be to most industries, and perhaps crucial to assisted schools. For institutions with complex and high turnover, however, time can limit rapport building and this is often a limitation in HE.

In content-language collaborations in HE, language support specialists, Dudley-Evans and St John (1998), identify three levels of collaboration distinguishing them by their intensity and dynamism: *cooperation*, *collaboration* and *team-teaching*. In *cooperation*, the language specialist in English for Specific Purposes (ESP) courses makes enquiries about the subject content to enhance the delivery. In *collaboration* the two parties work towards a common goal by either delivering the content of the topic separately from the ESP teacher who provides the related language aspects, or by the content specialist assisting the ESP specialist with aspects of the subject matter. When *Team-teaching* occurs, each teacher provides support in the classroom in both fields. Team-teaching suggests greater cohesion in establishing structures of coordination, planning and time management, thus, potentially inviting more collaboration in instruction in settings where these departmental collaborations would rarely take place. However, as Austin (2001) demonstrates in special

education, collaborative teaching is not always perceived positively in practice. Co-teaching is found to be a worthwhile experience, but without receiving the same value in practice as in theory.

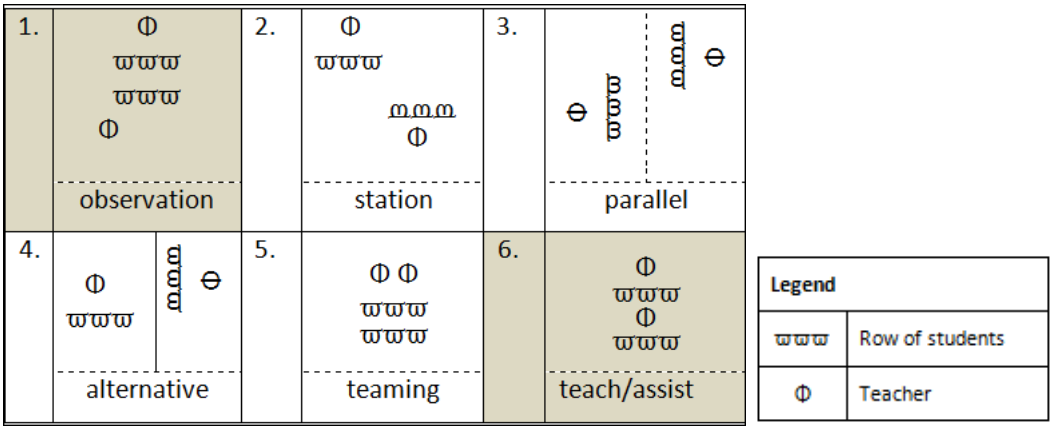
In ESP provision, on the other hand, Almagro and Vallejo (2002) find positive effects when observing the Dudley-Evans and St John's (1998) cooperative stages and the potential of their collaborative factors. They observe that collaborations occur in a progressive manner and that there is a need for an early demarcation of roles to be able to succeed in the workings of the relationship. In their attempt to include students in the study's discussions of their collaboration, they find that although it had a risk factor, students can add value to their collaborations, contributing more holistically as they all learn from everyone's perspective, and thus enhancing the learning and teaching experience.

2.3.2.1 Collaboration, Team-teaching and Co-teaching

The literature can be confusing regarding the terminology of these types of interactions, as well as the level of intensity or closeness of these collaborations. Above, we interrelated team-teaching with co-teaching, as is often observed in the literature discussing teacher collaboration. For instance, Friend and Cook (2014) discuss the topic in terms of co-teaching in special education, while Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) label it team-teaching. Considerations should be made in the differences between interactions between schools and that of universities. Thus, it is important to highlight some of the differences between the designated names and the types of particular forms of collaboration in instruction.

Baeten and Simons (2014) explore peer-reviewed literature from the start of the century through to 2013 to classify models of team-teaching. They identify a collection of terms and models that can be applied to different educational situations: special education, teacher training, general educators, and unspecified content-language teaching. They observe five models differentiated by the collaboration's intensity and closeness in teacher training, while in special education Friend and Cook (2014) categorise more specifically the corresponding "*co-teaching approaches*" in the classroom (p. 132-140, Figure 4).

Figure 4 – Co-teaching Approaches



(Adapted from Friend and Cook, 2014 Figure 1. p. 133)

Baeten and Simons (2014) offer guidelines that allow grouping these models into two main clusters in relation to the closeness of their collaboration and from the perspective of the teachers, rather than the trainee. A lighter collaboration includes models where one teacher either observes, coaches or assists (1 and 6 in Figure 4.), while the other teacher takes the responsibility for the delivery, and in some cases planning and course assessment without necessarily in cooperation with the first teacher. The purpose here may be for training, professional development or both, having different specialities that need to be delivered separately. There might be questions and interaction during the sessions, with some prior agreement and coordination taking place. These models can be positive, as Baeten and Simons (2014) find in their review, in that teachers can learn from each other, may complement each other in assisting students, bring additional perspectives, and add value with skills such as a second/third language (L2/L3). This group of models are teachers who are assisted by peers by providing support to the dynamics of the classroom, though they may have a different status or they may be perceived differently.

The group of models not shaded in Figure 4, give both teachers equal status (Baeten & Simons, 2014 p. 94). Teachers in *sequential* or *alternative* teaching, *parallel* teaching, *stationary* teaching, and *teaming* models have equivalent responsibility, as they both are engaged in delivery and support, as well as planning and other duties outside the classroom.

Sequential or *alternative* teaching provides the opportunity to divide the class into smaller and larger groups to provide additional support and directly attend to the students' learning needs, while teachers may alternate between groups. In the *stationary* mode, teachers provide their set of activities in their stations while students move from one station to the other. In the *parallel* model both teachers plan and teach the same material but perhaps adapted to the needs of each group and, as in the sequential model, teachers may rotate between groups. Full cooperation is seen in the *teaming* model where both teachers engage on planning, assessment and instruction. This last model has the prospect for an organic collaboration with greater instances of discussion and coordination in delivery (Friend & Cook, 2014).

In the case of one teacher leaving the classroom, as Baeten & Simons (2014) suggest for *sequential* teaching, co-teaching would not occur, nor would it for the assisting approach as discussed previously. Co-teaching needs planning, interaction and inclusion in all aspects of the experience. In HE, alternative, stationary and parallel models can be useful in working with large groups, in for instance providing the same material adjusted to different levels when working with mixed abilities in content or L2, or groups preparing for interactive activity that blends the groups together in discussion later, such as in a jigsaw task.

In HE these collaboration processes help the students' learning experience to excel. As Wenger and Hornyak (1999 p. 312) argue, "*[a]s educators, we must help students learn how to learn … [t]eam teaching is not an end in itself, but rather a way to accomplish explicit learning outcomes*". For instance, a good manager would not rely on others for confirmation, nor would they expect one right answer (or any answer at all). Students trained to expect these would lack managerial skills, as well as the inability to attend to today's demands in science and technology that, compared to the year of this published work, echo ever louder with the global instability in environmental, technical and ethical standards, as well as the added contemporary complexities of greater knowledge. Thus, "*education must help students develop flexibility, analytic awareness, and a self-critical value system*" (Wenger & Hornyak, 1999 p. 312). To this end, students trained under a Confucian ideology aiming for one answer, based on reproducing the classics or fostering

techniques to pass exams, such as the *Gaokao* entrance exam, may encounter difficulties in becoming team members, managers, or civil servants in today's wider world.

How the term teacher has been conceptualised has changed through time towards a more student inclusive teaching approach rather than "*the omniscient authority who transmits knowledge to passive recipients*" (Hanusch, Obijiofor, & Volcic, 2009 p. 66). Although, this is still a common preconception (Vangrieken et al., 2015) in Confucian societies with generational and hierarchical exchanges, as in the past in modern China, co-teaching or *teaming* is an approach that universities globally may adopt as a means of adaptation to meet the logistical needs of the massification in HE (Altbach, 2007a).

For effective team teaching or co-teaching Friend and Cook (2014) suggest considering the following factors, which we group here into two. One considers the students' learning needs, the ecology or natural balance of the students as a group, and the related learning outcomes and curriculum. The other relates to co-teaching where practitioners consider practices and teaching approaches, their teaching comfort zone and skills and the time available. These considerations may seem evident but important to highlight, as co-teaching has an additional layer added to the different factors that need to be decided before embarking on co-teaching, such as the structure, form of delivery, and approach to instruction; "[w]*orking within these elements, they design many creative strategies that bring out the best in students and teachers*" (Friend & Cook, 2014 p. 132).

Authors have differentiated between collaboration and teamwork, since this can pinpoint specific aspects of the action of collaborating; they have identified the importance of collective work as a broader branch where work is done collectively; and, pinpointed co-teaching approaches of which the dynamics may depend on the collective work and conceptualisation on collaboration. All in all, through team teaching students are exposed to specialists, a mixture of viewpoints, a variety of staff members (Hanusch et al., 2009), and an up-to-date account of the subject matter. When it is organised in a collaborative manner with the inclusion of students in the discussion of the collaboration, as learning peers with teachers, for instance in the inclusion of students in the development of ESP lessons when

the subject is the core, but not the specialist (Almagro & Vallejo, 2002), it is then when social construct is formed though collaboration.

2.3.3 Collaboration in Content and Language Delivery Models

2.3.3.1 English for Academic Purposes and English for Specific Purposes

The 1970s observed a greater need for English language skills and academic studies. Higher Education experienced significant changes in the UK. As university funding was reduced during the Thatcher government (1979-1990), increasing fees were charged to international students, and universities underwent closer consideration on how to justify the costs and cater best for their international market, bringing more strategic and innovative approaches to meet these particular learning needs (Ennew & Fujia, 2009). Today, collaborations such as this university and its key British partner reach further to provide students with these skills.

Associations such as BALEAP in the UK (British Association of Lecturers in English for Academic Purposes) further professionalised the status of lecturers that mostly catered to these international students in EAP courses (Jordan, 1997; Ding & Bruce, 2017). Globally today, most universities offer EAP provision with extended courses during the term providing support alongside the students' degrees (in-sessional), or short periods as foundation courses prior to the semester (pre-sessional).

The significant and gradual increase of international students in later years (see HESA, 2018) has led to a significant 'seasonal' demand for EAP practitioners and with this, an expansion of an industry that mainly depends on international intake. These are often mistaken with the teaching of general English (TESOL) or the specialised ESP. As Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) note, there is a thin line between the three since the teacher may act as language consultant in interactions within all three approaches. The main EAP applications, however, are in providing the academic skills that will enable students to succeed in their English medium universities.

To Jordan (1997 p. 5) "*the study skills is the key component in EAP*" rather than the English language teaching. The range of each component may, however, depend on students' learning needs and their academic background. Study skills can range from note taking and

synthesising, to writing specific styles and genres, to seminar skills. As a consequence, EAP can be relevant for all students since it does not relate to specific subjects or nativity, as English native speakers may also be in the need of such skills (Jordan, 1997).

In our focus on the Chinese learner, the differences lay in the educational conventions that differ from those of the UK, as we encounter in this Sino-British University. As Jordan (1997 p. 5) indicates, there is added complexity to the background bonds in "*the different cultural conventions involved in academic argument*" where it may seem confrontational to a Chinese student to have intensive discussions in a seminar, or confusing to deal with academic integrity conventions for writing (Frankel et al., 2016).

EAP practitioners recognise the essential elements that students need to succeed in academia, not only in language abilities but also in academic literacy, genres, structure, organisation of ideas, and the overall culture and ethos of the academic world. Conversely, this is not often recognised by academic staff in departments. As Sloan and Porter (2010) find in their evaluation of an EAP in-sessional course in the UK, "[t]*he view within the Business School was that EAP programmes focused on English language features, not academic literacy*", only recognising this later by "*examin[ing] the EAP programme and realis[ing] the value of the EAP tutor in developing the academic literacy skills of their students*" (p. 202). Consequently, EAP contributes, not only to these courses at university level, but also to the access and balance of international scholarship (Li, Cargill, Gao, Wang, & O'Connor, 2019) and with this, a greater global share of knowledge. A wider use of the Internet in education has also meant changes in some of the ideologies and cultural ethos in policies and conventions in avoiding plagiarism. Thus, EAP meets the gap in the differences in approaching writing and the use of digital information in academia, whilst more is needed in aspects such as critical reading and the evaluation of sources.

ESP is similar in many respects, though it differs with EAP in its disciplinary focus. This in part provides the student with a clearer view of the reasons in pursuing an EAP/ESP course, as it connects the subject matter of their degree with the particular academic literacy elements of these extra courses. ESP is "*an approach to language teaching in which all decisions as to content and method are based on the learner's reason for learning*" (Hutchinson and

Waters, 1987 p. 17). These courses are however, in many cases, established preconditions to acceptance in their particular degrees. Nonetheless, the focus in ESP provides the students with particular language aspects in register and genre that school textbooks neglect, such as language forms that are more common when studying in depth the particular field at university; "*for example, compound nouns, passives, conditionals, anomalous finites (i.e. modal verbs)... the ESP course should, therefore, give precedence to these forms*" (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987 p. 10).

Team-teaching can also contribute to the rationale of EAP/ESP courses, where specialists in subject and language jointly teach in one or more of the formats discussed above. Even when "*these joint ventures can be time consuming*", as Jordan (1997 p. 121) argues, the shared benefits for students and tutors are significant in authenticity, genre analysis, close information from the discipline, including the credibility of the course; "*the students see that their subject tutors take the EAP/ESAP classes seriously*" (Jordan, 1997 p. 121).

Jordan recognises the potential obstacles in team-teaching, pointing out "*not the least of which may be a reluctance on the part of the subject department*" (Jordan, 1997 p. 121). However, he sees its potentials if there is willingness to collaborate, a demarcation of responsibilities, an awareness of each other's teaching preferences and approaches, and a clear complementary teaching in the classroom. These elements aiding team teaching to succeed are also supported by Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) on their ESP discussion, where they classify three levels: collaboration, cooperation and team-teaching, as mentioned above, adding that "*EAP needs both its general component and its specific component*" (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998 p. 52). Hence, EAP does cover a significant number of elements contributing to all aspects of academia in both general and specific approaches, while ESP has a more cross-disciplinary dimension to it with closer engagement with the disciplines in teaching and in research (Dudley-Evans & St. John 1998 p.17).

The specificity in ESP prompts questions regarding the level of knowledge the language specialist should have on the subject matter. In this regard, however, there are specialised linguists that enter a narrow but focused literature on fields such as mathematics (Creese, 2005). For instance, González-Ardeo (2012) employs a set of communicative principles in

the EAP/ESP courses designed to evaluate students' perceptions of their teachers' engagement in engineering. Although in his five year-long study students show a positive and progressive understanding of the courses' aims and their teachers' purpose, González-Ardeo (2012) still finds that the "*lack of background knowledge, unfamiliar ideas and vocabulary can discourage ESP practitioners*" (p. 230). Even so, the students can benefit from this lack, since students need to place extra effort in providing detailed explanations of their understanding of the subject, with further organising of ideas and practice of L2, while at the same time, obtaining specialist feedback on linguistic and communicative skills. Still, "*the ESP/EAP practitioner is supposed to have not only functional academic literacy but also content knowledge of the field*" (p. 233), reinforcing thus, González-Ardeo's (2012) argument that there is indeed an overlap between the ESP and EAP approaches: in preparation, planning, delivery, and assessment.

2.3.3.2 Content Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) in Higher Education (ICLHE)

Since ESP took its first steps in the 1960s, an increasing number of frameworks and learning contexts have developed and matured in a growing trend towards language and content integration and in establishing collaborations and team-teaching scenarios (Jacobs, 2005; Gustafsson & Jacobs, 2013; Dafouz, 2014; Leonardi, 2015).

Some of these initiatives have transformed the education system in Europe where the aim has been to standardise Higher Education (Bologna Declaration in 1999), recognise degrees across countries (Lisbon Convention in 1997), and utilise standardised frameworks for evaluating and assessing language abilities (CEFR). These have energised student and academic mobility promoting plurilingualism and pluriculturalism (Leonardi, 2015; Filipovic, 2015; Coyle, 2018)

An initiative that is generating pragmatic literature in education recently is integrating a second or third language with subject content or CLIL. Although initiated with the idea of promoting multilingualism for young students by blending an L2 with their school subjects, this approach is also generating literature involving similar proposals at university level (ICLHE) (Valcke & Wilkinson, 2017; Wilkinson, 2018).

The idea of blending and integrating a second language with content conveys in a young and large body of literature that includes a good number of frameworks, terminologies and acronyms that vary in complexity, context and interpretation (Coyle, 2018). Hence, authors such as Coyle (2018), Gustafsson and Jacobs (2013) recognise ICLHE as the umbrella acronym for HE, even though CLIL is often cited for any level in education. Despite their similarities, adopting either of these two acronyms for this study can be conflicting, since they do not comprise the whole essence of the phenomenon. Joint Delivery, rather, seems to suggest two different entities that went out of their way to work together towards a greater and common goal, including the university's Sino-British joint venture. This suggests a greater spectrum and flexibility to its meaning, such as in 'joint-degree' or 'joint teaching programmes' (Altbach, 2007a). As Coyle, (2018 p. 166) puts it, CLIL "*raises constant questions about the nature of its pedagogic and linguistic demand and the quality of learning outcomes*", suggesting different voices in administrative, learning and teaching experiences, with their various outcomes.

The pedagogic nature of CLIL/ICHE is often unclear in the literature as to whether it is team-taught, with the content and language specialists collaborating in all the teaching related aspects of a programme, or otherwise, taught in a second language by the subject specialist. Coyle (2018 p. 167) finds in CLIL "*a subject teacher taught a curricular subject through the medium of another European language*", thus evoking common features with the EMI models and recognised in joint-venture universities (Brown, 2017), such as is the case of this transnational university where all subjects are taught in L2/L3 for most students.

The literature is also based mostly on the language and micro-levels perspectives, rather than on content or the macro-levels in broader studies (Gustafsson & Jacobs, 2013). This is likely to be due to its initial aim in enhancing students' use of L2/L3 through language inclusion in the schools' curricula, as well as starting to conceptualise pedagogic approaches for L2 use in originally monolingual schools. Still, significant empirical research resonates regarding pre-university education (Creese, 2002, 2005; Pavon-Vázquez & Mendez-García, 2017) offering insights, frameworks and collaborations to HE as enquiries emphasise more explicitly collaborative approaches in team-teaching (Arno-Macia & Mancho-Bares, 2014; Brown, 2017; Li et al. 2019). However, despite apparent similarities and parallels, not all the

experiences and conclusions drawn in schools' research is transferable to universities, since the learning outcomes, objectives, and students' level differ. For universities, English is the vehicle by which knowledge is acquired, rather than the goal, as well as the channel through which the university enhances its profile and diversity amongst alumni and staff (Schmidt-Unterberger, 2018 p. 529).

To understand the differences between concepts in this intertwined literature, it is useful to differentiate between CLIL and ESP. Table 4 below summarises Leonardi's (2015) differentiations, where ESP is more language focussed, needs-flexible, communicative and less content-responsible, and CLIL is more content-cognitive and less language-driven.

Table 4 – Differentiating ESP from CLIL

	ESP	CLIL
Second Language (L2)	L2 is content, means of learning, and adapted to meet level and learning needs	L2 is the means to: - Content (subject matter) - Communication (using) - Cognition (thinking processes) - Culture (understanding development) (Coyle et al., 2010 as cited in Leonardi, 2015 p. 21)
Content	Simulation of communicative tasks	Greater use of scaffolding approaches
	Similarities - Use of authentic material and real-world communication and context - Self-direction – "turning learners into users" (p. 20)	
Teacher	No responsibilities in content learning May collaborate with subject specialists	Tolerance in the use of L1/L2 switch Subject and L2 expertise Allows for co-teaching (both specialists)

(Adapted from Leonardi, 2015 pp. 18-25)

A significant difference from the above is in the emphasis on language used in ESP and the lesser responsibility in content delivery. This difference could be bridged through greater collaboration between language and content specialists in team-teaching cooperation. Regarding practical approaches to this differentiation, Arno-Macia and Mancho-Bares (2014) explore the connections between ESP and CLIL at a university in Spain by comparing these two approaches in two distinctive domains: business and agronomy. Their study triangulates data from focus groups, observations and questionnaires finding greater need in language and academic literacies input in the CLIL courses than in those employing ESP approaches. Students in this context expressed concerns concerning the lack of language in CLIL, while lecturers favoured CLIL over ESP as they saw benefits in 'learning by doing'.

Students saw CLIL as an introduction to the discipline, as ESP is often perceived, and concerns in language focus shadowing content learning. The authors concluded by suggesting team-teaching as a means to aid this scarcity in the learning needs calling for greater development in ESP/EAP by collaborating with the discipline specialists. This is consistent with Leonardi's (2015) analysis above and Brown's (2017) investigation in a Japanese university, and who also appeals for greater cooperation between domestic academics delivering EMI courses and EAP tutors. Thus, in order to prevent watering down content or eroding professional careers (Arno-Macia & Mancho-Bares, 2014 p.64), cross-disciplinary communication (Brown, 2017) or interdisciplinary approaches need further consideration.

As discussed, the discourse on L2 or English support (EAP/ESP) in EMI settings is varied, intertwined and almost with synonymous terminology. While the main purpose of EMI settings is for students to be able to be articulate in their particular field of study, EMI and ICLHE have no direct language or literacy learning objectives or support (Jacobs, 2005; Schmidt-Unterberger, 2018). ESP/EAP do have this focus. ESP programmes provide closer support on particular genre and register in line with students' degree course and with greater use of authentic materials, while EAP provides a wider range of academic skills and a working view of the academic ethos. Collaboration with the disciplines, however challenging, is frequently suggested in the literature, as a closer and more efficient form to cater to students' learning needs, since not all the skills offered in ESP/EAP serve every particular discipline. Schmidt-Unterberger (2018) argues that although ESP/EAP have their relevance, they are often questioned and devalued in EMI settings, where the language acquisition is expected through subject learning processes. Yet, without the ESP/EAP specialisation in identifying linguistics styles, academic skills and issues students encounter in their learning, the subject specialist would otherwise find this disconcerting. Therefore, collaboration between the EAP/ESP and the subject specialist can help tailor courses in a way that both complement each other's expertise.

From the administrative viewpoint these collaborations can be difficult. Schmidt-Unterberger (2018) asserts that with greater top-down initiatives encouraging collaborative planning and training, collaborations and team-teaching would generate more opportunities

for staff to develop competitive advantage. Other initiatives for encouraging collaboration and team teaching, are interdisciplinary courses where collaboration is not only established with the language specialists but also with other disciplines, whereby the incentives are in potential research, for instance, as well as professional and personal development.

2.3.4 Multidisciplinary, Interdisciplinary, or Transdisciplinary

Developments and improvements in science, technology and in living standards require individuals to be able to integrate skills and acquire knowledge beyond their disciplines. As Newell and Bain (2018 p. 1) assert, "*it is no longer possible for individual academics to focus on their own teaching and academic discipline in isolation*". Compelling and demanding future challenges, from technological advancements to climate change, are increasingly requiring individuals to be able to establish connections between aspects of more than one discipline alone. Questions are becoming too complex for just a single discipline (Bryant et al., 2014), as in research and outside academia transdisciplinary collaborations are taking place (Becher & Trowler, 2001). It will not only require students to have some knowledge level of subjects other than their own discipline, but also to collaborate with a variety of specialists, so as to meet these external driving demands. Hence, education needs to place more structures of collaboration in the transferring of knowledge through collaborations between different disciplines, as they often interrelate in research and manifest themselves in nature.

In *relational learning*, for instance, Holloway and Alexandre (2012) create a culture of collaboration in doctoral programmes where the aim is to facilitate learning for both students and Faculty members through the interrelation of ideas and concepts. The authors designed a programme where students can learn about new fields, or an interdisciplinary approach, noting that it is not meant to generate students' interest in the lecturers' expertise, but "*rather, it is built on the expertise of guiding relational learning*" (p. 96) generating originality in the students' reports. Relational learning here relates to the student-teaching interactions, though greater interest rests on the potential of exchanges and connections that these interactions have. As Becher and Trowler (2001 p. 20) recognise, "*traditional forms of knowledge generation are being phased out in favour of collective,*

applied transdisciplinary developments", as in collaborations in research and other industries outside academia. Hence, making connections and associations between concepts and ideas from multiple disciplines can enhance criticality and interactive, cooperative and autonomous learning skills. With greater exposure to various fields of thought at any level students can be better prepared towards a potentially challenging future.

Collaboration across the sciences formed part of the philosophy of the classical Greek and Napoleonic times; the compartmentalisation of the sciences was initiated later during the $16^{th}/17^{th}$ centuries when different philosophies defragmented. As new sciences emerged two distinctive blocks of sciences were formed by the $19^{th}/20^{th}$ centuries distinguishing 'human sciences' or humanities and natural sciences (Alvargonzález, 2011). Today we see more interweaving between fields of thought and philosophies collaborating in research (Cagle & Tillery, 2015), to which education may align through JD approaches. In team-teaching, as discussed, more flexibility should encourage more collaboration between more than two specialists, going beyond and generating prospects for coherent courses that can enhance students' learning and awareness of their world. For instance, in my own experience colleagues of the business, sciences and language schools jointly design, deliver and assess all sections of an environmental protection course.

The taxonomy implied in the collaboration of more than one discipline contributing to a particular course or piece of research, is often found interchangeably in the literature, poorly defined, separated and confusing (Choi & Pak, 2006; Alvargonzález, 2011). This classification namely multidisciplinarity, interdisciplinarity and transdisciplinarity have specific levels of collaboration. As in Choi and Pak's (2006) review on healthcare: multidisciplinary relates to added value, rather than integration; interdisciplinary relates to the synthesis of disciplines; and, transdisciplinary tactics are more holistic considering broader views of the system. These schemes are also discussed within the context of special education in schools. Friend and Cook (2014 p.106) provide the basis for the Table 5 below, adapted to relate the areas of interaction, responsibility, and elements of trust and learning (Croker et al., 2014, 2016) that more closely relate to our context.

Table 5 – Team Interaction Models

	Multidisciplinary	Interdisciplinary	Transdisciplinary
Sharing	participants might **not belong to a team** within different environments	share goals and **responsibilities related to each discipline**	common **goals**, and **responsibility**
Committing	disciplines collaborate while **remaining independent**	Committing to shared services primarily specific to their disciplines	working **across disciplines** Integrating **planning and services**
Planning	**independently** develop plans in their discipline	Planning section related to disciplinary	**develop** plans together
Learning	brief encounters and **independent learning** in separate environments	regular **meetings** to share and learning on assessment **results** from each discipline	**regular** meetings to learn from each other's disciplines
Trust	unrelated - plans are implemented **separately** and **by discipline**	some **coordination** - members trust each part of the plan is implemented	shared responsibility - **trust building** - collaborative assessments, observations and **team building,**

(Adapted from Friend and Cook, 2014 p. 106, bold my emphasis)

The interactions between participants in transdisciplinary modules (Table 5) offer greater interconnection and commitment, as participants take part in all the aspects of a course. This suggests more cohesive courses in planning and interconnecting disciplines, while at the same time, implementing learning and generating trust amongst practitioners.

In Jacobs' (2005, 2007) later allied study, she tags 'transdisciplinary collectives' to the reflective discussions amongst lecturers, where greater consideration of "*curriculum, pedagogy, and student well-being*" is further exercised (in Zappa-Hollman, 2018 p. 603) and where exchanges incorporate a 'sense of belonging', 'process of engagement', 'applications of learning', and professional development. This indicates the amplitude of benefits to transdisciplinary collaborations.

The indicators that sustain positive collaborations, according to Zappa-Hollman's (2018) study of six EAP tutors and thirteen content instructors, are in the alignment of goals and investment in projects; the value and recognition to language and EAP instructors' epistemological authority in teaching and learning, and the 'equal footing' or parity (Friend & Cook, 2014). These should establish benefits within the language-content relationship between practitioners, though Zappa-Hollman (2018) seems one-sided in the number of instructors consulted, to which this study provides the balance by investigating the experiences of EAP instructors.

Indeed, collaboration can be rewarding, transformative and reciprocally enriching (Zappa-Hollman, 2018); however, a trial-fail period of time is required to reach this positive and organic state, where all the parties' needs are recognised to move forward, and the same goals are maintained. For these, a number of studies adopt longitudinal approaches that provide development, maturity and a process of reflection (Jacobs, 2005; Zappa-Hollman, 2018; Lock et al., 2016; Jameau & Le Henaff, 2018). Reflection, as an essential element in good practices, is also valued in later studies on self-reflective accounts in co-teaching (Lock et al., 2016) and the use of 'reflective investigation' (Jameau & Le Henaff, 2018), where stages of development and advancement shape the collaborative contexts. Hence, this study applies these insights to this particular context by conducting reflective interviews when the JD courses concluded and practitioners can provide their experiential reflective accounts.

The value in these reflective accounts allows for a length of time for participants' experiences to develop and form conceptualised positions as practitioners, to which novice practitioners may find difficulty in expressing (Perry & Stewart, 2005). The efficacy of collaborations through reflection in co-teaching experience is explored through focus groups in Lock et al. (2016), where reflective accounts, based on nursing-education in HE, exhibit some of the elements needed to construct solid collaborations. They explore the impact of previous co-teaching and built relationships through continuity showing an understanding amongst practitioners of each other's teaching styles, educational philosophes and 'vision' of the classroom. This can define the 'rhythm', fluidity, and organic approach to the practice, which can be tailored, as Lock et al. (2016) suggest, through an open and reciprocal learning *with* and *from* each other's joint commitment, inclusion, openness, reflective communication, and constructive feedback when in conflict.

Zappa-Hollman (2018) highlights some of these conflicting traits within the EAP-language-content settings in Canada, distinctively grouped into organizational and interpersonal paradigms. Within the latter, the study finds conflicting elements regarding territorialism, lack of commitment and patience. Conversely, related elements in Perry and Stewart's (2005) work on interdisciplinary team-teaching in Japan, distinguishes three distinctive areas of discord: 1) level of experience with clashes between classroom-spontaneity, initial fears

to team-teaching, and power-struggle; 2) personalities and working styles and the challenges towards resolutions on incompatibility; 3) and noted as the most significant, beliefs about learning. Perry and Stewart's (2005) suggest having a clear "*understanding of roles and expectations*" (p. 572) and having an 'active reflection' with colleagues about teaching and pedagogical philosophies, can 'energize teachers' and aid team-teaching by "*helping, observing and talking with each other*" (p. 573).

The literature on collaboration and its endeavours seems extensive. It is particularly mature and developed in the areas of healthcare and special education. This maturity offers transferable components and considerations to HE contexts. Friend and Cook's (2014) platform evaluates collaborative elements that lead to 'respect' in collaborations (Croker et al., 2016), while Littlefield et al. (2015) describes what constitutes an organic collaboration. Healthcare guides us in terms of multidisciplinary *teaming* and potential territorialism issues, and special education directs us more to classroom dynamics and teaching and learning structures and practices.

There are however, a growing number of authors in recent years (e.g. Mehisto, 2012; Leonardi, 2015; Lasagabaster, 2017; Coyle, 2018) observing an increase in programmes where specialists are *teaming* and co-teaching in HE. More specifically, in the integration of language and content following approaches in European schools (e.g. CLIL). Contextualising academic literacies (Jacobs, 2005) seems a welcome approach to multilingual students in South Africa, Canada, and Europe, as well as L2 learners in Japan, where specialists in content and language synchronise in the common goal that is to cater students' learning needs of today that points towards a greater synthesised future.

2.4 Learning and Teaching

Pedagogical philosophies and classroom practices are important elements to practitioners co-delivering courses. These practices can depend on background experiences and beliefs that can impact learning. The settings themselves can also influence learning, teaching and collaborative approaches. In this section we will discuss learning and teaching spaces,

working with large groups, the effects on attendance and the use of L1 and L2 in the classroom.

2.4.1 Large Cohorts

The concept of large groups in HE has changed over the years. Where 40-50 students in a classroom used to be considered a large cohort, 150 to 400 students seem to be the new norm for large lecture halls (Hogan & Kwiatkowski, 1998). Today, it seems acceptable to have even larger lecture cohorts with sometimes double this number. Even though students are assumed to be more independent with little personal contact with their university professors, class-size can affect learning and practices *"[w]hether it be in lecture, seminar, laboratory, or in the learning outside the classroom the experience of teachers and students changes with class size*" (Gibbs & Jenkins, 1992 p. 16).

Large classrooms generally concern quality and equity (Woollacott, Booth & Cameron, 2014) and students' perceptions of their learning experiences (Wulff, Nyquist & Abbott, 1987). Although universities provide online guidelines for their teachers (e.g. UCL, Nottingham Trent University) and advice on best practices in a large body of literature on presentations and lecture delivery (Bligh, 2000), it is still a significant challenge, for all teachers including those well-trained and experienced, to reach out to all the students equally and provide the experience from which smaller classes may benefit.

Working with large groups can limit *"opportunities teachers have to know their students in pedagogically meaningful ways*" (Woollacott et al., 2014 p. 747). Large classrooms challenge teaching basics: getting to know the students, their background, what they know and how they learn. As in other countries, Chinese students come from different provinces with various learning standards and types of schooling. The individuals themselves have different learning styles and personalities that can prove difficult to identify in larger cohorts. Hence, the learning experience can be affected from feeling accounted for, validated, and integrated in the classroom, to students feeling lost and alienated in a sea of multitudes, accentuated more so amongst first-year students (Lynch & Pappas, 2017).

Team-teaching may mitigate some of these issues and economise resources in the student-teacher ratio (Cuseo, 2007), yet large cohorts present a challenge to practitioners. In our context, large cohorts often shape the lectures and seminars of the JD programmes. The dynamics in lectures differ from that in seminars/workshops as more student participation is expected and study skills such as teamwork, interpersonal skills, taking initiative, and autonomous learning, amongst others, are exercised. However, the literature on delivering seminars in particular is thin regarding large cohorts, since seminars are generally considered small group discussions. Lynch and Pappas (2017) provide suggestions on a mixture of best practices that combine approaches commonly used in teaching L2 with that in lectures and placing students' output, and not the teacher's, as the focus of their approach. Similarly, in our case seminars are student-led though with the added guidelines and supervision of the language specialist (Gibbs & Jenkins, 1992).

The learning experience in large cohorts can challenge practitioners in managing classrooms and shaping lessons, tasks, materials, and assessments that meet students' learning styles. Woollacott et al., (2014) suggest phenomenography to help identify students' learning styles as a collective body rather than individually, collecting information from small groups that can feed the development of lessons and tasks. Lynch and Pappas (2017) assign help from students or 'graders' to get closer to students and generate group discussions and peer-assessments. These examples in JD seminars can minimise any emotional consequences from learning and teaching in large groups, such as alienation, anger or envy that students may encounter (Hogan & Kwiatkowski, 1998).

Although smaller groups may be a straightforward solution, training both teachers and students about the workings of large-groups and mixed-teaching methods, may be more enriching and productive (Bligh, 2000). In the realm of an expanding HE, increasing diversity (Altbach, 2004; Maringe & Sing, 2014), and personal technology, classroom-time needs to be strategically meaningful for learners. For the teachers it would require additional considerations to teaching practices such as managing and configuring large numbers of working-teams, or perhaps co-teaching, as the level of discussion in HE has been increasing (Baeten & Simons, 2014). For the students it would mean focussing more on individual and collective soft skills such as interpersonal skills, teamwork, taking initiative, autonomous

learning, and reflective skills in and outside the classroom. Hence, education needs to consider vital modifications.

2.4.2 Spaces

Even though large classes can have "*implications for the quality and equity of learning and the need to examine and to transform pedagogical practices*" (Maringe & Sing, 2014 p.761), learning spaces can aid some of the approaches noted above. Learning environments can vary from fixed to flexible spaces. Jones, Dirckinck-Holmfeld and Lindström (2006 p. 47-48) suggest spaces where "*the learners themselves should have some capacity to adapt and reconfigure what teachers and designers create for them*": that is, flexible and movable spaces that can be transformed to suit the learning and teaching styles of those involved.

Lecture rooms may welcome a large number of students, but would not be conducive for students' participation or teamwork. Fixed spaces focus on the lecturer's delivery, alienating the learner as a mere spectator. These spaces are often designed in institutions where the assumption and traditions have the teacher as the centre of knowledge, discarding students' learning styles and expecting them to conform (Wong, 2004). Despite its transnational setting and its new and modern outlook, generally and with some slow change, classroom designs in Chinese universities tend to resist flexible learning spaces (Grimshaw, 2007).

2.4.3 Attendance

Together with issues in managing large cohorts and learning spaces are the related implications of absenteeism. It is important to consider first that teaching is a two-way conversation, and attitudes to learning and teaching intertwine. As in an ongoing circulation of exchanges, the teacher's attitude and approach influences students' learning, as does students' attitude towards the use of personal devices, or absenteeism. While these can negatively affect the classroom dynamics and the progress of the course, others, such as the cohesion and relationships students build with their peers, can strengthen it and ensure attendance (Macfarlane, 2013).

In a quasi-experimental research study, questioning the relationship between absenteeism and performance, Snyder et al. (2014) find it effective to employ a compulsory attendance policy punishing absenteeism. Performance might, however, vary since the study shows that grades were not higher, while the authors ventured to suggest that previous learning experience influenced the grading results. "*There are* [however] *many reasons for contending that attendance requirements should not be associated with a higher education experience on moral and philosophical grounds yet, curiously, there is very limited literature that addresses this subject explicitly*" (Macfarlane, 2013 p. 365).

Macfarlane (2013) argues that intensifying surveillance and attendance policies in learning 'infantilise students' from maturing and constraining their academic freedoms and choices, as well as limiting their preparation as professional adults. He considers three categories (see p. 360):

1. 'accountability' in the sense that "*attendance is important as a member of a learning community to demonstrate respect for peers and teachers*";
2. 'students' well-being' where performance may be affected by "*personal and/or social problems that they need help in addressing*"; and,
3. 'workplace preparation' as part of the competences and practices, such as punctuality and attendance.

An additional element to consider as per our context is students having to use L2 in the classroom, where they may feel inhibited to perform. This may depend on peers' and teachers' support, which at the same time can enhance motivation diminishing external demotivators from within and outside the classroom. These can influence students' decisions to engage with a course; however, elements such as autonomy in learning and moral factors, as Macfarlane (2013) noted, can also be part of the ethos learned in university courses.

2.4.4 First or Second Language in the Classroom

In classrooms where the medium of instruction differs from that of the local language, and where language-content integrated courses are designed to help students make use of L2 in

context, it is assumed that every opportunity is seized to practice. As Clark (2013) observes "*English in China outside of classrooms is used essentially for communication with non-Chinese speakers*" (p.73), suggesting little use outside the classrooms. While practice can help naturalise the use of L2 and help structure utterances progressively, classroom practice can be difficult to maintain.

Huang (2010) illustrates some of the linguistic structures that differentiate Chinese from English noting some of the features in L1 that may interfere in the L2 speaking and writing processes. From elements in syntax, such as the use of articles and prepositions, to the "*preference for an indirect and circular communication*" (p. 160) in the processes of thought formation and formal interactions, rather than the 'directness and explicitness' found in English users. These adjustments may take time and practice; however, considerations on the use of L1 in the classroom can be, as Clark (2013 p. 65) advocates, "*a resource for teaching rather than a deficit to overcome*", which "*has yet to reach mainstream educational thinking*".

In integrated and multidisciplinary courses such as JD, with significant input on new and discipline-specific vocabulary, to switch from L1 to L2 can be a practical source for learning. Even though L1 may interfere on L2 practices, to which some practitioners opt to refrain students from using in the classroom, Alexander (2012 p. 101) argues that there is a value to students' learning style "*as developing bilinguals with the ability to code-switch between L1 and L2*", provides students the opportunity to develop dynamism in both languages.

Philosophies in learning and teaching and attitudes towards L1/L2 use in the classroom can be influenced by a number of factors and attitudes towards practices informed by previous experiences, background, motivations, transitions to different forms of learning, and values placed on practices such as peer-review, group-work and autonomous learning. As Lasagabaster (2017) finds via focus groups with CLIL teachers on L1/L2 use in the classroom, practices are dependent on "*beliefs, teaching experience and intuition*" (p. 263).

In co-teaching these preferences and practices need to be raised and clarified from the start, so as to have a common vision on the learning outcomes and the goals of the course. The classroom dynamics with large cohorts, the various uses of learning spaces, the dealing with

absenteeism, and the attitudes towards the use of L1/L2 in the classroom, are some of the teaching and learning factors that comprise extensively the literature in teaching an L2 and general practices, and to which attitudes in this context will be explored.

2.5 Professional Development and Identity

Universities' constant flow of new generations, their diversity, globalisation and massification, together with new technologies and easier access to information, means that any educationalist needs to be up-to-date, undergoing constant professional development to be able to understand students and their learning needs at any given moment. Professional development is a day-to-day learning process that constitutes the core identity of the educationalist. This profession does not end at 5 pm nor start at 9 am, but it builds on an incessant reflection. In Bailey, Curtis and Nunan's (2001) insightful work on language teachers, they quote Lange (1990, p. 250) describing teacher development as the continuous process of "*intellectual, experimental and attitudinal growth*", whereby "*teachers continue to evolve in the use, adaptation, and application of their art and craft*" (Bailey et al., 2001 p. 4). The production and harvest of this craft identifies the particulars of the teacher identity.

2.5.1 Identity and teacher collaboration

In the collaboration between teachers, their crafts, identity, and professional development seem inevitably worthy of consideration. For instance, David Nunan's accounts (Bailey et al., 2001), as a resonant author in foreign language teaching, consider choice, trust, and sharing important elements of personal development. This corresponds with Friend and Cook's (2014) discussions on teacher collaboration and co-teaching, where "*the process of engaging in a critical dialogue about one's practice is important not only in opening up one's reflections to public scrutiny but also, we would argue, in providing an ideal forum for collaborative learning*" (Crow & Smith, 2005 p. 493) and thus, suggesting mutual and reciprocal collaborative development.

Although there may be shades of insecurity in teachers balancing content and language, for instance in CLIL instruction, where the selection of appropriate content to potential

language integration can lead to a practice "*perceived as paradigm shift, in which teachers see their professional self-confidence under threat and have to partially rebuild their professional identity*" (Bonnet & Breidbach, 2017 p. 273), the professional development in acquiring 'explicit knowledge' becomes personal, integral and contextual (Bonnet & Breidbach, 2017). Ultimately, the personal and professional identity is a phenomenon formed through context and experience, rather than within one's mind (Clark, 2013).

Indeed, part of this professional development is also the ability to self-reflect. Collaborative development can aid and encourage this process by working with peers and through the chain process of preparing, planning, and in-class team-work reflection emerges preparing practitioners towards the following lessons: the pre and post 'instrumental phases' (Bailey et al., 2001 p. 181).

2.5.2 Identity and Working with Large Cohorts

From the practitioners' perspective, a teacher's identity can be compromised when working with large groups. If we consider the teacher identity to be based on learning about the students through pedagogical exchanges, building rapport that helps enhancing and tailoring lessons, and observing with satisfaction students' progress of their learning, then the teacher-student relationship can be affected when working with large groups, thereby damaging the teacher's identity.

More accentuated perhaps is the lack of rapport building in lecture theaters where cohorts can be exceptionally large and time commitment is compromised. For both course and visiting lecturers their dedication can be thinning due to practices, beliefs, or environmental constraints (De Hei et al., 2015), compromising practices in ascertaining students' learning progress or understanding their academic needs. Lynch and Pappas (2017) suggest providing some time at the start and end of the lecture/seminar for students to ask questions, adding that students might find it intimidating to ask questions during the session in large classrooms. However, a different tactic may be needed in this Chinese university, since the experience is almost the opposite, as most students wait for the end of the session to approach the lecturer. This can be an overwhelming and typical occurrence, as culturally it is disrespectful to interrupt the professor and everyone else during the session for a perceived

personal issue, without realising that the same issue is often the whole group´s issue, with the lecturer receiving at the same time the attention expected.

2.5.3 Identity and Language Specialists in Higher Education

With the increasing demand for EAP tutors, mainly due to the flow of Chinese university students in the last 15 years (HESA, 2018; Weale, 2019), the EAP industry has had the opportunity to expand beyond universities. This has accentuated university contracts with private outsourcing companies, such as *INTO* and Kaplan Inc., involving these providers in the recruitment of students, staff and related induction and preparation of international students to university academic work. Yet, the growth of this outsourced industry has led to a group of qualified teachers of diverse background and a significant set of expertise in academia, with an ethos that is often misunderstood.

Practitioners arrive at EAP from different circumstances and working backgrounds, from those transferring from teaching general English (Ding & Bruce, 2017) and lecturing in other fields, to those that perhaps saw refuge in EAP as a result of the 2008 financial crisis, as in a number of my colleagues. This pool of skills and knowledge brings potential not only to EAP and its related operations, but also to collaborations in JD. Nonetheless, these same tutors are dependent on seasonal demand, with some specialised in subjects such as ESP-business or multidisciplinary courses (Jacobs, 2005) that may secure longer term courses. Despite this, the university status of the EAP lecturer is blurred (Ding & Bruce, 2017) and the literature thin in this respect. For instance, in the BALEAP conference this year only four presenters discussed the identity of the EAP teacher and its future (BALEAP Conference, 2019). Still, EAP provision is important in promoting scholarship and global publishing from the early days at university, to doctoral students and beyond, since it brings about the fundamentals of knowledge sharing and development.

The identity of the EAP/ESP practitioner seems inherently vulnerable and unstable. Almagro and Vallejo's (2002) case study discusses the 'qualities of the ESP practitioner' such as 'flexibility' questioning whether practitioners should teach language only or have knowledge and/or appropriate background on the subject. They argue that the ESP teacher should be competent in both, the language and the content, placing high demands on the practitioner.

Qualified to evaluate and provide advice on language and having sound understanding of one or more sciences can be overwhelming. Indeed, a multifaceted identity.

This demand and the huge variety in courses and subject matter involved in ESP, can keep practitioners constantly on their toes, learning about different topics and consequently developing professionally. In co-teaching, students can indirectly be participants in their teachers' professional development (Almagro & Vallejo, 2002). While co-teachers learn from each other through planning, structuring courses, class observations and participation, students contribute also to the understanding of the subject matter, as well as bring considerations to students' approaches to learning in their subjects. The teacher is not the only source of knowledge; the subject matter is transmitted, exchanged and exercised in class discussions, adding to the professional development and identity of the practitioner. As Almagro and Vallejo (2002 p. 11-12) argue, "*we should learn to listen to students*", since they can serve as experts in the subject matter to the ESP practitioner. Learning from the students is possibly one of the core motivators to practitioners as it allows for the observation of behaviour and the social construct, and perhaps of members of a different culture. The practitioner's identity thus undergoes continuous exposure to professional and personal development.

2.6 Implications of the Literature

The early body of literature regarding collaboration is significant in work related to the fields of healthcare and special education. Specialists from these two fields found developments in their work through *teaming* and sharing expertise concerning common goals. They moved away from hierarchical structures or educational exclusion, such as in the case of children with special needs, to bolder, more proactive and collaborative arrangements. Policies and changes in attitudes over the years have recognised the value of collaboration and practices that improve learning outcomes for all parties involved.

Globalisation for HE, at all its various levels of diversity and integration, national and transnational, has reached similar conclusions. As in research, specialists have found

multidisciplinary approaches and collaborative instruction to enhance and enrich educational outcomes, achievements, services, and innovation.

From this review, discussions on collaborative teaching seem to have erupted at the turn of the century, and more particularly in HE in the last decade. Extensive publication focuses on the European initiatives in language and content integration (i.e. CLIL) mostly on pre-university education, though more recently similar collaborative approaches have been observed at university level. The narratives can be confusing, as a range of labels identifies these collaborations, though sometimes unclear on what exactly they entail. Labels such as ICLHE, ESP, EMT, multi/inter/trans-disciplinary, and integrated academic literacies suggest adopting integrated methods, but whether the cooperation is at the initial planning of a course, a sporadic but continuous collaboration, or a joint nonstop collaboration that develops and delivers the course inside and outside the classroom, has generally been blurred to date in the collaboration discourse.

The literature illustrates a variety of models that place specialists in different settings of delivery. It observes a number of stages of adaptation, compromises, time requirements and commitments that collaboration demands from its practitioners, as they reach ever closer to organically sound approaches (Massey, 2016; Fisher et al., 2016; Littlefield et al., 2015). This suggests the need for longitudinal studies to record in real time and in situ a flow of different stages and impacts of these joint practices (e.g. 2-3-year studies Perry & Stewart, 2005; Evans et al., 2009). However, reflective accounts could equally add value and shed light about changes and approaches that are taking form in HE today.

An increasing literature also considers the greater role that EAP/language instructors are taking in these collaborative endeavors and how their position is becoming more integrated in such shared experiences in multiple environments (Jacobs 2005, 2007; Evans et al., 2009; Bryant et al., 2014). However, there are limitations to the support they receive, where their expertise in language and awareness of students' learning needs are constrained, and where they become alienated since they do "*not project a similar ownership of curriculum-based learning*" as subject teachers do (Creese, 2002 p. 611). Thus, exploring the various

dimensions of interchange and phases of adaptation of the EAP/language instructor can help underpin and add value to the understanding of these integrated collaborations.

The literature reviewed on integrated teaching displays largely positive outcomes (Perry & Stewart, 2005; Bryant et al., 2014), although commitment and working contract types can affect these outcomes (Minett-Smith & Davis, 2019). Integrated learning collaborations are not only meaningful to students' confidence, understanding and performance, but also significant to practitioners' development (Evans et al., 2009). From observation in an Australian university, Evans et al. (2009) appeal for the withdrawal of language support as a mere remedial intervention, as well as the traditional 'content download' approach of lectures. They call for greater student-centred workspaces where both specialists can develop understanding in each other's expertise, and "*thus making a greater contribution to the effectiveness of integrated and adjunct workshops*" (p. 609). This can be a point of reference for further exploration on the effectiveness of the approach and practitioners' learning, which would contribute further to an already limited literature (Evans et al., 2009).

In the same vein in the US, Bryant et al. (2014) find interdisciplinary and cooperative teaching enriching for both students and teachers. In their mixed methods study, they identify three models of collaboration: leader-based, modular and traditional, being the more effective when greater administrative support was provided. University and administrative support is found to be essential in most studies (Minett-Smith & Davis, 2019; Martyn, 2018), where team-teaching is allowed to thrive in environments where "*individual educators and teaching teams [can] adopt models facilitating flexible rather than fixed approaches*" (Minett-Smith & Davis, 2019 p.2), arguing that team-teaching modules are not changing, but fixed in changing environments and in most cases without opportunities for development.

Course effectiveness may be dominated by students' learning approaches and styles. In China, Martyn (2018) explores the perceptions of first year students and their learning experiences in an introductory business course provided in English, which appears to be an unusual occurrence in this university. Through mixed methods, Martyn finds that although it was a successful course, students managed to overcome the difficulties of their integrated

course by spending a significant amount of time reviewing and translating the textbook and *"by focusing on the teacher's PowerPoint slides* [PPT] *after class—as they considered these were the key points*" of the course (Martyn, 2018, abstract p. 86). She finds that "g*reater communication between teachers of different courses could lead to a more integrated overall student learning experience*" (Martyn, 2018 p. 100).

Similarly, Sung (2015) explores the particulars of the development and traditions of the Chinese education system with its insights from Confucianism, arguing that more reciprocal rather than hierarchical exchanges between teacher and students can promote emotional intelligence, as she finds changes in new generations showing reciprocal exchanges with their parents (Song, 2010 as cited in Sung, 2015). Sung further claims that less hierarchical exchanges "*can be the catalyst in the emotional center of the brain for development of the student's emotional intelligence*" (p. 66) to which adding more 'real-life experiences' and task-based approaches in instruction, can help develop students' emotional intelligence still further. Hence, students witnessing reciprocal collaborative teaching can enhance further their learning experience into a fairer and more cooperative form of global citizenship.

In this brief overview of the literature it is apparent there is a need for further exploration of changes occurring in HE in the unfolding challenges of today. Authors concur on the need for further discussions on collaborative practices and in finding approaches that promote and innovate the realm of pedagogy. With ever-greater movement of students and faculty, we need an approach that can cater for an expanding transnational education with approaches that can accommodate current and future changes in information and technology accessibility, and changes in social and geopolitical construct. Building on skills that interrelate ideas and concepts from different disciplines, can accelerate further human advancement and consciousness. We need to improve our cooperative and collaborative skills as part of the educational and work ethos through applications that embrace greater diversification and understanding of each other to be able to work together globally in facing the challenges of tomorrow, today.

2.7 Study Objectives and Research Questions

From the literature analysis above, it can be established that an exploration of specialists' experiences, perceptions and reflections in collaborative programmes such as Joint Delivery in TNHE can aid the improvement and development of interdisciplinary collaborations as suggested often in the literature.

The objectives of this research, therefore, aims at making sense of what JD means in the transnational context. Its main purpose is to identify the elements that construct the essence of what JD implies to change occurring at tertiary practices. Through IPA's interpretative cycle and hermeneutic approach (Smith et al., 2009), the participants' narratives of their experiences in JD are analysed to explore and construct the significance and success of this collaborative phenomenon with particular focus on the following research questions:

1. How do the EAP/language specialists make sense of their experiences teaching in JD?
2. How do interactions and collaborations in JD impact learning and teaching?
3. What are JD's pedagogical contributions and constraints?
4. Are there any changes and contributions to personal and professional development through JD experiences?
5. What does the JD phenomenon contribute to practices in similar TNHE settings and future scenarios for Education?

2.8 Summary

The literature above has explored the present situation in transnational education, particularly in China. It reviewed the significance of collaborations in multidisciplinary settings and practices in education, contrasted with those in medicine, together with considerations about professional development and identity. There now follows, is the perspective and research paradigm, with a brief introduction to the philosophy behind phenomenology, which should aid the reader's understanding of the theoretical background and the rationale of the study's framework.

Chapter 3 Methodology - Phenomenology

3.1 Introduction

To provide an in-depth understanding of what constitutes JD, this study embraces phenomenology as its research paradigm. This will allow us to emphasise the value of an individual's perceptions, reflections and narratives of experiences, in this case in collaborative practices and interactions with peers, in an educational social construct. Participants' accounts and similarities in discourse will add to the 'making sense' (Creswell, 2013; Smith et al., 2009) of this construct and the building blocks of what constitutes JD as a teaching and learning collaborative practice in HE adding value to similar settings.

This chapter will look at the philosophical background and emergence of phenomenology in the research discourse to understand fully the *Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis* (IPA) paradigm. Research assumptions and the researcher's role will be considered alongside comparisons with other research methods.

3.2 Phenomenology: Philosophical and Theoretical Framework

Phenomenology, as a qualitative approach to enquiry, is chosen here to encapsulate these experiences. This approach should allow the scaffolding of what JD means through the discourse of the participants' accounts of those experiences, and potentially define what JD has to offer to other institutions.

Phenomenology is a human science that combines philosophy and research methods (Schutz, 1967; van Manen, 2007). The philosophical principles in phenomenology are important to explore here, since they serve as a basis to establishing the analytical platform that will later aid the careful analysis of the discourse of participants' experiences and their understanding of those experiences, as well as the researcher's interpretations and reflections on JD as a phenomenon.

The word phenomenon originates from the Greek word φαινόμενο (fainómeno) meaning appearance as a curious and even natural occurrence (Tautz, 2008). Hence, JD is considered

here to be a phenomenon, since it emerged as a consequence to an identified need in students' learning where language and subject content are combined.

On an initial look at phenomenology and the theories in the field of Philosophy and Psychology, one can get entangled in the web of different schools. However, the main consideration for this study is to establish the epistemological principles as to what *experience* means and how it relates to the construction of knowledge.

The concept of *experience* as a non-empirical approach to enquiry, and as a means to understanding '*truths'*, was scrutinised in the early years of Psychology. It paved its way in the 18th century to be part of the *legitimate* world of science (Kaufer & Chemero, 2015). Immanuel Kant (1724-1804), in '*The Critique of Pure Reason'* (1787), studied this concept thoroughly, stating that experience constitutes a structure of two independent parts: the subject and the object. At the same time, these have three degrees of pragmatism and truth: opinion, belief and knowledge, where only knowledge "*is both subjectively and objectively sufficient*" (Kant, 1787, p. 315). Hence, it is in experience that metaphysical knowledge connects reason with truth and thus, experience brings light to knowledge.

Phenomenology concerns '*the what*' and '*the how*' of an experience. Concerning 'the what', Edmund Husserl (1859-1938) pioneers with the concept of Phenomenology as a potentially new science in Philosophy. As a mathematician influenced by Kant's philosophy on logic and reason, and the teachings of Franz Brentano (1838-1917) on intentionality and perception, Husserl focused his philosophy on the natural intentionality of consciousness, whereby one's perceived experience is a necessity to knowledge (Moustakas, 1994). That is, we only know what we consciously encounter and with this we rationalise life, while life exists by itself flowing on its own.

The consciousness of 'the what' in an encounter is understood here as the *subjectivity* in Husserl's *'transcendental phenomenology'*, while the sense making is in the *discovery* of the essence of an experience (Moustakas, 1994). In this study, the subjectivity of the participants will be in their own conscious reflections of experiences, while the researcher takes distance through 'bracketing' to attain *only* the data available to participants' consciousness (Moustakas, 1994; Eddles-Hirsch, 2015). The importance in *transcendence*

here is in its main reference to reflection as an attribute to interviews held at the end of the course, when participants may have reflected on their experiences to some degree, presenting thus, conscious accounts of their experience with the phenomenon.

However, although the word *transcendental* suggests going beyond, it seems fixed, concerned only on the experience of the phenomenon and its essence (Moustakas, 1994). Rather than exploring a more holistic view into 'the how', beyond that essence, what this study's interests are instead, relate to how the phenomenon is experienced, its implications, as well as the role of the researcher as an interpreter, an insider who also experiences the phenomenon to generate better understanding. The interpretative aspect in *Hermeneutic Phenomenology* is what interests me in this study, as I consider all of the above.

Considering the complexity of deciphering 'how' participants interpret their experiences and 'how' the researcher construes their accounts, the Husserlian approach seems in a sense more pure, focused, and descriptive in its analysis, though, to this study, greater contextualisation is required. Such is *Hermeneutic Phenomenology*, which was further developed by Husserl's pupil, Heidegger (1889-1976), who followed a similar path, but placed himself further beyond Aristotle's philosophical ideas into 'the how', in his work '*Being and Time'* (1927). Heidegger contrasts with Kant and Husserl, in pursuing confirmation on his own philosophical beliefs (Kaufer & Chemero, 2015); he finds it essential in phenomenological research to consider one's own presumptions, beliefs, and intrinsic consciousness, since the understanding of the experience relates directly to the researcher's entanglement with the phenomenon, rather than detaching from it (Eddles-Hirsch, 2015, p. 253). Thus, hermeneutics concerns both the participants and the researcher's interpretation of the experience.

Heidegger's hermeneutic phenomenology interacts more with its environment; it focuses on the world lived, rather than a life in the world. That is, experiencing life and its manifestations, rather than just living without reflecting upon. It rests in a 'multi-modal' world, "*the world of things, people, relationships and language… involv[ing] self-refection and society… the ontological question of existence itself*" (Smith et al., 2009, pp. 16-18). These hermeneutic principles are of importance here due to the nature of our setting with

both national and international members of staff and students from all walks of life, as well as in the rich interactions and collaborations that JD implies in teaching and learning.

This ample cohort of individuals, then, with their own perspectives of the world, presents at the individual level, a significantly rich source of knowledge. Merleau-Ponty (1908-1961) accentuates this aspect in his work '*Phenomenology of Perception'* (1945), where he establishes an open discussion with extended literature of the 19th-20th centuries in both fields Philosophy and Psychology, and also highlighting Kant's ideas on transcendental and critical theories (Kaufer & Chemero, 2015). In Merleau-Ponty's view, an individual cannot be subject to the parameters of scientific investigation. Individuals are submerged in the world of experiences, with emerging residues of those pre-world-experiences bringing their own perspectives to the new experiences. In Merleu-Ponty's words, "*I cannot shut myself up within the realm of science. All my knowledge of the world, even my scientific knowledge, is gained from my own particular point of view, or from some experience of the world without which the symbols of science would be meaningless*" (Merleau-Ponty, 1962. p. ix, as cited in Smith et al., 2009, p. 18). Deriving from one's own meaning of life is the principal of *Existential Phenomenology.* This is further developed in the work of Søren Kierkegaard (1813-1855) and Jean-Paul Sartre (1905-1980). They stress that the self today does not emerge from a pre-existing condition waiting to be discovered, but rather from an ongoing 'process of becoming' (Smith et al., 2009, p. 18). In other words, we are what we let ourselves become in the accumulation of experiences, which is significant in this study due to the nature of its context.

Phenomenological philosophy, therefore, has evolved from the transcendentalists' ideas on the significance of experience as scientific research, to the hermeneutics beliefs in the added value of participants and researcher's lived-world experiences as worthy elements for investigation, and also to the existentialists' theories of the individual as an evolving and forming *self* (see Eddles-Hirsch, 2015; Smith et al. 2009). Elements of these schools of thought comprise the ethos of IPA, which will constitute this study's philosophical research approach.

3.2.1 Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis (IPA)

From the phenomenological school discussed above, the elements that resonate for IPA and this study are four main philosophical principles listed below in relation to its thinkers and founders:

1. Husserl's emphasis on the value of experiences as a means for knowledge;
2. Heidegger's stress on the influence of context and relationships, as well as the role of the researcher, as a thinker and entity in the study process;
3. Merleau-Ponty's insights into the significance of past learned experiences and how they lead to new experiences; and,
4. Jean-Paul Sartre's thoughts on the continuity of life-long learning that make up the building blocks of the particular individuals that we are today.

While IPA reflects these philosophical doctrines in its methodology and analysis, it is also particularly characterised by having a hermeneutic and idiographic focus (Smith et al., 2009). Hermeneutics is pivotal in this practice as it concerns the theory of interpretation. Idiography allows the study to focus on the particular, rather than generalising or having a 'nomothetic' approach.

3.2.1.1 Hermeneutics

Hermeneutics, as an initial practical philosophy towards the interpretation of historical texts, concerns the relationship between the author's original intentional meaning and the past and present contexts of interpretation (Smith et al., 2009). As a theorist in the field, Gadamer (1900-2002) defines hermeneutics as a crafting 'work of art' (Halliday, 2002, p. 51), adding that as a human science, rather than a scientific methodology, a true hermeneutic experience should be 'an immediate grasping of Being' where language is the medium and the experience is the interchange of 'a genuine partner in dialogue' (Wierciaski, 2011, p. 37). In practice, this suggests a familiarity with the context and a close understanding of the interviewees' cognitive and linguistic medium, as well as the emotional and physical state of the participants. As a consequence, IPA is often used in practical Psychology due to this theoretical commitment (Smith, Jarman & Osborn, 1999;

Smith et al., 2009). Thus, IPA engages in a chain of 'double hermeneutic' since it involves the researcher's attempts to understand the respondents, while the respondents try to make sense of the phenomenon they experience (Smith et al., 2009).

It is worth noting that in the attempt to make sense of experiences, research participants engage in a recollection of events forming a set of reflections that resonate in IPA, since these involve a detailed account of thinking and feeling that comprise experiences and their meaning to participants, as it occurs in a 'transition in life' (Smith et al., 2009), or in this case, teaching. The purpose of the researcher is to understand what these experiences are like. For this, participants are assumed to be perceptive of their experiences as they reflect, become aware and make sense of events in the interviews, to the extent that 'hidden' elements that were otherwise unrealised may emerge in the process. Semi-structured interviews convey this flexibility in a case-by-case methodical, qualitative and idiographic analysis (Smith et al., 2009).

3.2.1.2 Idiography

Idiography relates to the idea that *the particular* has scientific value, while nomothetic concerns the identification of the general 'natural laws' (Roeckelein, 1998). Questioned often in Psychology are the dichotomy of scientific inquiry between the value of particular interpretations of the personal, and the scientific generalisation of a group. This highlights the 'intuitive' over the 'scientific general' in human behaviour (Roeckelein, 1998). While nomothetic methods may be more objective, using, for instance, tests in a large sample, idiographic processes engage closer with the individual case, for example, with open and semi-structured interviews.

IPA interests are in the particular individual, their accounts of experiences and their interpretation in their sense-making of the phenomenon (Smith et al., 1999; Smith et al., 2009). While in Psychology the idiographic approach focuses on the individual and personal choices, the hermeneutic method examines the nature of human experience and the understanding of behaviour through those accounts (Hayes, 2000). Thus, an idiographical approach allows IPA to focus on the psychological value of the individual and their accounts from two fronts: in the systematic depth and detail analysis of *the particular* and in how

precise this understanding of the phenomenon is, in relation to the context of the specific people within it. For this reason, the study selects a carefully situated sample and refers in some instances to the analysis of single cases that can lead to more general claims (Smith et al., 2009), allowing the researcher and the reader to make sense of the whole.

This study, therefore, is informed through IPA's three key areas in the philosophy and Psychology paradigms: phenomenology, hermeneutics and idiography, as well as the commitment of the researcher's to learn from each of the research participants (Smith et al., 2009; Smith & Osborn, 2007), while constructing the whole picture of the phenomenon within this context.

3.2.2 Phenomenology in Education

Developed initially in experimental Psychology, IPA is also employed in education, such as in professional experiences and professional identity (Federici, 2012), in the teacher-student relationships and the understanding of these exchanges (Giles, Smythe & Spence, 2012), and in the cooperation between educational institutions and enterprises aiming at enhancing talents (Groenewald & Schurink, 2003). Phenomenological enquiry offers a wide spectrum of possibilities to the exploration of education, in its global sense, since learning and teaching can be a varied, sensitive and even volatile experience that needs understanding, from the learning journey students embark on, to the impacts of the social construct of the various relationships and the different contests where these take place. Hermeneutic phenomenology or IPA allows for reflection and consciousness and the exploration of what these can bring to learning and practice.

3.2.3 The Role of the Researcher

There are two areas in the role of the researcher in this study that bring understanding to the inquiry. One is in the data analysis within the interpretative paradigm of IPA and the other is my reflective account as an active participant in the context and in JD.

Within the IPA paradigm, interpretation is often associated with the social constructivism of the inquiry. This involves the social and historical elements in the construct of the context embedded in the participants' accounts and subjective meanings of their experiences.

Formed through interaction with others, these experiences convey historical and cultural norms that need understanding (Creswell, 2013; Oxley, 2016). Thus, the analyst's context experience and understanding is important in the various layers of data interpretation: the participants' perceptions and understanding of their experiences; the language used by the participants to evoke those experiences; the history and cultural norms expressed in those perceptions; and, the researcher's experiences and understanding of the context from the contextualising of JD.

3.2.4 Assumptions

It is assumed that IPA offers an 'epistemological openness' (Oxley, 2016) to the researcher in logic and analytical methods in which her own experience in the context plays a role, but yet with objectivity, criticality and realism. To retreat from any misdirection, assumptions and preconceptions, while moving closer to the phenomenon's essence and participants' narratives of their experiences, the analysis benefits from a series of 'reductions' Husserl's recommend for obtaining different perspectives, "*thinking and reasoning about the phenomenon*" (Smith et al., 2009 p. 14)

Although, "*the problem of phenomenological inquiry is not always that we know too little about the phenomenon we wish to investigate, but that we know too much*" (van Manen, 1990 p. 46 as cited Giles et al., 2012 p. 218), it is assumed that this knowledge will aid the analyst's understanding of participants' language of choice in bringing across their viewpoint, and their conscious reality of their experiences and subjective realities. The limitations in this methodology, however, may be in the potential influence of the social construct and context knowledge inflicting the analysis. Layers of analysis and bracketing (Smith et al., 2009), as well as having started JD practice together with this inquiry, may bring a sense of discovery to the study.

Interpretivism in IPA recognizes that individuals perceive the world and reality differently and that the epistemological paradigm is that reality only exists in the human consciousness and the opinion in experience is justifiable as "*interpretation of the underlying conditions, historically and aesthetically, that account for the experience*" (Moustakas, 1994, Kindle Locations 352-354).

3.2.5 How does Phenomenology compare with other Research Methods?

Given the philosophy that underpins the focus of this study in understanding what JD is and how it is perceived and interpreted by the involved individuals within this context, various research paradigms could have been employed.

An ethnographic inquiry could have served the purpose of this enquiry since it is culturally focused and similar in its methodology enquiry requiring close participation, observations, interviews and field notes (Moustakas, 1994). However, the extensive time length that this approach requires and the importance of having a reflective paradigm would have evolved into a different understanding of the phenomenon, providing rather an ethnographer viewpoint, and not an ontological perspective with those involved and experiencing the phenomenon, taking into account their different realities through their accounts. Besides some of these realities, could have brought different conceptualisations, assuming JD to be one entity.

Grounded theory could have been another approach since the study is based on the experiences of a group within a particular context and new knowledge in teaching practices and multidisciplinary collaboration, for instance, as it is likely to emerge (Moustakas, 1994). However, the focus is not on theories, nor on an outcome, but rather in underpinning the realities expressed by the participants' understanding of JD that construct the phenomenon.

3.3 Summary

This chapter has provided the historical background and the thinking behind the development that led to the IPA paradigm. It has also examined this paradigm in relation to Education and its applications to this study context. Together with these observations, this section has contrasted the approaches in IPA with that in alternative research methods. This segment, therefore, offers the theoretical perspective that will aid the understanding of the methods and approach of the study outlined in the next chapter.

Chapter 4 Research Approach & Methods

4.1 Introduction

This chapter outlines the research design and approach to data collection, sample size, data analysis and interpretation framework employed in the study. It describes the processes employed to identify and make sense of what signifies Joint Delivery in an essence, as an emerging collaborative phenomenon in TNHE. The chapter will illustrate the process taken in analysing the participants' reflective accounts through the analytical parameters of IPA's and close with discussions about the ethical features in phenomenology and the reliability and trustworthiness of the study.

4.2 IPA Qualitative Approach – Paradigm and Flexibility

The study follows closely IPA theoretical and philosophical applications in Smith et al. (2009). Data interpretation in IPA employs a hermeneutic approach based on an initial focus on the particular utterances from each participant, to the shared accounts, and from the descriptions of their experiences, to the interpretation of what they convey in their sense making of the phenomenon (Smith et al., 2009). The approach offers flexibility in the analysis of the descriptions with an idiographic approach in identifying shared themes that would construct the phenomenon.

The researcher's interaction and involvement in the study are integrated in IPA interpretation through context experience and an inside understanding of what participants' responses convey in their sense making of their responses. In this way, any speculation that might interfere in the interpretation is consistent to the reality of the participants' accounts (Friesen, Henriksson & Saevi, 2012). Therefore, and informed by the philosophical paradigm of phenomenology, hermeneutics and idiography (Smith et al., 2009), this study utilises IPA's qualitative approach to facilitate the necessary flexibility necessary for the study regarding context and what is available to the researcher:

a. to be involved in the experience and understanding of the phenomenon;
b. to consider the particulars of the surroundings, understanding of the context, working relationships with participants and the researcher's reflective experience in relation to the study's accounts;
c. to conduct opened-semi-structured interviews with questions encouraging rich, deep, and detailed accounts on practice and experiences (Smith et al., 2009);
d. to encourage open and flexible discussions inviting participants to bring to the conversation any issue they thought important;
e. to transform interviews into reflective discussions between peers allowing for flexibility, comfort, and open discussions.

4.2.1 Conversational Interviews

IPA offers a two-level reflective approach as the perspective of the participants interplay with the researcher's perspective allowing a double role (Normann, 2017). In sharing the same professional background as the participants, the researcher shares an additional layer to the study's perspective: the theoretical framework of the study and professional experience (Normann, 2017). This requires reflection, as well as distancing or bracketing (Smith et al., 2009). As Normann (2017 p. 616) finds, bracketing occurs in various forms and study periods, "[s]*ince it is also important to establish common ground with the participants…*", yet 'pre-understanding' while refraining from presupposing or inferring concerns is possible. "*In the conversational interview, the researcher engages in reflections with the participants and starts interpreting*" (Normann, 2017 p. 616). Interpretation is constant and active throughout the research project process with the researcher engaged in reflexivity and an 'emic' perspective (Postholm & Skrøvset, 2013).

4.2.2 Interview Recordings

To highlight shared experiences and synthesise data, patterns of meaning are identified, rather than straight coding. This is significant for the amount of transcription needed and the extended large number of interviews of over an hour each. Hence, transcription was only dedicated for the sections with meaningful patterns. After listening to the interview

recordings a repeated number of times, patterns of meaning were identified, transcribed, collated, grouped into themes and mapped on a wall to establish relations.

Recordings help also with the recollection of the interview particulars. Participants' feelings and expressions through pauses and intonations make interpretation more interactive, distinguishing also more interactive features than written scripts. IPA is iterative and inductive, using a cycling and recycling process (Smith et al., 2009):

a) A theatrical analysis – a line-by-line analysis of themes, experiential claims, concerns and understandings
b) Identifying emerging shared themes that might converge or not across cases
c) Classifying relationship between themes forming a structural frame
d) Interpreting and clustering the thematic analysis theme by theme on to a heuristic diagram or table
e) Reflection on one's own experiences and perceptions, that may be hinted throughout, though adding contrast to each identified theme

4.2.3 Reflective Accounts

Perceptions are linked to IPA's hermeneutical cycle in the data analysis, as it looks at how experiences are interpreted and reflected by participants. The researcher provided a distance to the analysis through bracketing in IPA (Smith et al., 2009), and an interpretation, via an understanding of experiences in the context. The interviews were conducted at the end of the semester when courses had just ended and participants were able to reflect on their teaching experiences in their JD programmes, bringing with it more authenticity to the reflective aspect of the research.

The rationale for employing reflective accounts in the study, rather than taking on a longitudinal approach with accounts stretching along an academic year or semester, was due to two main correlated issues. One was lack of time in a full-time teaching occupation, and the other was due to rapid change and mobility within the LC and the University.

Interviews held at the end provide a reflected perspective with embedded elements of experiences and observations that could have been subject to further consideration and

thus, providing "*a deeper understanding of relationships within connections, other experiences, and ideas*" (Dunn & Musolino, 2011 p. 128), i.e. mentally digested experiences with a personal understanding of events and lesser emotional components attached. Conversational interviews are anticipated to raise most memorable events without carrying the emotional tag of the experience. In this way, the choice of topics and themes are instead driven by the interviewees.

The interview questions were based on process and on three main openings: (1) expectations of JD prior teaching; (2) experience during teaching in JD, and (3) changes, improvements or reflections on potential future scenarios for JD.

The conversational interviews focused on the perceptions on collaboration and practices in learning and teaching, motivations, cooperation, and achievements in this type of programme. Consequently, the participants' reflective responses on their experiences containing elements of their expectations, perceptions, and attitudes of their experiences were gathered at the end of the JD courses providing a reflected account and holistic view of their experiences with JD.

The idea is to provide the space to express their concerns and delights. Thus, a flexible semi-structured questionnaire of three main questions was approached to encourage discussion, with follow-up questions guiding the interview in either requesting expansion of some theme noted by the interviewee, or directing towards a more personal basis – as to the phenomenological ethos of 'what was it like?' and idiographic thrust such as 'how did you feel about that' (see Appendix 1). Thus, it offered a wide range of themes and items that were often difficult to untangle or correlate with other responses.

4.2.4 Study Participants

The aim of this study is to obtain a concrete sense of the JD phenomenon. Smith et al. (2009) suggest including only a few participants for IPA studies; however, as interviews started and participants' accounts showed that their accounts reflected different settings and structures to various types JD-courses, the sample size needed to include all possible LC-practitioners involved in JD, so as to comprise all potential experiences of the

phenomenon. Thus, the study explores the narratives of thirteen LC-language experts taking a reflective approach to the data, as participants were interviewed at the end of the semester.

The participants' responsibilities within the center at different times during data collection can be found in Table 6 below, together with the type of modules they taught, co-teaching partners within participants, years worked at the university and top qualifications. Amongst these characteristics, nine are tutors and three managers in the JD programme and at different times of this study process. This illustrates the rate of change and mobility of the staff within the LC and consequently the University. Most tutors however, have between 2-9 years permanency in the centre with extensive teaching experience.

Table 6 – Participants' Characteristics

Pseudo name	Responsibilities	Main type of JD	Additional JD experience	Modules codes	Co-taught with name	At the university	Top Qualifications
Carol	Manager	Lecture – LC Supported	-	Y3-Industrial Design	-	4yrs	MA
Jack	Manager	Lecture – LC Supported	-	Y3 (unsure)	-	2yrs	PhD
Paloma	Tutor	Lecture & Seminar	Lecture – LC Supported	Y1-Introduction to Business and Finance	Gary	2yrs	MA & working towards PhD
Alice	Module Coordinator	Lecture & Seminar	-	Y1-Intro to Communication Studies	John	4yrs	MA
Chunhua	Module Coordinator	Lecture & Seminar	Multidisciplinary	Y2-Critical Thinking and Philosophy	-	4yrs	MA
Wenling	Module Coordinator	Lecture & Seminar	Multidisciplinary	Y1- Imagine the City	Ruolang, John, Gary	9yrs	PhD
Gary	Module Coordinator	Lecture & Seminar	-	Y1-Introduction to Business and Finance	Paloma, Eduard	9yrs	MA & working towards EdD
Daniel	Module Coordinator	Lecture & Seminar	Multidisciplinary	Y2-Communication, Business and The Environment	-	2yrs	MA
Hannah	Manager	Lecture – LC Supported	-	Y3-Biology	-	2yrs	MA
John	Tutor	Lecture & Seminar	-	Y1-Intro to Communication Studies	Alice, Ruolang	2yrs	MA & working towards PhD
Ruolang	Tutor	Lecture & Seminar	Lecture – LC Supported	Y1-Intro to Engineering	Gary, Wenling	2yrs	MA
Eduard	Manager	Lecture – LC Supported	Lecture & Seminar	Y1-How language works	Gary	6yrs	MA & working towards EdD
Author	Module Coordinator	Lecture – LC Supported	Lecture & Seminar	LAN004 Y3-Industrial Design		6yrs	MA & working towards EdD

The participants' narratives will be the basis of the investigation, facilitating the essence of the phenomenon (Eddles-Hirsch, 2015). To add support to interview narratives, understand better the utterances and discourses, and make sense of contextual changes, additional information from in-house documents, for which permission was granted, will supplement to the data analysis. Such documents are the minutes from meetings attended by the LC-participants at various points of various academic semesters, an internal periodic review

report and the reflective reports that each LC-specialist drafts at the end of each course, providing a reflective account of the strengths and weakness of their module, including results from students' responses to the module's questionnaire.

4.3 IPA Analytical Process

IPA is a valuable research method for data analysis in Psychology, Health Research and Education. Smith et al.'s (2009) extensive work on IPA highlights the knowledge value of the researcher. This particular feature in IPA provides a level of flexibility to the researcher that may be limited in other approaches. "*There is no clear right or wrong way of conducting this sort of analysis, and we encourage IPA researchers to be innovative in the ways that they approach it*" (Smith et al., 2009 p. 80). For first timers, however, IPA researchers are encouraged to use an outline.

This outline is followed to some degree in this study, though with some alterations to meet the circumstances of the research context and its researcher. A heuristic framework is used for the analysis as it "*draws on many of the processes, principles and strategies typically employed by IPA researchers*" (Smith et al., 2009 p. 80).

To achieve data immersion, each interview is analysed individually following the steps below. To be able to place myself in the interview room again and recollect the event, the analysis is based mainly on continuous listening to each interview. As Smith et al. (2009) suggests this to be helpful for "*imagining the voice of the participant*" (p.82) and obtaining a better recollection of the feelings and perceptions of the participant making sense of his/her experience at that particular moment. Thus, a combination of these five steps was followed in the date analytical process:

Step 1 – listening for gist – to listen to the whole interview without interruption. The aim for this was to immerse myself back to the event and obtain a holistic feeling and recollection to it. A general sense back to the experience and a global perception of the views and feelings of the participant at that moment of the interview aid this initial stage of the analysis to avoid any abrupt summary of important information that can miss important insight, as suggested in Smith et al. (2009).

Recording and noting down my own recollection of the interview experience with any observations made while listening "*in order to help bracket them off for a while*" (Smith et al., 2009 p. 85), and for later to compare with the notes taken during the actual interview.

Step 2 – listening for themes – In a second listening of the interview, the themes or topics of the interview were identified and placed on a grid with additional information that will be noted on a third listening of the interview.

Step 3 – listening for content – On a grid that includes the main themes identified in step 2, a summary section on this grid that includes summaries and highlights about those themes with direct quotations from the interviewees that are noted from a third listening of each interview. A third column will include observation, and comments from an initial observation of what is being said, that is, of the accounts of each interviewee's experience.

Step 4 – heuristic approach to the analysis – While step 3 focuses on what was said in the interview, in this step the focus is in how it was expressed and what insights might bring further contrast with notes from the actual interview, and from step 3, the observations made further analysing 'how' something was expressed, or perhaps avoided, together with the contextualisation of the experience and knowledge of the context and environment known to the researcher as a member of the LC.

Step 5 – final stitching – This final step concentrates on comparing and finding patterns and common themes in experiences from all the participants, to establish then a structural framework that would provide insights, as to what constitutes JD in the context of this University.

NVivo software was useful for arranging patterns of meaning, as themes and subthemes were increasing. With this increase shared themes were more apparent and relationships more apparent providing moments of 'discovery' (Smith et al., 1999 p. 230). Connections and clusters were interrelated making sense through NVivo's concept-mapping software, ending on a room-wall for a better and global visual of the ramifications of themes, subthemes and particulars of the phenomenology.

4.4 Ethical Features in Phenomenology

The interest of this study is on the participants' narratives, perceptions and views of the phenomenon. For this reason, their identities are anonymised and pseudonyms used. First names, as opposed to acronyms and/or numbers such as LC-12, are used in the study since phenomenology goes beyond the superficial; it goes deeper into the personal experience and in search for the human emotion.

Participants were informed of the purpose of the study, signing consent forms prior to the interviews and recording (Appendix 2). They were also informed of potential publication of the research and in due time the promise of copies of the final piece would be offered. Their participation was voluntary and opportunities to withdraw were (and still are) available. The granted ethical approval can also be found in the appendices (Appendix 3).

Due to the nature of the study as being reflective and involving the recording of personal statements about practices – and, moreover, discussing these with colleagues – an assurance of the anonymity of key identifiers that might have revealed participants' identity was guaranteed in the study, using instead generalisations. In addition, storage of data is password protected in personal equipment.

4.5 Trustworthiness

Smith et al. (2009) claim that the evaluation and validation of qualitative research should employ different tools and parameters from that of quantitative methods. In citing Yardley (2000) they present three elements to IPA validation criteria (see chapter 11 in Smith et al., 2009). The first is 'sensitivity to context' considering factors such as sociocultural milieu, and idiographic issues and the particularity of the context and participants. A second element is 'transparency and coherence', both of which are identified through the description of participant selection, interview schedule and processes, and a step-by-step description of the analytic process. The interests, importance and usefulness of the report would also determine its validity, as the third element of Yardley's (2000) criteria (as in Smith et al., 2009).

These criteria operate in this study but in 'an inherently interpretative' study through a process where the researcher's aim is to provide the reader with an understanding of the researcher's sense making of participants making sense of their experiences (Smith et al., 2009). IPA is generally quite specific to identifying phenomena in Psychology, which generally are specific to a patient and are difficult for researchers to experience similarly. In Education the researcher is more likely to have a much closer understanding of the phenomenon. Yet, "*a strong IPA study will thereby be demonstrating a sensitivity to the raw material being worked with …and giving participants a voice*" (Smith et al., 2009 p. 180).

This voice was provided through conversational and reflective interviews. Rather than directing crafted questions, participants were able to highlight any issues they felt most concerned about. The existing relationship, with colleagues in the same department, provided also a certain sense of ease to the interviews. Indeed, not all the working relationships are the same, though by bracketing, taking some distance and reviewing layers of analysis the perspective was equal to all. In addition, the understanding of personalities and cultural difference help in making sense of the various attitudes in the participants' utterances. Thus, the credibility and plausibility of the data, and the logic and coherence of the study is what provides the trustworthiness of the research (Yin 1989 cited in Smith et al., 2009). The logical sequence of steps detailed above in this chapter should make for an easy-to-follow piece of research in the succeeding chapters.

4.6 Summary

Under the circumstances and constraints regarding time and context, IPA offers, therefore, a type of flexibility that allows for implementing this enquiry. It also adds the element of reflection and the value of the author's interpretation through the knowledge of the context, participants and practices, while at the same time, allowing objectivity in the understanding of narrative and participants' narratives making sense of their experiences. In the following chapter, these narratives are analysed and interpreted through the perspective of IPA's strategy.

Chapter 5 Findings

5.1 Introduction

The purpose of this IPA study is to comprehend how participants make sense of their teaching and learning experience, so as to understand the Joint Delivery Phenomenon in the context of TNHE China.

Through the analytical process depicted above three main overarching themes were identified:

1) The collaborative teaching experience capturing the different relationships amongst practitioners in lectures and seminars settings while identifying JD's various approaches.
2) The pedagogical experience comprising LC-specialists' most resonating factors of their JD-classroom practice such as L1/L2 learning, teaching large cohorts, learning spaces.
3) The professional learning experience covering participants' deliberations on their professional development in JD, dealing with new subjects and affiliations, and their reflections on teacher identity.

Before looking at the particulars of these units of experience, it will be helpful to have a contextualised view of the findings within two initial sections:

1) Joint Delivery as a whole:
    a. a structural view of approaches that Joint Delivery programme has to offer
    b. the characteristics of collaboration in relation to Friend and Cook's (2014) framework, helping to identify parameters of achievement and difficulty
    c. levels of collaboration, perceptions and attitude towards the phenomenon of JD in the transnational HE context

2) The Participants' viewpoint:
    a. expectations and preconceptions prior to JD
    b. interests and reasons for joining JD
    c. expectations and assumptions about JD learners
    d. reflections and conceptualisations

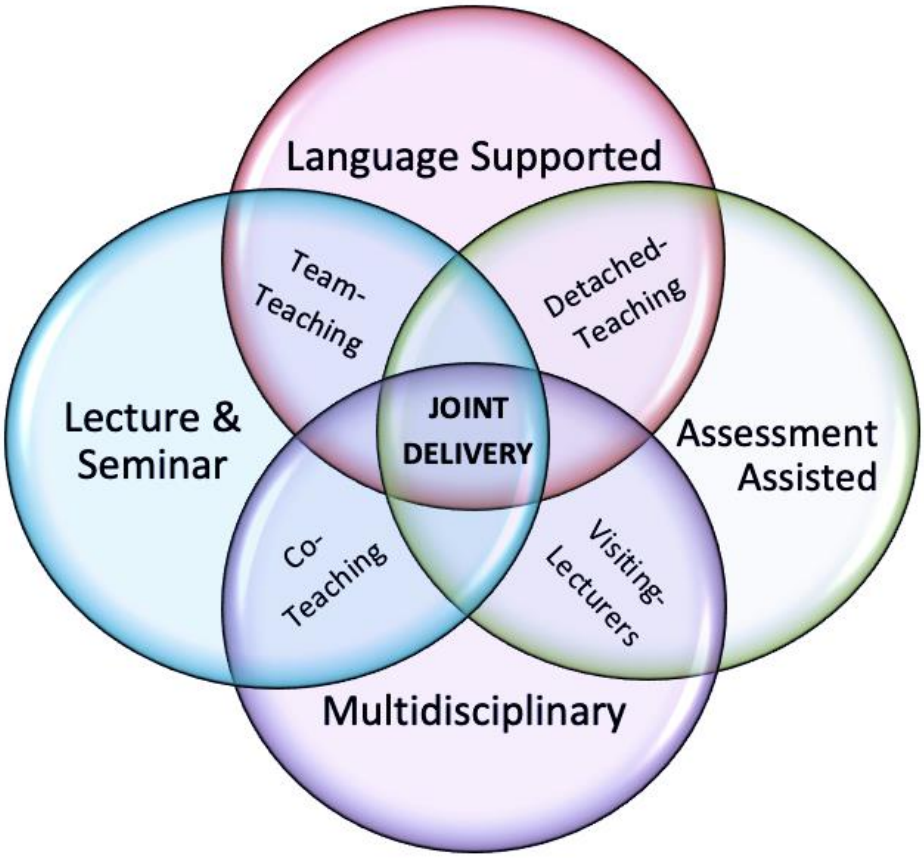
5.2 Joint Delivery: Models of Delivery

Based on the interview discussions with the participants of this study and their reflections of their experiences, JD seems to be flexible and embrace a variety of approaches and delivery. These included various degrees of collaboration between the departments and the LC, and different approaches to practice in the delivery subject content, language and study skills.

Language support is provided in all forms of JD. The core factor seems to be providing opportunities for students to further practice and thinking. Some of these models focus more on the content, when language is additional to a given course. Other models have a clearer demarcation in the delivery and balance in content and language delivery, where students receive lectures on content followed by supporting seminars. Multidisciplinary courses may include a combination of both of the above and a greater number of staff involved, with visiting lecturers from different departments in some cases.

The representation below (Figure 5) is an attempt to illustrate these differences and also the relation between them. If one could imagine the collaborative teaching approaches of delivery within the interacting circles (team-teaching, detached-teaching, co-teaching and visiting lectures) rotating over the four circles as in two layers of circles and ovals, then these combinations are potentially models of delivery where content, language and other subjects can be supported within the Joint Delivery programme.

Figure 5 – Joint Delivery and its Models of Delivery



Joint delivery combining models in two rotating layers;
course structures and collaborative teaching approaches

5.2.1 Collaboration Framework – Definition and Characteristics

Friend and Cook's (2014 p.8) definition[2] and characteristics of what they consider an optimum collaboration offer a valuable platform for this study. Their classification of items such as *interaction*, *parity*, *voluntary*, *shared decision-making* and *common goal*, as outlined and contrasted in Table 7 below[3], form part of the various elements that help determine the different levels collaboration in the analysis of JD's collaborative scenarios. Friend and

[2] Refer to section Collaboration – Definition and Characteristics p. 31
[3] See also required in collaborative settings.
Table **3** – Characteristics of Collaboration p. 34

Cook's (2014) platform thus provides a catalogue that helps in identifying and contrasting differences between all three main JD's collaborative approaches.

Table 7 – Joint Delivery's Collaborative Scenarios

Structural	Lecture - LC Supported	Co-Delivery Dep.-LC	Joint Delivery Lecture & Seminar
Voluntary	Semi-voluntary for LC-tutors & generally assigned for lecturers according to subject	Semi-voluntary for LC-tutors & generally assigned for lecturers according to subject	Semi-voluntary for LC-tutors & generally assigned for lecturers according to subject
Parity	Content – Dep. led Structure and assessments – LC led	Content, structure & assessments – Dep. led	Content – Dep. led Structure and assessments – LC led
Mutual goals	Students' Learning subject and related language. Promoting & introducing Dep.'s topic Language & Skills improvement	Students' Learning subject and related language. Promoting & introducing Dep.'s topic Language & Skills improvement	Students' Learning subject and related language. Promoting & introducing Dep.'s topic Language & Skills improvement
Shared responsibilities & decision-making	Demarcation of tasks Some common decision making	Shared participation	Demarcation of tasks Shared participation for LC-tutors in seminars
Share of resources	Share of lecture's PPTs Generally	Share of lecture's PPTs	Share of lecture's PPTs
Share of accountability of outcomes	May share grading assessments, often speaking assessments. Module's outcomes shared to a degree. Responsible the departmental module coordinator	May share grading assessments, often speaking and writing for large cohorts. Module's outcomes shared to a degree. Shared responsibility, but mostly on module coordinator	Usually LC designs and grades assessments. Module's outcomes shared to a degree. Responsibility - LC's module coordinator

Applying JD Features to Friend and Cook's (2014 pp. 8-11) Characteristics of Collaboration

The participants' accounts and their collaborative endeavours described features of collaborative approaches in JD. A good number of these features are depicted in Friend and Cook's (2014) framework on collaboration (Table 7). This demonstrates that all JD models are collaborative in nature, as they comprise a common goal and a share of responsibilities and resources. JD courses with lectures and LC-support in seminars have a much clearer demarcation of duties regarding planning, delivery and assessment. In co-delivery, LC and departmental staff co-teach and share resources in theory, though accounts suggest a variation of approaches. LC-support tends to be additional to departmental courses run by one co-opted lecturer. Less collaboration is found in settings where parties are assigned as visiting lecturers. Thus far, the findings suggest more clarity and training on what cooperation means, the expectations in JD, and what they may entail.

5.2.2 The Experience, Perception and Attitudes – The Phenomenon

This subsection provides an overview of the perceptions and attitudes expressed in the interviews as participants made sense of their experiences in JD. The interviews were held at the end of the semester with the intention to provide a reflective account of their meaning making of their collaborative experiences. The table below identifies three types of contexts: lectures, seminars, and the co-teaching. Here the LC-interviewees' experiences, perceptions and attitudes are categorised into positive and less positive experiences together with some suggested needs, depicting all together the phenomenon more closely.

Table 8 – The Phenomenon

Lectures		
Positive experiences	Less positive experiences	Needs and improvements
– Having the student experience in lectures – Learning or re-learning subject matter – Lecture teaching observations	– No interaction with lecturers in semi-detached courses – Some assisting in lectures – Lack of peer observation – Too many people in the course, some visiting lecturers	– Feedback on teaching for/from lecturers – More communication in exchanging expertise – More continuation to build rapport
Seminars		
Positive experiences	Less positive experiences	Needs and improvements
– JD bridges between EAP and Content – Contextualising EAP	– Overlaps between skills taught in EAP and those in JD	– Remedial and supplementary work on skills and language
The co-teaching experience		
Positive experiences	Less positive experiences	Needs and improvements
– Satisfaction – Interesting – Good to have a co-teacher – Support – Fantastic – Being assisted – Professionalism – A 'fortune' when working with people that corresponds to one's personality – Greater use of technology	– Adaptation – New dynamics – A Gradual process – Reservation – Observation – Learning process – Judging – Co-reaction – Acting accordingly	– Early expressions of teaching preferences – Preferences as part of the plan (course plan) – Clear understanding of each other's teaching approaches – Open dialogue – Respect and professionalism

5.3 Conceptualising Joint Delivery

5.3.1 Participants' Expectations and Preconceptions of JD

In general, most participants "*envisioned more content specific[s]*" (Gary) in JD, compared to their background in EAP.

> "*I thought it would involve less EAP, a relationship with the departments… and more academic content… that's all I expected and that's precisely why I wanted to do it*" (John).

Though a good number of participants expressed satisfaction in focusing more on content, there were also concerns about the preparation time studying a subject that was either revised since university or was new. To be able to contribute in JD courses, participants felt obliged to take the student role at times:

> *"I thought I was going to prepare myself a lot because when I was told to do Literature and Film I was confident enough because I studied literature at university but I thought that was many years ago...so I thought... I had the impression that I had to go back to student and refresh my memory about literature and all that, but I had no idea what that module was about, I was given that job ...so that was my expectation" (Ruolang).*

> *"we're going to contribute in areas where there were going to be subject focus… delimited [our delivery] by what the subject brought itself. I didn't think… had to worry about content much… but at the same time I had to be a kind of learner too… if I have to teach about something I have to learn about it… regardless of whether I am an expert or not, it was a bit intimidating" (Daniel).*

Concerns from statements participants heard prior to JD, regarding the number of people involved in one module or problems with time preparation, were expressed with some anxiety, particularly in courses that had pre-lecture seminars, leading to overtime work:

> *"To be honest I was afraid it could be disorganised and if there is one thing… stresses me out, is the lack of organisation, leaving things to the last minute. Things don't go*

> *well because they're not prepared, because there are so many people involved, and my teaching partner… he had experience in previous year with quite a similar team with the same department… but he had to chase the tutor in that department to release their lecture because he couldn't just... didn't know what to do to prepare for the students… to have [the plan] prior to the lecture, sometimes 24 hours before. So, when he told me some [of this] I was a bit anxious, because I thought, oh ok how does the semester work? …all the weekend, all night long (preparing) because other people were not ready, you know? But, in the end it worked well" (Paloma).*

Driven by those expectations and perceptions of what JD could offer and as long-time EAP practitioners, participants expressed thrilling enthusiasm in starting JD, as they looked for something different and less prescriptive.

> *"if you are removed from content it seems you're always talking about how to do something… focused on methods and mechanics… grammar, skills… You become isolated to what's actually happening [in] the classroom, in the sense that students may have a well-constructed paragraph but had nothing to say about the subject, because it wasn't taught. With content, we have something to deal with being EAP limited in a way" (Daniel).*

Apart from offering something different, there were other reasons for joining the JD programme. Tutors wanted to transcend and develop professionally in areas such as, using technology in teaching, practical experiences working with large classrooms, or simply understanding the workings of the JD programme:

> *"I recognised a weakness in my own teaching practice and that I was using technology to a fundamental level... I saw JD as a good way to force me to really utilize the resources we have on ICE", since "a lot of the support in assisted delivery takes place outside the classroom as well as inside... depend[ing] on how it's run… I wanted to see how big room teaching worked in practice, whether the departments were innovating, and whether I could learn from that… I wanted to see how JD works and whether it does, because in my mind from research, it should work and the benefits should be pretty great" (Hannah).*

5.3.2 Participants' Interests and Reasons for Joining JD

There is a sense of excitement and curiosity expressed by the participants at the prospect of joining the JD programme. Some felt 'hugely positive' to start JD in searching for something different (*Gary*), others were 'excited too' in providing context to EAP's focus on "*methods and mechanics… grammar, skills… removed from content*" (*Daniel*), adding;

> *"… you're always [EAP-specialists] talking about how to do something… you become isolated to what's actually happening in the classroom, in the sense that students may have a well-constructed paragraph but had nothing to say about the subject, because it wasn't taught. With content, we have something to deal with, being EAP limited in a way" (Daniel).*

Other interests were in the potential that JD presented to develop professionally. In *Hannah*'s case, the use of technology; "*I saw JD as a good way to force me to really utilize the resources we have on ICE*", since "*a lot of the support in assisted delivery takes place outside the classroom as well as inside… depend[ing] on how it's run*". Also, 'big-room teaching' experience was another motivator for learning different teaching scenarios, since most experiences had been in small class settings with 15 to 25 students; "*I wanted to see how big room teaching worked in practice, whether the departments were innovating, and whether I could learn from that*"(*Hannah*). For long-term experienced practitioners and in research there is a genuine positive curiosity about the workings of JD.

There is therefore, a genuine sense of curiosity in exploring new venues of practice, either to further learning and developing new teaching approaches and/or to exploring new possibilities for instruction.

5.3.3 Participants' Expectations and Assumptions about Learners in JD

Lectures and tutors may have certain preconceptions about their students learning styles and approaches to classwork. Two examples were highlighted in the interviews: students transferring skills, and autonomous learning.

In non-EAP courses practitioners expect students to be familiar with the skills they learn in EAP. Students are expected to recognize, apply and allocate these skills appropriately, within the requirements of the departmental courses. In JD, Ruolang expects students to take notes during the lectures, together with being familiar with note-taking skills, language comprehension, identifying signposts, repetitions, intonations, etc. Students in their early years in this university context often compartmentalise courses, rather than transfer skills. This distinction is more prevalent between EAP and departmental work, which consequently amongst other aspects, saw the JD programme emerge in the first place (Eduard), aiming at bridging this gap and aiding students in identifying the connections and transferring the skills they need for other courses and work at university.

Another expectation regards autonomous learning. Gary expects students to take initiative in searching independently for new concepts and ideas, rather than asking him to provide an answer. A frequent experience in this context is the class suspense and silence lingering across the room. The teacher waits for the students' response, while students anticipate the teacher's correct answer. Students' burning questions are often on hold until the end of the lecture when students agglomerate by the podium to ask the lecturer. There is thus a significant contrast between students and teachers' expectations in their learning styles.

As a consequence, these expectations bear significant assumptions such as the students' ability to transfer skills, take notes in year-1, take initiative without direction, or search for a subject-specific concept on the Internet in a different language and in China.

To some degree there is some awareness of the differences between the learning approaches and skills acquired in most high schools in China, and the expectations in transnational universities. However, collaboration and interchange of expertise between content and literacies specialists can help evaluate those expectations and assumptions and put programmes in place to help, such as JD.

5.3.4 Participants' Reflections and Conceptualisation of JD

The utterances regarding the essence of JD and what it offers to students were generally unanimous. This suggests an agreed view of the objectives of all JD models. In Table 9,

participants highlight concepts such as learning transfer and making connections, support and learning value, authenticity and specificity.

Table 9 – Participants Conceptualising Joint Delivery

"To transfer learning from and to other classes"	**Jack**
"[It] is an extension of the lecture format… a supplementary addendum… we reaffirm and consolidate some important ideas… an echo chamber for the lecture… practice to use English in dealing with the content"	**John**
"Embedding language support into the modules that the departments already have… driven by the LC trying to integrate with the departments… valuable in terms of getting students to get connections between the skills they should be learning in their EAP modules and using those skills in the departmental modules"	**Eduard**
"Enable the students to have access to the content in a smoother way"	**Paloma**
"Easing the access to academic content, students (year-1) get 'a taste of everything' in a particular subject… can be 'very, very insightful' for the students"	**Gary**
"They (students) are accomplishing certain tasks with something real… it's a real lecture from a real lecturer organised in their way… we see a range of styles from a range of cultures, it's a very unique chance to kind of get exposed to lots of styles, it's a very hard for that reason… you've got professors from all over the world it's a pretty accurate way of looking at education today… so, they (students) are getting something real"	**Daniel**
"Tailoring from ESP towards the need of departmental clusters… JD as a way of increasing 'specificity'… having a LC-tutor in a JD module/assisted would allow for more specificity in terms of the language and study skills to be provided to the students"	**Hannah**

Participants find co-teaching "*interesting' if you haven't done it before*" (Gary) and JD as "*doing something innovative with teaching*" (Eduard), away from EAP technicalities and more into "*the fact that we talk about ideas and I explain ideas, and we're not talking just about paragraph structure*" (John).

Other more administrative elements concerned staffing, as a manager noted; "*it's very light touch in terms to staffing… so we can reach across quite a few different modules"* (Eduard), and it is echoed by a tutor teaching large cohorts: "*JD requires less people for the number of students involved*"(Gary), while another manager questions the value added (Carol) perhaps

in the idea of tutors dealing with various subjects at the same time and the challenges in teaching large classrooms from the students-teacher pedagogical value.

Other factors concerned modifications in what participants view JD could offer in relation to when it should be provided – "*I think Joint Delivery should be... for the basic (early) years… preparing them (students) for the content*" for later years (Paloma); the value of greater communication and what it can achieve – "*we (LC-EAP tutors) have a better idea of the pitfall in terms of the struggles in terms of language… if there were more communication we could solve that problem before coming to the classroom – I think that has value*" (Daniel); and, in some cases where students may need specific indications of what the objectives are: "*JD bridging between EAP and academic input is a bit more subtle or not quite clear, we may have to tell them (students): 'this is why you doing a JD module'*" (Gary).

Although responses were embedded in their accounts of their experiences of JD, as participants were not specifically questioned but these rather emerged during conversation, as in the phenomenological approach, participants agreed in that the JD approach (within the models they experienced) was viewed as a way to move forward in HE: "*it's the future of EAP… talking about ideas, teaching ideas, sharing ideas*" (John).

5.4 The Collaborative Teaching Experience

5.4.1 An Overview of the Co-teaching Experience

All participants expressed content and satisfaction regarding their co-teaching experience. Although there were some reservations at the start of the course, either due to the number of individuals involved or apprehension in having a colleague in the classroom (e.g. '*strange*', '*disconcerting*', '*nervous*'), participants voiced gratitude for the opportunity, and genuine enjoyment:

> *"It's interesting if you haven't done it before" (Gary).*
>
> *"It's good have a co-teacher to work together" (Wenling)*

> *"Well, actually, it has everything to go wrong because there are so many people involved, but I had a fantastic experience this semester…. Yes, I've learned, I've learned because we have different styles, different approaches." (Paloma)*

Co-teaching for experienced teachers can be confusing or even distressing in having a second teacher in the classroom. This is not only due to having to adapt to a peer's classroom management and teaching approaches, but also in sharing the control or 'ownership' that long-term teachers have to some degree of their classrooms, as here cautiously expressed by this participant:

> *"… when you are established for a long time, to then having somebody else in that room can feel a little bit disconcerting, because when you are in the classroom you're the person in charge; it's like an orchestra conductor you know, you directing where you want to, but suddenly there is more dynamics involved, you kind of like…you know, it's very different" (Gary).*

This suggests a gradual process of adaptation, coordination and understanding between teachers. The following two utterances suggest different stages in this process. They indicate a stage of reservation, observing time, learning process and some evaluative judgement period to correspond to a colleague's reaction to one's teaching.

> *"…it was strange at the beginning, I felt a little bit uncomfortable, but it's all about...you know, in any workplace, I think it's very important to have these good relationships, professional respect and it worked very well. So, I didn't feel uncomfortable to the point of being watched like when you have an observation or something like that. So, it was very professional, I felt I was assisted all the time and I felt I was there to support him, as well... again, because you forgot something and we're helping each other, so I felt absolutely comfortable from some point on when I got used to the presence of someone there with me, but it was ok, yeah" (Paloma)*

> *"Yes, it feels as though I learned something because I only taught on my own so, I was a little bit nervous at the beginning because you never know when you're sitting in someone lecture; 'should I speak? can I speak? would he mind if I say something? […] I was quiet at the beginning but… I delivered my session and he was quite active*

> *in my session so, I thought 'oh great, he doesn't mind… so I would just jump-in if he was talking and say 'we should clarify that point' and he was more than happy to let me do it" (Hannah)*

In the latter description, the situation may be problematic if both practitioners are waiting for each other to act and react according to their peer's reaction. This suggests the need for open dialogue prior to the start of the course, establishing the preferences and expectations each practitioner has on classroom management.

Other participants found that the best way for co-teaching to work is "*deciding who is going to lead which part*", Gary assures us so that when one is teaching the other is in a '*support capacity*' helping student groups, depending on what the co-teacher is instructing. Gary now finds support from his colleague indicating that he feels 'fortunate' with whom he works and after a time of getting used to it, he enjoys it. This confirms that time and voluntary elements of the collaboration (Friend and Cook, 2014) can aid in building rapport and trust, which may condition co-teaching.

The experiences in co-teaching in this context indicate a period of adaptation: starting with some degree of caution, wonder and anxiety; followed by a period of learning and getting used to each other, suggesting a positive outcome in collaborative teaching.

5.4.2 Experience in Lectures

Lectures are delivered by the departmental staff and are part of the LC-tutor's timetable; "*you have to go*" (Gary). However, there is flexibility on which one to attend, in courses with large cohorts and more than one lecture, such as in business courses.

Lectures may "*help you to see what students experience*" (Gary), which is an important factor in teaching and course development, as well as providing an opportunity to take notes in preparation for the upcoming seminars. These are usually made available for students via VLE to complement taught skills on approaches to note taking. "*The notes are useful because it's a model they can refer to… students like it*" (John). However, it can be questioned whether this accessibility to tutors' notes via VLE creates a certain ease for students constraining further practice and improvement of their own skill.

Some lecturers might request help from tutors, for instance, with sketching or group work depending on the nature of the lecture (Gary). Tutors seem happy to help "*if the lecturer needs me to assist… on a game, distributing materials, monitor…*" (Daniel). Though generally, "*we just sit there, listen… there is not much social interaction… because there is no structural requirement for us to collaborate, we're quite semi-detached, as it is because all we need is a PPT… and quite possibly suggestions for readings texts*" (John)

Participants report lectures to take different forms of delivery. From a mechanical approach, to inspiring lectures that may turn an otherwise complex or uninteresting subject into something comprehensive and enjoyable. This tutor recalls a lecture on micro- and macroeconomics:

> *"… and the way he delivered this was a more digestible way, and he was so slow in doing this, you know, with the little notes and everyone was just expecting... and the language was simple examples of our everyday life that we could apply it, but he said it was much more complex than that, but it's just a touch of where to go and how to study it and everything. It was amazing. So that's when I thought, a lecture can make a huge difference - [instead of] get this, this chapter in the book …" (Paloma)*

Tutors recognised and complimented good lecture practices in their accounts, as some lecturers did make good use of the learning spaces, when possible and provided a more student-centred approach, such as in the account below where the lecture delivery was in a flexible-open space.

> *"…to their credit, they did use the room in a student-centred kind of way… jigsaw assessments, given tasks, they were sitting in different groups… I would go around the room from table to table…. They did a good job on that, every compliment. If they want to give a lecture and get over with, you kind of understood that. Although to be fair even in those cases when they were lecturing they were giving questions to the students. It was nice to see they were using the tables and they were focusing on, you know, getting some formative assessment, getting students involved" (Daniel).*

The lecture experience varied in some of the accounts as tutors viewed some to be more mechanical in their approach, or lectures that were "*quite good in breaking the lecture up*

[with] a little quiz questions on ICE" for every 15-20 min talk but, "*he had lots of material to get through, I felt as if he was going to get through the material regardless of what was actually happening in the class… there wouldn't be a moment to sort of stop and go back and review*" (Hannah).

Participants, as trained teachers, recognise issues and differences in teaching practices and approaches. They value what they have to offer as language specialists, having "*a better idea of the pitfall in terms of the struggles (students have) in terms of language…* If there were more communication, we could solve that problem before coming to the classroom – I think that has value*"* (Daniel). Thus, communication seems key for sharing views about students' learning needs and exchanging divergent perceptions of pedagogy and functions of lectures, seminars, ways of teaching-and-learning and JD; ultimately, it refines teaching practices, the learning outcomes and practitioners' professional development.

Without communication, lecturers may deliver *"*what they want… with some information useful and some not*",* then, he feels, his job is *"to summarise determining (for his seminars) what problems do they (students) have based on what I think of the students and what do they see is hard in the lecture or what's not covered so much… I need to do some formative assessment in seminars"* (Daniel).

From here, the JD tutor experience in lectures seems to consist of a rapid conceptualisation process. It is not only in trying to understand the content, break it into workable pieces, and connect these to design tasks for the seminars, but also, in evaluating the content and deciding whether additional input or remedial work is required, from either the lecture or EAP, regarding a particular group of students. Added to this, is the need for reminders of the purpose of JD, so that students connect their subject courses with the reasons for learning literacy skills.

From the perspective of the subject lecturers, it can be difficult, or perhaps intimidating to deliver a session while being observed by, on many occasions, a tutor who might have more teaching experience or might be more fluent in often the lecturer's L2. Since the majority of the lecturers are visiting lecturers, this study decided not to include them, though an

interest in how JD is perceived from the Faculty viewpoint could provide future research with more of a holistic view of these forms of collaboration.

The contribution academics provide to seminars seems limited. "*Lecturers can suggest what to cover or not… which is helpful*", Daniel adds gratefully, "*they don't suggest specific activities… they would give me readings to go over a little bit [if] they don't cover it fully*" (Daniel). Perhaps, "*with more keen lecturers or less lecturers*", he wonders, "*if the lecturer was keen to work with you and you agreed on the learning outcomes on that, you would have to both learn from each other early, but takes a lot of commitment from week to week… even if planned in advanced… you'd still have to review it*" (Daniel). This suggests some level of frustration, perhaps in the sheer number of visiting lecturers involved, and the level of contribution and collaboration that seems to limit the learning due to time scarcity.

This lack of communication seems to be mirrored in other courses where "*the module coordinator… is the one who determines the content, the lectures and he designs this in the beginning of the semester where there are many (departmental) tutors involved - around eight. He designs this by himself; he doesn't consult us*" (Paloma), thus, consultation with LC-peers does not seem to occur in some cases either.

When communication is minimal, the experience can negatively affect those involved, as well as the course potential. In courses where the lecture and seminar are part of a two-hour session, the tutor might feel redundant: "*I felt like a spare part, almost like a secretary*"; "*seminars weren't structured in a way that I could contribute*". She recognises that she "*was learning on the job*" as this was her first module in JD, but felt she could not provide "*any meaningful contribution*" as she felt "*they were heavily led by the academic*". Seminars were meant for discussion; however, they were "*a collection of mini-lectures*", though towards the end of the semester there were more students-led discussions with the idea of practicing debates. She then was able to "*get up and go around the room and try to engage with the student… I felt though as if I wasn't really utilised that well on that module*" (Hannah).

Consequently, in JD co-teaching with the departmental staff, where the subject matter is the course focus, the design of the curriculum needs to be inclusive of all those involved.

This would surely maximise the course potential and provide all peers with a role, preventing demotivation and alienation from the happenings in the classroom. The inclusion would add value and accountability to all, benefiting the course outcomes and the students.

5.4.3 Experience in Seminars

Seminars here refer to the sessions that follow each lecture within the JD programme. Their main purpose is to provide students with the time and space necessary to discuss and conceptualise lecture content. Through the combination of reiteration, reinforcement and revision, students are provided with the opportunity to reflect on particular aspects of the subject matter while building on academic literacies.

Seminars are commonly designed, developed and run by the LC-specialists. They also manage seminars in JD courses that were originally owned by the departments, but for reasons such as cohort size (20 to 200+ students), assessment, or work overload, were transferred to the LC. These seminars tend to be held a day or two after the lecture, giving some time to develop seminar materials, though most LC-participants expressed levels of distress and anxiety (see below, p. 106).

John describes the seminar, co-teaching about 110 students with some sense of urgency in balancing lecturing and giving students the time to discuss.

> *"In a sense we're repeating the content; I give a little mini-lectures, yeah, where I repeat aspects of the lecture from the day before and explain things in a greater detail, but there would be a series of questions of what we've done, discussion questions, …at the end we'd have feedback…. It would not be just student-centred in the sense we've just eliciting everyone's opinion, we'd also give some kind of perspective of our own, so therefore is a little like in the lecture again" (John)*

From above, seminars are spaces for not only reiterating lecture content, which should help students identify key ideas, but also to obtain more detail on these particular ideas. However, more detailed concepts may be at times too sophisticated for students, particularly in year-1. Thus in response, another JD-course convenor divided the seminar time into two, pre- and post-lecture seminars, providing students with some homework

preparation time before the lecture "*…and then you had the review again where you can go deeper, I didn't think it was fair to go deeper before"* (Paloma).

In a year-2 multidisciplinary course, Daniel feels that part of his job in the seminars is "*to summarise determining what problems do they (students) have based on, I think, of the students and what do they see is hard in the lecture or what's not covered so much… [you] need to do some formative assessment in seminars*". Working together with a subject lecturer in the preparation phase Daniel finds that the aim is to help students make connections with the different subjects; "*in seminars I can help with that, it takes time, but it helps them to think*". However, lack of time to expand and grasp the subject matter, make connections, and have meaningful practice and discussions, seems to bring with it some level of anxiety:

> *"But I would suggest a longer seminar before and after the lecture… to apply the readings into the writing, evaluate readings… I'd like students to have more formative practice… we kind of do it but only if they do their homework… if I had two chances at it… I often go 5 min over by accident… following up with emails to get all the points across and with homework… the subject is massive; I don't know if this why [there is no time]" (Daniel).*

He finds no time to cover more advanced features of the content and EAP. Seminars seem to require additional work outside the classroom and follow-up emails. This is often complemented with the use of activities on our VLE system providing yet an additional layer to the JD learning experience.

In comparison with the JD models, participants expressed greater responsibility and ownership towards seminars and with this content in the desire, for instance, to have longer sessions to be able to expand on content and literacy. Hence, it is particularly in the seminars where the LC-specialist contributes to the authentic merging of language and content, and where they can bring their own ingredients to the students' learning experience.

5.4.4 Experiences Working with Departmental Staff

In JD, integrated or multidisciplinary collaboration, the experiences working with academics can be "*quite varied*" as Hannah points out, "*it really does depend on the working relationship between the LC-tutor and the academic, both being open and willing to be flexible to make changes, to converse and discuss, critique, reflect and make necessary changes*". The analysis finds two settings in which the participants collaborated with departmental staff, the lecture-seminar set and the lecturer-tutor co-teaching scheme. Concerning both and often-highlighted, is the value of continuity, which - together with the settings - are further analysed below.

5.4.4.1 The Lecture-Seminar JD programme

A number of issues surface in the accounts of a variety of experiences, predominantly, accountability, dependency and time management. These intertwine in the statements as participants describe their roles.

> *"we've been under quite enough pressure to get the seminar up and ready for the following morning after the lecture, …almost 24h after the lecture [we had] to prepare the seminar… not a problem if the lecturer has sent us the PPT a week in advance, but in reality they don't do that… they send it the night before – not always; in fact, this year more and more have been sending it in good time" (John)*

As lecture materials feed the preparation and delivery of seminars, lateness or absence of these, concern most participants in the study. This concern is often consistent when the preparation and design of the lecture's materials depend on visiting lecturers. Independent of the ownership of the module, the pressure seems palpable, where time management and timekeeping are seen as key.

This suggests closer collaboration and communication amongst parties so as to avoid distress and anxiety. However, the participant soon recognises improvements, he soon points out that the clearer the boundaries are established between jobs, the better the running of the module. This implies less dependency of duties raising questions about the overall collaboration.

> *"At the beginning [we had] meetings with the various lecturers… we don't work that close together with them, but certainly closer than before…. One of the problems that we face in both modules is the lack of collaboration, the lack of clear communication between ourselves, and the academics; but that hasn't been that bad because we are in control of the seminars…. It works as it is because there is a demarcation of responsibilities…. If the good functioning of the seminars every week were dependent upon the good relations with the lecture, [this] demarcation mean that even if the relationships aren't great, it is ok" (John)*

Regarding visiting lecturers to a module, an initiative from the LC teachers was to video them before the start of the programme. These short videos had a double purpose. One was for the lecturers to introduce themselves to students, who would encounter them for just for a couple of hours in a semester, while at the same time familiarise themselves with the different accents that the Faculty comprises and to set out the content and goal of their delivery. The second was to establish some rapport between lecturers and tutors prior to the course. Although most members of the staff were happy to participate, as Gary found, "*some had no spare time for this video*".

Other participants show some level of frustration and difficulty in planning and working with academics. "*This is hard actually because, there are different levels of interest*" (Daniel). Although he finds that some departments are "*keen to do it and participate in the planning*", he seems to have overestimated their time and availability; "*I asked to see all of them every time, but 2-3 appear*". If he had the time he would knock on doors, but "*it is their responsibility*", he adds, though "*sometimes is a matter of interdepartmental politics [… as] they may have been forced to do it [participate in JD courses]", he speculates*. "*It seems like I'm giving them extra work and they don't want to talk to me… they are researchers and under other deadlines… this is further down their list*".

This shows some level of defeat and irritation. Daniel is the leader and only tutor for a JD course that brings together discussions on Environmental concerns from the departments of Business and Environmental Sciences. In such transdisciplinary course content coherence and communication seems fundamental; "*the content is more integrated when they've*

[lecturers] been talking to each other", though he recognises the variety of the people involved and the different levels of interest, commitment, as well as the physical distance between departments "*scattered around campus*" (Daniel). *The first year* "*you'd get 2-3 friendly faces… who do more than it's needed… and other people [that] meeting after meeting don't show up, then you realise this method of mine isn't really working*" (Daniel). He recognises the potential effect on the quality of the course, showing concern as its leader:

> *"There's nothing much you can do… complain to the manager isn't really helpful… it's like passive-aggressive kind of working…. If there isn't communication between managers or a manager doesn't know what's going on, or forgot whatever …if they're overwhelmed… that phenomenon causes an effect on us [because] there are lecturers keen to do the course but they are overstretched… this does have a knock-on effect on JD courses" (Daniel)*

The interviews in this study were held at the end of the semester, when courses were about to finish. As intended, they served as an activity for reflection. Most participants responded accordingly, in particular this case as the only tutor and leader. Daniel shows here some level of relief in sharing the different stages of difficulty he experienced and that gradually ease towards the end of the course, concluding with some modest gratification in having completed the course satisfactorily:

> *"I didn't think there would be so much teeth pulling to come to a meeting once a semester… tried to make it a one-off… with clear actions…. It is harder than I thought it would be (regarding JD)". Towards the middle of the semester, "things got done…. I never had anything late [and] it was easier in the middle of the semester… smoother than what I thought it would be, […involving] lots of emailing…. Towards the end of it (the course) more or less ok because once they (lecturers) came and interact with the students, they have a better sense… to reduce the content with most of the goals accomplished", since some lectures were overambitious with their lecture content. Although he would have preferred two or longer seminars, he feels satisfied having covered all the "very basic" of the course (Daniel).*

Again, participants express irritation at the distance left by their departmental colleagues, as if "*JD was interfering with their real worlds*" *(John).*

> *"There is a certain casual disregard, in my experience… I get the impression as a whole from the management of the departments, they're not being put under that much pressure to take it that seriously… the implication therefore seems to be that they don't want to be there at all, which then would strengthen the case for us to just take over completely" (John)*

It is argued here that in many cases, and even more so after delivering the course for some time, tutors would be able to do both, the lecture and the seminar (ESP). The mobility of people in the centre and departments with a high level of turnover, as well as the centre's policy to allocate tutors in different courses every 3-4 years would not make this feasible. However, there is some argument for qualified people in delivering both, the subject matter and the language/skills to be able to deliver both, the lecture and the seminar.

Participants expressed frustration at the inability to comply with their responsibilities due to colleagues' departmental commitments they engaged in, not only in teaching but also in research. While tutors are solidly involved in teaching, they do also volunteer in research projects and professional development. Still, to some tutors it seems peculiar that course leaders need to send reminders to lecturers, giving the impression of lack of commitment towards the course, while neither recognises each other's tight schedules.

> *"It's weird that [his colleague and module leader] sends out emails to remind the academics that they are giving a lecture next week… most weird for me is the very fact that she feels it's necessary to do that…. It shows the relatively indifference they hold towards us and towards it…. But I don't want these programmes to be cancelled" (John)*

5.4.4.2 Co-teaching with Lecturers in the JD programme

In co-teaching with lecturers where modules are not led by the LC but already running and led by the departments, the experiences seem similarly varied to those run by the LC.

The main concern for the LC-tutors here is in finding the course aims and where the LC contribution is most needed to enhance the learning outcomes. Effective inclusivity for all parties in a curriculum that is already developed in a solo delivery by the department without LC support can be demanding at the start. Modules of this type are to some degree modified for JD purposes, but often with little time or awareness of what the LC-tutor can contribute fully.

This seems evident to Hannah, who sees no room in the curriculum to provide language and skills support or scheduled sessions to deliver: *"it was a frustration for me… I could've supported and done an hour lesson on… writing reports"* aiding students with their assessments*. "I obviously supported students in the endeavours via ICE"* the university's VLE, an essential tool in JD courses that provides flipped-classroom, allowing online induction and task-based sessions, and blended learning models (see respectively Reidsema et al., 2017; Hew and Cheung, 2014).

Inclusivity and concern for the teaching-peer seems apparent to co-teaching. As above, when Hannah covered the seminars, was *"when the lecturer had to go away and I was to lead the seminar discussion on the content-based topic, which is absolutely not what assisted delivery is, because we're not content specialists*". Other participants also echoed concerns on content support. Daniel in a year-2 course, would *"be terrified"* without the content specialist to provide certainty to his practice, while John expresses comfort in delivering content. This displays a range of attitudes and views towards content, though mostly it highlights the parameters in the roles of each practitioner and the need for each other's support, so as to prevent resentment for the absence of a co-worker and generate more teamwork.

Hence, classroom presence and support from the content specialist seems essential to LC-tutors in LC-supported departmental courses, or 'assisted delivery' courses. Although to reach a better coordination "*we would have to work very much more closely with the academic in the departments... [with] structures of coordination in place because we would need to work much more intensively*" (John), it is possible when there is understanding amongst peers from the start and also some continuity. Hannah notes that when peers have

consistently been delivering a module for a few years, the resulting success has been evident: an "*example of true collaboration – better performance and experience; amending and reflecting; and, provision is changing*" (Hannah).

5.4.4.3 The Value of Continuity in the JD programme

Continuation in a JD course through a set of academic years seems to help in developing these courses and build optimum working relationships. The effect of high turnover from departments other than LC seems to influence much more the work on LC-tutors, as they solidly depend on the content lecturers´ delivery. However, often "*when the lecturer change(s), the content tends to evolve... up-to-date or new [content] or new examples*" (Gary) indicating progress in the structure and design of courses that are based on previous experiences and students' feedback.

The value given to students' opinion on a course is generally highly considered. For instance, in reflecting on a course a tutor turns to the students before providing her own view; *"[w]ell, it's more for the students to say, but I thought it was quite thorough and we offered a good content and a good bridge to access the content in business*" (Paloma) suggesting modesty and caution perhaps due to the number of people involved within one module.

Some modules have multiple lecturers delivering only a two-hour lecture per semester with potential changes between academic years or changes within the year; "*the head of the department (HoD) doesn't know who's going to be available to be involved with the modules because you know this is not their priority for them…. sometimes people have left, or people haven't arrived*" (John) suggesting other elements in play.

There is some level of frustration regarding continuity and commitment. High levels of turnover and the three-year rotation foisted on LC-tutors sees disappointment expressed by some of the participants when regular changes are made on courses that have proven to have coherent syllabuses and positive student feedback (Gary), or new module leaders "*may make changes having not experienced the JD element of it*" (Hannah).

However, there also some positive views regarding change, as one of the managers point out, a module can become monotonous and no longer new or challenging (Jack). Although

perhaps bias in maintaining continuous change as a manager, tutors in general seem to urge for greater continuity and maintenance of what has been evidenced to work from one year to another (Gary).

There are, however, attempts towards maintaining all staff involved in JD courses, as a later manager assures, but not without logistical issues. "*Also problematic from the LC perspective is continuously being short of staff…. So, there are quite a few logistical issues*" with staff having to be involved in various programmes and aspect of the LC at the same time unable to devote their time to JD exclusively (Hannah).

Continuity and time devoted on one course can be translated into better performance and rapport between content and language teachers. A module's performance may be not only measured on students' grades, Hannah argues; e.g. "*students' experience of the module has improved*", as in the module feedback, it "*has gone up in the last 3-years*". She notes how the LC-tutor and the lecturer have been consistently in this module through this period resulting in its success. It is an "*example of true collaboration – better performance and experience; amending and reflecting, and provision is changing*" (Hannah).

In this transnational context, continuity particularly seems to frustrate participants in the course development. Staff can be demoralised by observing their work changed or transformed after devoting time to a programme. However, change can bring value in this particular setting, as most participants expressed openness towards new voices in course development. 'True collaboration', though, requires time to build and accommodate the courses' particular settings, which can be developed through reflection and amendments towards the growth and progress of these courses, while being open to further changes and improvements.

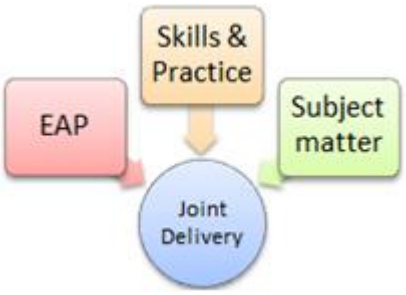
5.4.5 Bridging EAP skills with Content in JD courses

During the first year, the EAP/ESP provision caters to students with academic and study skills as required in their degree courses. The JD courses in the first year are designed to offer students direct contact with the disciplines as tasters to select their specialties. Here, the LC and departmental specialists work together.

Some LC-specialists "*take responsibility*" in identifying the literacy and skills that year-1 students may not have yet learned, or prevent overlapping with the EAP provision. They decided to provide "*additional and a supplement[ary]…"* orientation on EAP skills (e.g. referencing), "*but most of the time we're not touching on these questions*" (John).

> *"…we visually summarise what we consider to be the most important ideas (from the lectures) … make sure they (students) understand, give opportunities to discuss… Of course, there are other things that we need to be responsible for. For example, making sure they (students) know what's required from them in terms of the assessments… e.g. …in week 7, we expect a proper academic essay, with reference, topic sentence and thesis statement…, although we're not an EAP course…. The year before we found for example that referencing had not been taught by that stage (in EAP) …, so we feel that we need to do some remedial EAP work just to supplement the EAP classes." (John)*

Figure 6 – Identifying and Integrating Learning Needs



This extract reveals the many multi-facets JD-specialists need to be vigilant of to attain all the learning needs: from identifying the key ideas of a given lecture subject, to providing related tasks that would encourage the discussion of these ideas (Figure 6). In addition to the multifaceted nature and agility required in translating lecture content into interactive activities, JD has an additional layer. It provides students with evident collaboration between content specific courses and literacy skills, as a further reminder that the skills learned in EAP are essential to succeed in their subject specific courses.

However, for students in early years to make these connections for later years, we may need to be more explicit and remind them yet further:

> *"LC's contribution to JD modules to some respect, is to make sure students can actually function in JD modules and yes it does act as an indirect bridge between EAP and content modules, I think it does have that middle function …JD bridging between*

EAP and academic input is a bit more subtle or not quite clear – we may have to tell them (students); this is why you're doing a JD module" (Gary)

JD can be complex for producing seminar material from lectures, but it offers students a variety of modes from where to see and conceptualise content. It also provides collaborative settings that can assist students to connect courses and people who students would otherwise see separately and erratically.

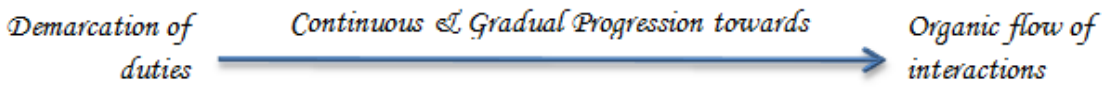
5.4.6 Interjecting in Co-teaching

Interjecting or *interrupting* here is meant in the sense of interaction between co-teachers during instruction, that is, contributing with additional information or complementing delivery due to certain observation. This seems to occur depending on various factors such as personalities, cultural differences, or classroom roles.

During seminars John finds differences in co-teaching with a local partner may be "*not as easily and spontaneous… it's more important for me to clarify with her; you know, should I lead slide 5-10 and you lead 1-5… because, I would worry if I were not to define things*". While, with the overseas compatriot they "*have come up with this informal arrangement where… yeah, I interrupt and I had complementary things"*, though, *"sometimes there were confusions because we have different understandings, that can be embarrassing, but that doesn't happen very often"*. This confusion relates to tutors' understanding of the lectures content and later explanations during seminars, suggesting a lack of thorough preparation.

Contrast between co-teachers suggests differences in preferences or personalities, teaching confidence, content knowledge, varieties in teaching styles, or cultural customs. These may range from polar extremes between a strict demarcation of duties and an open, organic flow of interactions, with built-in trust and each other's roles as implicitly understood. Thus, over time and with continuity co-teachers may gradually progress towards organic collaboration (Figure 7).

Figure 7 – Extremes in Collaboration towards an Organic Collaboration



While generally tutors would not interrupt or stop a lecturer to add or explain something further (Daniel), some departmental staff would request this type of organic approach as a prearrangement, prior to the start of the course; "*[t]hat, I think, it's what he [the academic] expects me to do in the lecture, like interrupt him to clarify something when the students are lost ...interesting, do you like it?"*(Paloma). This genuine question, may suggest the participant's curiosity and perhaps apprehension on whether it is something she would like to do in her new course the following semester. This is because she did not experience such interruptions in JD previously; "*I do my part, and he does his part. We barely, well not barely, but sometimes we interfere; 'oh yeah, that's important', but usually he does his part and I, my part. So, he's around with the students checking if they need anything, but I'm delivering it*" (Paloma).

These interactions may translate into "mini-run debates" between tutors during class, "*but comes to personalities*", Gary assures us. These are generally taken without problem "*if they're affable*" Gary maintains, as he recollects an instance when his co-teacher suddenly questioned him during his talk in front of more than a hundred students, which took him by surprise. This sort of occurrence could have created some level of uneasiness, depending on personalities, or without having previously built up rapport. As this participant notes, it is easier to have a more 'fluid' or organic approach in the classroom with people you know, the LC tutors in his case, where "*with the lecturers it's more difficult*" (Gary). His interruptions tend to be manifest when students do not answer a question, which he might answer in a given moment, as he thinks this sometimes can benefit the speaker. However, Gary also notes that some members of the staff may not take interruptions that well depending on the number of students and the context, which may bring more, or perhaps fewer, classroom exchanges between co-teachers and influence students' motivation and participation.

The JD experience seems marked by these interactions, underlining the importance of the clarity and specifics of teaching styles and expectations prior to the start of the course. As Hannah recollects: "*he made it clear at the beginning that if he was in the lecture and he said something I knew students wouldn't understand or he mispronounced something, he said please feel free to jump-in and tell me…. It didn't happen often, only a couple of times*". This suggests trust, openness, willingness to learn from each other, as well as an acknowledgement on language (perhaps L2) and pronunciation.

This level of matured rapport in the first few meetings between the content and the language teacher suggest a successful course; however, there were also experiences in another course that suggest altogether different dynamics: "*When I deliver my sessions he wasn't there for the whole… he may be there for the first 10 minutes – to make sure everything was on their way and I was there – but no, he didn't sit on the whole of my session, which I'm a little disappointed about… I would've liked to have him there… especially on my second lecture – it's called lecture but, I try not to just lecture*" (Hannah) – the sessions are held in lecture theatres. This utterance reflects disappointment in the lack of support and camaraderie from a peer. Both are departmental courses with the added support from the LC on language and literacies, which may include 2-3 sessions in the term on these particular elements. This assisted setting requires the LC tutor to provide support to students during the lectures and activities that may follow, as well as online support. Thus, there might be some sense of ownership and territory, which can be reflected indirectly to students.

Students should benefit from these collaborative settings, as is their purpose. Organic interactions can encourage and enhance the learning environment for everyone. However, it is not easy to initiate, as Hannah recalls when asked whether there was a two-way learning for both teachers;

> *"Yes, if felt as though I learned something because I only taught on my own so, I was a little bit nervous at the beginning because you never know when you're sitting in someone lecture; 'Should I speak? Can I speak? Would he mind if I say something? […]. I was quiet at the beginning but… I delivered my session and he was quite active*

> *in my session so, I thought 'oh great, he doesn't mind… so I would just jump-in if he was talking, and say 'we should clarify that point' and he was more than happy to let me do it" (Hannah)*

The appreciation for reciprocating changes the rapport and dynamics of the job making it a "*very positive experience*", changing attitudes and generating greater innovation, as Hannah explains:

> *"the departmental staff was very, very open; very, very flexible. Willing to try new ideas… you know, we did various different things, that I never used before… he also (stressed), whenever I delivered the session, he was sitting on my session, which from what I hear… it's quite rare… So, if he wanted to clarify an idea, he would jump-in… it kind of felt like team teaching… the same vice-versa…. Sometimes students would direct question to me, he didn't mind" (Hannah)*

It is in the value of feeling included, belonging to a team and reaching that level of comfort where creativity is spawned, where organic collaboration arises naturally in the classroom and with this real cooperation emerges: "*I really appreciate the fact that he also sat on my sessions and contributed to my sessions in the way I contributed to his: It was true collaboration*" (Hannah).

5.5 The Pedagogical Experience

The pedagogical experience refers to practices at the micro-level, such as is the classroom experience. These vary depending on the course participants deliver. Their reflective accounts offer a range of items that were highlighted and elaborated on during the interviews. These items are highly intertwined and interconnected, which in many cases prove to be as a consequence of each other. These themes have been organised into six interdependent groups in the analysis below.

5.5.1 The use of L1 and L2 in the Classroom

An important and ingrained expectation in a transnational and EMI university is to use English. Thus, it seems apparent the need to exploit any possible occasion to exercise the use of English, as the L2 for most students on campus.

JD provides this space where language can be practiced in the seminars in conjunction with the subject matter. However, views on practices and priorities differ amongst JD practitioners regarding using L1, L2 or both in the classroom.

In lab-work, for instance, the importance may be in the execution and finishing of the task at hand: "*I don't really bother too much with using English because their priority [here] is to build this bridge within 100 minutes and using English is not the most efficient kind of means*" (Ruolang). Likewise, in seminars, where students discuss ideas and new concepts, Daniel reflects on the reasons for students needing to use L1 when they are "*organising themselves*" and/or "*organising the topic*". However, he seems firm in that once they are organised they should use L2 because "*it is harder to translate the final answer for the lecturer*", sometimes and for some groups, "*you find you constantly need to do this (asking to use L2) but if you do it too much, you interfere [with the discussion/lesson] you need to learn to remind them, and then to back off…, somewhere between that*". He adds, if students are organising themselves and we interrupt, we may "*make the process worse*" and "*time is limited*". Time limitations are expressed, in both cases, with some level of urgency and frustration, though it is unclear whether a correlation exists between time and L2-practice.

There are multiple aspects that could be considered in the debate concerning L1/L2 use in the classroom. In this context, it is clear how some local tutors perceive the use of L2, in relation to the language functionality in class discussions, and the practicalities that L1 offer to JD courses. For instance, *Wenling* does not mind students using their mother tongue to understand new vocabulary, adding *"it is faster", as s*he provides a list of new words with their meaning – presumably in English, though unclear how during the interview.

Lists of words seem to resonate with reciting practices typically towards exam preparation, as it is observed in first-year students acquired learning styles and as per the approaches in the domestic education system, where often language knowledge is evaluated by the number of Chinese characters one knows, comparable to the number of words one can translate. If comparable, then language formation and structure may potentially relate with learning practices where the first may guide to some degree the direction of learning approaches and practices.

Participants' responses seem to be more pragmatic in approaches towards the use of L2 for JD, focusing on content rather than the L2 practice, as Ruolang explains:

> *"I don't want to force them (students) to use English, it's impossible… because what they're discussing is usually quite difficult. I'd rather they'd actually talk instead of not talking. If they could actually discuss what I want them to discuss in Chinese, that's better than not discussing, it is because they feel they can't do it in English…. I can see why like the weaker students would just use Chinese…. And also, it's just impossible to keep saying: 'use English', 'use English', they won't… when it comes to a lab-day the primary goal is now, completing this project because they're given a time limit… they (students) make the session based on situations… or needs – like at this moment I need Chinese to get things done, but if I need to ask question have to switch to English. So, that's why I didn't bother very much – like they can never talk to me in Chinese, I just pretend I don't understand – I'd say: 'say it again'. I think that's all I can do. I can't force them to use English when they apparently think that Chinese is more efficient. And I hate doing that (policing)."* (Ruolang)

For some tutors the learning aim has shifted; "*I just think in a content class that's not their primary goal anymore. In EAP I would, I would always police that, I'd said no, you're speaking Chinese: switch back!"* (Ruolang). The integration seems perhaps not apparent.

As can be perceived, the conversation with Ruolang was both extensive and interesting. It provided insights about the local tutors' experiences in an EMI and in co-teaching with international tutors. One aspect that may be particular to this co-teaching is students' code-

switching in the classroom. Students employ L1/L2 indiscriminately largely depending on who is by their discussion table:

> *"…if they (students) see John they would use English… if they think he is listening, they would…, if they speak Chinese, I would just ask something in English, and that would usually make them switch in English…. because it's awkward to respond to me in Chinese, so they would usually switch to English."* (Ruolang)

She further notes that students prefer approaching the local tutor who shares the L1, rather than the English co-tutor, even though they use English in the exchange.

As noted previously, this depicts elements of practicality, as well as feelings of embarrassment or awkwardness, which go hand-in-hand with students' attitude towards L2 when engaging with teachers, as well as with national peers, even though students seem to switch with ease in exchanges with international peers: "*I think it depends in what other people are doing at the table. So, if there… we do have quite a lot of international students, so if they on the table, they won't use Chinese*" (Ruolang). Thus, students seem to establish an evaluation of their needs to judge the practicality of whom to approach, the language to be used, and also the personalities involved.

Integration in JD, in an EMI, is not only about integrating content and language (L2), but also a space where students can switch languages used and tutors approached according to their pragmatic evaluation and tasks set, thereby enhancing cultural awareness and collaborative skills with peers and those co-teachers sought out.

They are also exposed to a variety of accents, "*when we had like different lectures each week, they listen to different way of talking and the confident ones can probably get used to it like within the first ten minutes*" (Ruolang), while seminars give students a great opportunity to "*practice lots of English*" (John)

Hence, with JD, students are provided with a wide variety of micro and macro experiences and opportunities to exploit. The question may be whether students do appreciate and make the wisest use of these opportunities, and whether we provide all the channels and guidance necessary to fully help them with JD's learning potentials.

5.5.2 Attendance

In large classrooms "*students tend to sit at the same table each week*". John recognises the benefits from not regrouping students as "*they only get together once a week, where in EAP they get together five times a week*", in their first university year. Thus, building relationships is more difficult in JD and it is unrealistic to expect students to have equal attitudes, he adds. Also, it is more difficult to establish rapport with the students in a large cohort. Some tutors try to create this affiliation from the start. "*I've always …like with my EAP, I try to have some kind of relationship with them (students) early in the semester so that would made them feel bad if they don't come to my class*" (Ruolang). This can be considered as a cultural tactic, as Chinese herself, she finds this approach more effective than explaining the importance of attending sessions. "*You can't lecture them on how important this is for you …you have to come and learn knowledge you're wasting your money' that wouldn't work for them; you have to appeal to their emotions and conscience*" (Ruolang). This is an interesting and subtle approach towards reaching the students' feelings and fears in losing face to the teacher, an authority figure to be respected in order to preserve one's own face, and the teacher's face in public, though this may work differently, or not at all, with a Western teacher.

Punctuality seems to be another factor for which co-teachers seem to disagree in some instances, as Paloma expresses here about her co-teacher; "*he thought I was pushing too much sometimes, that I was pushing them (students) to be there, you know, because... yeah... it's just 50 minutes (the pre-lecture session), I said, look, if you're 15min late, don't bother coming in, you know, you lost a lot in class*". Attendance or lateness can also reflect students' choices in what they consider important sessions depending on workload, thus attendance fluctuates throughout the semester. This is important in considering the interconnection between tasks and assessments and levels of difficulty as Paloma reflects, suggesting that "*something more challenging in the middle of the semester*" would encourage students to attend "*because otherwise the students who got 90 they would disappear, they don't think they need it, you know, it's too easy*".

Therefore, it seems important to be culturally aware of students' background and the influences that would motivate attendance, to establish a dynamic and comfortable class environment that welcomes the establishment of rapport between teachers and amongst students, and a course design interrelating assessments and classwork in a meaningful manner.

5.5.3 Working with Large Groups

The participants' accounts describe events dealing with large groups. This can be intimidating for both students and practitioners. While lecturers are generally accustomed to work with large cohorts, LC-specialists, with generally 5 to 10 years teaching experience, have not experienced large classrooms, as language teaching practices requires closer rapport with students to evaluate and analyse progress and learning needs closer feedback and correction. Some tutors found it "*shocking"* (Jack) when they first started, others frustrating or challenging somehow, questioning the approach: "*I just don't think it's a seminar anymore when we have 100-something people in a room"* (Ruolang). Other tutors found big changes in their teaching as being "*very different, but I haven't worked with such big groups (before), so it's a bit different. The groups are around 60 (a future course) while here we have 180 in each class*" (Paloma). This implies more training and awareness in what it means to teach large cohorts.

5.5.4 Learning Spaces

Generally, in seminars with large cohorts, open-flexible spaces are used with round tables to encourage group teamwork and discussion, though Paloma observes how some tables can get overcrowded. However, her co-teacher Gary deduces that with two tutors all groups can be 'easily' covered with "*reasonable time of interaction, if they want to*" indicating a need for expertise in classroom management and a recognition of the importance for students to excel, that values collaborative and autonomous learning.

In this context, spaces are commonly lecture theaters and rigid spaces. These are often used to co-teach courses with the departmental staff. Gary assures us that these can be more interactive when devices are added to the tasks. He finds 'Chat software' useful for asking

and answering questions via the screens in the classroom. Although student-centred sessions with "*multiple interactive activities*" can be "*hard, very, very hard*" not only for teachers, but also "*for them (students) to communicate*", Hannah agrees that co-teachers can make it work, adding "*it is possible; it is not comfortable, they (students) need to twist around or it's a little bit awkward, but possible*". However, fixed learning spaces can limit the wide range of activities that encourage cognitive and constructive learning.

5.5.5 Culture and Learning Attitudes

Further elements to note relate to students' learning background experience prior to university and how they conceive education informing, attitudes towards the relationship between information presented in the PowerPoint slides and absenteeism.

Daniel expresses some level of frustration in this regard, as he argues that providing the lecture-slides prior to the session encourages students' absence: it "*is unrealistic… they (students) think everything is on the lecture's slides, but in fact lectures add important points*". Further, this suggests also that students expect to have everything outlined on the slides, with the perception that assessments and exams would only contain the information presented.

The authenticity of lectures is valued by tutors such as Daniel. It is a real presentation by an authentic expert, with the diversity that a transnational university offers in styles, approaches, personalities, and Englishes (Clark, 2013), thus, adding value to JD courses. Ruolang appreciates this variety, but *"weak ones (students) just don't get used to it (a variety of lecturers), and they get completely lost; they can't understand the accent, they can't understand this intonation"*, and this perhaps affects their attendance and motivation.

> If students are absent, *"they get the wrong impression of what is going to happen (in the lecture) and then they get new information…. They are accomplishing certain tasks with something real… it's a real lecture from a real lecturer organised in their way… we see a range of styles from a range of cultures, it's a very unique chance to kind of get exposed to lots of styles, it's a very hard for that reason… you've got*

professors from all over the world it's a pretty accurate way of looking at education today… so, they (students) are getting something real" (Daniel).

The authenticity of lecture delivery, the exposure to different Englishes and the concept that not all the information is on the presentation slides are elements of pedagogical concern that these practitioners observe through their practices in JD that they otherwise would not be aware of outside of the lecture room.

5.5.6 How Tutors Perceive Students' Experiences of JD

There is a mixture of opinions regarding the perception tutors have of their students' experience in JD. While John optimistically points out, "*I think at the moment they probably see us as EAP teachers that are giving interesting classes*", Paloma finds that "*after two minutes you see them (students) usually on their cell phones*". This observation may contradict previous comments on students' interests and motivation, though there are other aspects in place. For instance, tutors find they "*have to do more remedial linguistic work*" (John) or "*sometimes you have to push them to be... they don't use it (interaction time) to do any work together, they sit together but they do things individually…. So, it's a lot, we spend a long time teaching them study skills as well*", regarding the teaching skills on teamwork.

Some tutors feel that "*it's a lot of content*" for students to digest and connect the dots between lecture content and seminars, but "*I think it was productive*" (Paloma) and students' feedback on the model was generally positive, Gary recalls. Still tutors are unsure and Paloma expresses that she "*would love to know the students' experience, you know… we have the module questionnaire... but it would be interesting because it was my first experience here*". This also suggests a disconnection between students and teachers compared to previous experience where classrooms were smaller and/or there were more sessions with the same cohort.

In the teaching of a multidisciplinary course, Daniel thinks students get more as he challenges them into thinking further through 'communication strategies', such as the ability to explain something and connect the dots. His course contrasts the environmental

sciences with business combining lectures from both. Hence, he finds that "*with content specific we have more answers to the approach*" than in EAP. This course, he finds, offers students views from both fields to explore, research, evaluate and interlink concepts. He also notes in this regard that students' experience starts at the same level in knowledge, providing space for deeper research and discussion, since students are from different departments including some international students. However, he also encounters setbacks; "*when the midterm happens there are drop-offs… they get motivated again because of assessments... If they miss a week, they miss the conversation, it's pretty damaging*" (Daniel).

Interviewees' perceptions of the actual JD experience students have, is unclear. Although for some courses "*students' experience of the module has improved… has gone up in the last three years*" (Hannah), showing improvements with examples of "*true collaboration – better performance and experience; amending and reflecting and provision is changing*", as Hannah the current manager assures us; there has not yet been any investigation as to "*any real long impact*" or comparisons between courses, with and without a JD approach, or over various years (Hannah).

5.6 Learning Experience & Professional Development

In their JD teaching experience, participants' accounts offer rich discourse on professional development. A significant concern relates to the experience in dealing with specialised content, often alien to them, that either they learned with the students, or recollected from previous training, such as their first degree. Other accounts relate to the distances experienced in collaborating across the university and their brief encounters with academic territories (Becher & Trowler, 2001), and the overall effects of the JD experience on the participants' identity as teachers.

5.6.1 Experience with Content

In dealing with subject specific content, tutors seem to experience a transitional period of adjustment with different degrees of frustration, embarrassment, and anxiety. Planning

curricula and delivering sessions on specialised subjects can be challenging for specialists in language and academic skills, impacting their professional identity.

Some participants reflect on these experiences by expressing different degrees of impact. Some felt this transition as a blow to their professional self-esteem; others were concerned and felt hopeless in their conscious inability to help students to the full extent of their potential, as they generally would.

> *"I was a bit nervous going in because the other two were in the humanities and social sciences, so I was pretty sure I could understand the content and assessments… because, I thought how am I going to be able to help the students? […] I didn't feel comfortable doing it as a teacher. I lacked confidence. Usually in the classroom I am incredibly confident, but because I knew it wasn't my area of expertise, so I was worried; in the back of my mind I was thinking, if a student asks me a deep question about this topic and I can't answer it, then I'm going to feel stupid. So, I wasn't happy with this" (Hannah).*

In LC-support courses run by the departments, the greatest concern for LC-tutors is in having the space and time in the curriculum to help students with language and skills. This would, evidently, provide them with some meaning to their presence in the classroom; some sense of usefulness. As this tutor finds, without sessions scheduled in the curriculum *"it was a frustration for me… I could've supported and done an hour lesson on… writing reports"* aiding students with their assessments. *"I obviously supported students in the endeavours via ICE*" (Hannah).

In these courses, the use of technology and blended learning approaches (e.g. Ehlers, 2013; Hew & Cheung, 2014), complemented the lack of class time providing a platform for the LC-tutor to contribute related language and skills for the course. However, from the viewpoint of the LC-tutors, this platform serves also as a means to make sense of their presence in the course and to encounter less frustration with the content. This sense of a disheartening feeling with content and making sense of the use of virtual teaching is expressed below;

> *"I did these at the same time; the quizzes are definitely the most used ICE resource, because for the civil engineering, I really can't do much. It's something that is*

> *completely irrelevant, you know, to our area (of expertise), and I had to, as you probably feel the same, I had to learn all that stuff…" (Ruolang)*

> *"First of all, I need to make sure I know the subject… a piece of language or idea that students may not get or I don't know, and need to check" (Daniel)*

Attitudes towards content, however, differ between respondents. While some tutors felt the content to be unreachable or "*irrelevant*" or even; "*to be honest, I found it very uninteresting. I don't care about business …but it's my job, so I did it, no pleasure*" (Paloma), others found they had no choice but to learn the subject or re-learn it even when they felt "*it should be fairly comfortable*" (Gary) after a 4-year degree in economics from 15 years ago. Many expressed they had reacquired elements of the 'student identity', though comparatively perhaps, with less agility to study: "*yeah, but maybe they (students) are learning faster*" (Ruolang).

In contrast, some tutors felt JD provided them with a platform to discuss content especially related to their expertise such as 'the media'. While others showed disappointment; "*I feel I spend most of my time helping them with content and ideas rather than language and skills*" (Carol).

Since EAP tutors come from different academic backgrounds, some feel capable to provide content, expressing some degree of professional frustration in their inability of doing so in their EAP sessions. JD seems to provide them with this opportunity, while also adding their expertise in language and academic skills, which John argues is "*much more efficient*".

However, when tutors were able to provide instruction for subjects that felt less compatible, a sense of achievement and even joy seem apparent in the accounts;

> *"Yes, absolutely, and my pleasure came when I was able to explain to the students; 'oh I could explain that'. So that was good, I was happy to be able to explain to the students, offer something. But I, myself, studying that and preparing for Financial Analysis? No, I didn't enjoy at all, [laugh] but I learned, of course I learned, it's good to learn" (Paloma).*

In courses where the assessments are designed and graded by the LC-tutor, the common concern is in the week-to-week alignment of the subjects towards the assessed work: *"it's quite distressing, we can't tell them what to lecture on, we can't tell them what content to deliver, but we have to decide upon the assessments." (John)*

Consequently, LC-tutors take initiatives to persuade change, as in this case, the order of topics, "*to make them more relevant to the assessment, and they (lecturers) agreed to do that*". In previous years, *John adds,* the topics were "*scattered all over*", identifying rearrangements in their topical order: "*the history of the media is such that less relevant goes last*" (John).

Depending on the specifications and the learning outcomes, course assessments may be judged by the language specialist. In some cases, such as Daniel's year-2 multidisciplinary course, whose coursework is a literature review ("*it's a grey area […] I can't judge content as an expert would*") the evaluation of content can be overwhelming. Perhaps joint collaboration in assessment may provide students with a better evaluation of their work, in both language and content.

5.6.2 Academic Tribes

Often in JD multidisciplinary courses, lecturers are guests delivering a session per semester. Briefing lecturers about the course specifications and learning outcomes may be done to some degree. However, time constraints, availability and other factors can lead to resentment from the co-teacher. Boundaries might be delineated, creating the opposite of what JD is intended for; "*the HoD doesn't know who's going to be available to be involved with the modules because you know this is not their priority for them*" (John). Although there are other elements to consider, lack of communication or unawareness of the needs of each department can affect the running of JD courses. For instance:

> *"... last year for (the module) … we had two lectures which were completely unrelated and irrelevant to any possible assessment… they were delivered because that was what the lecturer was interested in…. without any interest or zero regard for whether or not this may relate to any assessment that we were engaged in… the*

other were all well and good" (John).

Often new visiting course lecturers may feel more comfortable to deliver content that relates closely to their expertise or doctoral studies, which can differ or be too specific for JD introductory or multidisciplinary courses.

However, these various levels of 'openness' from both sets of specialists (language and content) towards understanding and collaborating more closely, suggest a territorial presence still working with an 'us/them' discourse that needs further work in this context. This does not suggest less staff, involvement or engagement from the departments, which is the opposite of what JD intends, but rather a combination of efforts and expertise to be able to find common ground to provide students with a better set of skills, knowledge and a better overall education.

5.6.3 Academics Learning

The JD provision offers different types of teaching practices: from co-teaching, to working in open spaces, to student-centred teaching approaches, to understanding students and co-teachers' perspective, or to understanding the particular learning needs and demands of first year students. Amongst others, these offer academics new ground for learning and growing professionally.

Since departments had no provision prior to JD with first year students, the opportunity arises for them to experience university freshmen, who *"haven't developed language and study skills enough to actually succeed [which] also set the ground for us (LC) to kind of help with that and delivery too*" (Eduard). This provides the opportunity for academics to understand, not only the adaptability of materials and teaching approaches for year-1 students, but also how this influences consecutive years. They also experience through co-teaching how open spaces are utilised, which was challenging for those used to lecture theatres, as Gary noted.

Given the differences in expertise and experiences between staff in the departments and that in LC, their work together should imply exchanges in expertise and knowledge to some degree. LC tutors seem to openly ask lecturers about content, since it is embedded in their

work, though quite cautious in giving suggestions and directions on pedagogical approaches. Daniel "*tried to be diplomatic*" in providing suggestions after a session on content he thinks suitable for the course he leads. However, contributions seem limited: "*that's when I can contribute, after or during the break…. We don't have time to meet and review what we did… we tried the first year*", but because of time constraints and duties, it did not allow them to continue; "*couldn't do it constantly*", Daniel adds. He does observe lecturers teaching, but he does not interfere or stop the lecturer to add or explain something further. Equally, Gary feels it is not his place to tell academics how to teach, especially in a lecture room, though acknowledging that some might not have the teaching training or experience.

Nonetheless, there are quite involved lecturers who value co-teaching, teaching in open spaces and discussing teaching styles. This is appreciated by tutors in terms of practice; "*he is a very good practitioner*" (Gary), and participation; *"he was quite active in my session"* (Hannah).

This however, does not seem unanimous, even less so in established departmental courses where LC-support is added to the course. The initial exchanges can be conflicting in relation to views and analysis of the students' learning needs, where the tutors may need to translate subject lecturers' perceptions of these requirements in terms of language and study skills. Hence, it seems that interchanges in pedagogical learning depend on the respective course convenors and personalities, yet still remain somewhat imbalanced.

5.6.4 Learning from the Experience

LC co-teachers seem to work quite closely on JD courses, learning from each other's roles. Even though one tutor convenes the module, the peer seems to learn their colleague's role. John feels he has learned about "*what's involved in leading a module, as a deputy convenor, which is what effectively I am… I enjoyed it*". This positive additional comment suggests that the module was demanding, imposing a number of extra hours in the preparation and delivery of the course and yet he enjoyed the JD experience.

Pedagogically, all LC tutors found they learned from observations during lectures or co-teachers' delivery. Ruolang finds "*sometimes it's nice to see each other's teaching, as you*

get to learn from each other", but if the teaching was found to be not quite up to standard, it can be "*just frustrating because you can't do anything, you're not in the position to tell…; oh! you shouldn't be doing this, this way…*". This suggests opportunities for stretching learning still further by adopting ever-closer relationships and greater communication amongst co-teachers, in this case.

Learning prospects are also present when attending lectures, as tutors prepare for their upcoming seminars. As Paloma notes, "*it's interesting to see how much a tutor makes a difference*", referring to a lecturer who decided to change the lecture paradigm and explain basic economics through sketches of concepts and their relationships. This captivated the lecture theatre audience and Paloma, too, who provided an extensive detailed account of the teaching approach and the content during the interview.

Other tutors found it "*interesting working on these modules. Especially, because it is engaging for me because I'm actually learning a lot of new stuff on the modules as well, you know, there is content I don't normally encounter*" (Eduard). This depicts an appreciation to learn content from fields that might otherwise relate little with the personal and working life of tutors. Another tutor found learning from initial meetings with departmental peers and on specialised terminology that "*wasn't that hard to learn, but I had to learn it*" (Daniel), suggesting that some of the allocations to teach particular modules are not that voluntary. While other tutors engage more closely with JD programmes expressing themselves as here: "*I learned a lot from working with people, not only from the teaching context but also from the conferences*", Gary both presented within the university and abroad. Hence, "*learning from teaching JD is quite significant*", since the programme offers "*learning to co-teach, teaching in different settings, learning to teach much bigger numbers (from 20 to 150) … it is quite unique"* Gary assures us, as a long-term JD tutor.

5.6.5 Teacher Identity

The identity of a teacher, in its many roles, is often presented as a multifaceted profession. In JD, with its additional collaborative roles and within various teaching and learning contexts, it adds yet a few more layers to the teacher's traditional identity, as highlighted in the interview accounts.

In making sense of the utterances, table 10 below attempts to provide a summary of the tutors' perceptions of their identity as teachers in relation to their experiences and exchanges with students, academics, other tutors, as well as their self-reflection.

Table 10 - Tutors' Perceptions concerning Teacher Identity

Relationship	Concept Summary	Perceptions of Identity
Tutor – Student	Tutors did not feel their teacher identity challenged	- Respect - Feeling part of the course - Being accounted for - Ability to provide advice - Parity - Ability to transfer good collaboration to students - Students' overall regard and perception of their teachers - Boost self-esteem, - Feeling valued, - Going beyond the role - Pride in being able to explain subject matter, yet no personal interest in the content - Compelled to learn content - Compelled to 'prove one's worth'
Tutor – Student	Tutors/lecturers' roles clarifying from the start aids parity - tutors feel considered as equals to academics	
Tutor – Student	Students asking tutors on content and other boost tutors' teaching identity and value in the course	
Tutor – Student	Being able to support, reach out and connect with students lifted the self-professional identity	
Tutor – Student	Being able to respond to content related questions boosted confidence in content knowledge	
Tutor's Self-reflection	Being able to sit in lectures, learn content, and about students' perspective through experience added to tutor's expertise and professional identity	
Tutor – Tutor	Being able to share experiences and learn from working with colleagues	
Tutor – The course	Being able to provide full value to the course with one's knowledge on syllabus and assessment design	
Tutor – Academic	Being able to see positive results from students' work	
Tutor – Academic	Being considered in the planning and designing of the course where the tutor's input is valued meaningfully utilised	

Although the interviews discourse suggests a challenge in the number of layers of abilities expected of them (table 9), they generally found their teaching identity unthreatened:

> *"not challenged at all… I felt respected, as though I was part of the module, part of the team, he (academic) listened to me, he took my advice… sometimes I would add stuff (through the VLE system) and it would appear in his lectures… It was clear he*

> *saw the materials I was placing on (the VLE) and occasionally would try to incorporate it into his lectures" (Hannah).*

This highlights the value of respect and the sense of belonging to a team and the course. Equally, students call Gary 'Professor' and 'Doctor'. Although he recognises the politeness emanating from first year students, it suggests that this changes in later years.

During his experience in two JD courses, students behave "*exactly the same whether for a lecturer or the LC-staff*", adding that it has been "*very affable, good nature working relationship with lecturers, if students see us being friendly and chatting with each other… students won't see any difference*". Hence, establishing equal status and respect is core to a good collaboration, adding to the students learning experience with transferable elements such as the dynamics of practitioners collaborating on teaching in a course.

Establishing from the start each lecturer's role to the students can aid parity amongst practitioners and give clarity to students on whom to direct their questions.

> "*…it's key to make that clear at the start… I think that made it easier for students, they understood my role… In that module I was never asked a content-based question, which proves that the students did understand how the collaboration worked*" (Hannah).

While it is optimal for students to direct their questions to the most fitting specialist, Gary finds that students ask whomever they feel comfortable with, and for an LC-specialist subject-specific questions can be a positive in their teaching identity. For Paloma these are pockets of delight, since she is now able to "*offer something*" about the subject she co-teaches (see section on experience with content 5.6.1). The simplicity in students asking questions can lift the teacher's self-esteem, motivate them into going beyond the role in the collaborative effort, and enthuse them into being able to explain content - even when it may not be of particular interest – they feel compelled to learn it. Therefore, while providing clarity to students regarding their teachers' roles is key, their questions delineate and nourish each specialist professional identity.

In attending the lectures, the LC-tutors have the opportunity to learn content with the students, and appreciate their perspective. "*I had the impression that I had to go back to be student and refresh my memory about literature and all that*" (Ruolang). JD provides the opportunity of a double identity in a sense: being the tutor and the student at the same time, even when, as in this case, the topic coincides with that of the tutor's background. However, when this is not the case there are no second thoughts in directing students to the specialist, with an understanding from all parties.

> *"I was just one of them (students). They know we attend the lecture and everything. Sometimes they came to us [asking] 'so what does this mean?' If we could answer language wise, we would, but if not, we'd say 'in the break just ask him about this, go and ask him questions', and they did" (Paloma).*

Also, Daniel reflects on the lecture experience in reminding students to ask lecturers about their delivery; "*I would consult the lecturer and you (students) should too*" he urges students. In being a student again learning subjects, tutors find themselves at the same level, but with the hope that students can imitate good approaches to learning. They seem to appreciate the opportunity to learn or relearn content, and with this grasp the students' learning experience and acquire their own perspective that can then aid the planning of the upcoming seminars.

An important part of the teacher identity is being able to reach, connect, and provide support to students, while co-teaching and sharing of experiences is also appreciated. Teaching long hours and repeating the same session a few times over a week, seems more bearable when it can be shared through co-teaching. Paloma does not express irritation about the complexity of her timetable, instead she giggles saying:

> *"we were just looking at each other like an old couple, an old academic couple saying 'can we please get out of here?' We shared this experience like sometimes you drift away, so mechanic…of which I feel sorry like, I have to come back because I want to connect with the students" (Paloma).*

Repeating sessions can become mechanical and affect the awareness of what is happening most of all in large classes. Connecting with students seems vital in Paloma´s practice, as a

need in a two-way system where providing instruction is not enough. Assisting students '*closer*' and reaching out is part of her identity as a teacher.

> *"I need to know they (students) are there with me… I want to feel that they are engaged with me there, even if they are not verbalising that. And I miss that in these big groups, so it's very impersonal… I could see some of them had real difficulty throughout the semester… I feel bad because I wanted to be able to assist them much closer, like we do with these groups [EAP]" (Paloma).*

This reflects the need for communication in understanding the learning needs to be able to help, which can be challenging and alienating when working in large group settings.

In a similar light, being considered in the planning and designing of a course and giving meaningful value to the co-teacher is essential to teacher identity. As Hannah expresses, it was "*very different*" compared to another course, "*I felt like a spare part, almost like a secretary*". She felt she could not provide "*any meaningful contribution*" as the seminars "*were heavily led by the academic*". Since she *"couldn't support the students as much as [she] would've liked*", she felt she had "*to prove [her] worth… to justify [her work] load on this module… I needed to do something, so I went crazy on ICE [with] vocabulary lists, wikis, review activities, videos, every week, I'd put multiple resources on ICE*" (Hannah). Here the identity seems challenged with a guilt-ridden feeling for not always having the space to contribute enough to the course.

The tutors' identity is in their ability to identify learning needs in language, help with new concepts and sometimes even content. John feels he can contribute further, questioning even the need of having lectures at all:

> *"…if we understand the lecture and we understand the ideas of the lecture, then our understanding is sufficient to be able to reproduce the concepts in the classroom and we have the additional skills: grading the language and making sure they (students) understand, and that's a skill they (academics) don't have" (John).*

The rationale here is in the particulars of the course based on literature and the media studies that this particular tutor feels he can deliver. He argues he can provide a more

coherent course better relating to the assessments he needs to design regardless of course content. This suggests that for some courses the content relates to the LC-tutors expertise though it may not be feasible for all courses or all tutors. Additionally, it also reflects the level of preparation, expertise and background that a good number of LC-tutors have, some trained to a PhD level, which can conflict with other levels of identity, as expressed here.

Overall, participants' reflective accounts of their recently ended courses and outcomes, as per the interviews, showed a level of satisfaction and fulfilment. In referring to his students' progress and abilities in constructing concept maps connecting concepts from the various lectures of the course, Daniel happily recalls: "*I'm proud they explained them to me on my own elicitation*", suggesting the value in witnessing progress and advancement to his identity as a teacher.

Although generally tutors did not explicitly express challenges to their teaching identity, their utterances do suggest moments of doubt questioning their purpose and utility in their JD course. Conversely, there were greater expressions of fulfilment as obstacles were overcome with clarity of each practitioner role to students, a meaningful allocation of specialisms and an overall common goal, as Hannah finds "*the collaboration worked really well… I felt I had meaningful input [and] opportunities to deliver content*". Noticing and fulfilling these small but essential aspects realise the purpose and identity of the practitioners and the attainment of the JD course.

5.7 Developmental Needs and Envisioned Futures

5.7.1 Potential Changes and Improvements for JD

The participants' discourse suggests four main areas for improvement: in communication, continuity, accountability, and resources.

Participants recommended more integration and communication between the LC and the departmental staff with emphasis on briefing visiting lectures on the importance of JD and its proposed and educational benefits. This is significant for tutors designing the course

assessments calling for meetings emphasising the coordination between lecture content and assessments.

> *"I would say, so across the board for all JD modules that there should be these formal meetings set up",* so as to *"discuss with them the coordination between the sequence of lectures and the assessments, and so they can understand how their lectures would be related to our assessments and we can understand how our assessments are tailored to their content".* Additionally*, "I think the HoD should emphasise, more than they do, to the academics the importance of collaborating with us to make sure they take us more seriously"* (John).

Coordinating more thoroughly on assessments and course goals during the initial meetings can provide a more coherent course. Initial formal meetings of all parties involved can generate better rapport and a clearer view of everyone's expertise and roles. This avoids 'us/them' situations or presumptions of lesser commitment to the course by either side.

Avoiding boundaries is important even with high turnover: "*sometimes people have left (the university), other people haven't arrived*" (John), and lack of continuity. More continuity in participating staff and in keeping curriculum items that have proven positive for students can show progression for the development of courses, instead of having constant changes, as Gary points out. After three years in JD, he urges for more continuity and maintenance of what has been evidenced to work from one year to another. Likewise, Daniel recognises improvements in his second year with a more cohesive multidisciplinary course, which started in a more structurally '*divided*' and '*artificial*' manner, turning into something more organic.

The development of these modules also relies on the accountability provided to LC-tutors. That implies, to incorporating more of the expertise the LC-specialist has to offer to the content; in cases where there is confidence and clear knowledge of the content, perhaps in a co-lecturing setting with greater interaction on literacies and skills students need, as John argues (see section 5.6.5 p.131). This would question the value of lecture settings and push for greater time in seminars with more student-centred interactions. Para-lectures in

seminar settings with elements of a workshop would prove more constructive to the learning outcomes, with the possibility of welcoming larger cohorts.

Greater cohorts might however, prove challenging. Although a student ratio per tutor/lecture may not be relatable at university level, participants expressed exhaustion and urgency for better correlation between teachers and cohorts where students can benefit from having more time to interact and construct knowledge, as well as greater use of formative feedback from the lecturers/tutors. *"I think we should have more teachers, less groups and less people in the class"* Paloma argues, as she urges for more time for interaction and deeper discussion in class.

5.7.2 Envisioned Futures

The envisioned futures that participants foresee relate generally to their experiences in JD and vary in relation to their immediate concerns of their experiences. The visions identified below relate to training, JD as disciplinary 'tasters', JD as integrated co-taught project-led seminars, and criteria that would determine and consolidate further future JD courses.

Managers such as Carol see teaching training on practices "*integrated… as part of the initial planning*" aiding co-teaching needs. This explains Gary's view, since in co-teaching; "*you need to modify your preparation and teaching approach [so] the two of you can find a happy medium… you modify your approach to sort of work with different people to get the best, the most harmonious or working relationship as possible*". Ideally, thus, some level of prior training can assist JD practices and rapport building.

Some tutors see JD as a way to provide a taste of different disciplinary subjects and their workings, either for first-graders to better choose their speciality (Gary) or to provide working authenticity of lecturers through multidisciplinary courses. For instance, Daniel's year-two course where "*they* (students) *don't have that* (PhD) *depth yet [though], it is nice that they get to know the edge of what we know* (e.g. Technology, Environmental Science, Business*) …they get a kind of taste of that*" (Daniel).

Other envisioned futures suggest more autonomous-learning, content-practice combinations based on "*a project*" that can generate "*more interaction and formative*

assessment involved", so students learn more "*automatically cut[ting] down the amount of* (lecture) *contact time… as long as the lecturers are aware of that and work with you* (LC), *actually, I think that is where JD can shine*" (Daniel). Greater autonomy in learning and work is called for, connecting concepts and ideas through project work and what is here perceived as a closer lecture-seminar collaboration in the classroom. As John also implies "*para-academics*", but without discarding the collaboration of the subject specialists, since "*you may be teaching the theme but limited in the context*" (Daniel). Consequently, co-teaching as a specialist in academic literacies is required, with the confidence to teach content, yet aided by the peer specialist, since, as Daniel expresses it: *"I'd be terrified… I want an expert there because I want to be sure that what I'm doing is right*".

The latest JD manager, Hannah, envisions a "*free flow of communication from the LC to the department… quite open… to not only there needs to be praise, but critique*", if JD is to work well, but with an "*understanding [of] the parameters of what we can/can't do*", she adds. This suggests a set of criteria that identifies "*whether it (the course) lends itself to LC-support…[for] …meaningful input, [the] …type of skills the students need to be successful on that module, …transfer to other modules, and… assessments they are completing*". This analysis of needs would clarify the support required and the type that can be provided. Similar criteria could be used for the development of multidisciplinary courses and other JD modes of delivery facilitating learning transfer. As Hannah puts it, "*if ESAP is more effective in terms of facilitating transfer of learning, then JD has got to be the ultimate answer*".

Through the many variations and umbrella of approaches already existing in JD, those involved seem to be ever more open to trying new methods and exploring innovative methodologies and adapting to new educational settings. One participant even asserts of JD: "*I think it's the future of EAP, really*" (John).

5.8 Summary

The IPA analysis in this chapter has provided a clear view of the components embedded in the making sense of JD through what it means to the participants of this study. It has provided elements regarding attitudes to the phenomenon and how it is conceptualised. It

has also illustrated practices and collaborations in JD with insights that can aid developments in learning and teaching, from collaborative teaching experiences of language-content practices to working with diverse groups and large classrooms. Factors concerning professional development and identity have also emerged in the analysis. The contrast and further discussion of these findings will follow in the chapter below.

Chapter 6 Discussion

6.1 Introduction

The reflective accounts of thirteen language specialists were analysed previously to understand their sense making of their experiences and practices in JD. Through the IPA platform (Smith et al., 2009), JD revealed to have a wide variety of intertwined sets of collaborations that engages specialists from the LC and the departments in an umbrella of JD models. These combinations offer a wide selection of collaborative teaching approaches and settings that maximise ultimately the students' learning experience of the subject matter (see Figure 5).

The study's overarching question explores the success of JD programmes in learning and teaching. The findings showed to be largely positive in all the participants' accounts and in all the JD combinations experienced. Less positive experiences were regarded as challenges for improvement, which indicated optimistic reactions and often with clear and explicit tactics for solutions.

The analysis provided a rich perspective of the JD experience responding largely to all of the research questions. The discussion in this chapter will offer a range of observations and insights that combined with the relevant literature aims at contributing further to practices in similar institutions in tertiary education.

Outlined below are the study's five main foci: 1) the expectations, perceptions, experiences and reflections of LC-specialists in JD; 2) the collaborations, interactions and impacts of JD in learning and teaching; 3) JD's pedagogical contributions and constraints; 4) changes and potential personal and professional development through JD; and, 5) contributions to the university and future educational scenarios.

6.2 Expectations, Perceptions, Experiences and Reflections

The participants' reflective responses comprise elements of their expectations, perceptions, and attitudes of their experiences, since the data was gathered at the end of the JD courses. This helped in acquiring a holistic view of the experiences depicting the JD phenomenon.

In accord with their experiences, the majority of participants foresaw JD to be more content focused than EAP and to have more specificity in its curriculum. The overall sense was a positive response towards JD with a good balance of concerns demonstrating a general desire to improve the workings of JD, and a unanimous view that JD is the way for the future of EAP and its tutors. A summary in Table 8 illustrates some of these expressed concerns and the needs for improvement in lectures and seminars practices and their connections within the courses. The more idiographic aspects in the table are the elements of the collaboration such as the need for greater openness and communication to share mutual goals (Friend & Cook, 2014), to achieve mutual respect, support and engagement (Croker et al., 2016), to improve learning and the dynamics of the collaboration, thus to be more organic (Littlefield et al., 2015 p.130) and fluid, energizing the momentum of new ideas and better practice.

The study found genuinely positive responses across participants. While they recognised the significant complexity and challenges that these collaborations present to their practice, as fully trained teachers, they also identified the benefits that JD courses have to offer to students' cognitive learning by associating subject matter through language (Evans et al., 2009; Mehisto, 2012; Arno-Macia, & Mancho-Bares, 2014), and developing the necessary transferable skills required in transnational context and/or cross-disciplinary courses (Brown, 2017).

Through the participants' accounts, JD is identified to be a range of delivery models that combine different levels of LC-collaboration with the content specialists: from a very light LC-input to full contribution, including assessment design and content-related support (see Figure 5). Although the degree of contribution seems determined by the particulars of the course's specifications and students' learning needs, decisions seem distant from the participants in regard to courses that are content focused. Some consideration, nonetheless,

can be given by exploring means to standardise through an up-front needs analysis, as to evaluate the level of LC-input, course requirements, and to provide greater value to the support. An additional aspect to the responsibilities towards a course's assessments, content and other decision-making related issues is my concern over the 'ownership' of the module which can affect the level of engagement and of one or other party.

Within the diversity of these contributions, the participants' positive attitude added significant value to these courses, even when collaborations may have not been that functional. As shown in Table 7, applying Friend and Cook's (2014) essential characteristics for collaboration to this context, involves the most fundamental specifics of optimum collaboration, such as volunteering, sharing of materials or parity, stumbling over obstacles to reach a stable collaboration, as the authors assert. Thus, as a series of human acts, and as the participants expressed it, the value is in positive attitudes, flexibility and adaptability, while maintaining a clear view of the common goal.

As in Jacobs (2005), participants' interests lay on contextualising EAP further: to providing support, authenticity, and specificity, while exploring a new teaching experience and furthering their teaching profession. These contributed to their positive views towards JD, despite the issues they may have encountered in their experiences. Yet, their attitudes were unanimously constructive in their support and their conceptualising of JD, and significantly positive in the innovative sense of the collaboration with constructive views for development and further integration.

6.3 Interact, Collaborate and Impact – Organic Collaboration

At the start participants encountered JD with some level of scepticism and concern. Their perceptions soon changed as their experience with JD increased and adapted into becoming more autonomous in their teaching (Chang, 2017; Vangrieken, et al., 2017). Participants were grateful about their JD experiences and satisfied with the outcomes of their courses. Practitioners showed openness in learning, adaptation to change and sudden modifications, and an ability to identify course features that needed improvements. Participants' accounts

provide an array of JD courses and settings, combining various teaching modes with collaborative approaches between Faculty and the LC (see Figure 5).

In the lecture-seminar mode interactions are lighter, as the departmental and LC-specialists have clear demarcation of duties and territories. The lectures are the halls for content, and the seminars are the lectures' 'echo chambers', generally for large cohorts and LC co-taught. For the seminars the lecture content is transformed into digestible sets of activities and 'mini-lectures' including the revision of particular concepts, language practice, and discipline related academic skills.

The main collaborative factor in this mode is lecture materials sharing (see Table 7, Friend & Cook, 2014). Trying to obtain the lecture's materials in time for seminar preparation was often reported. Utterances exhibited elements of distress and anxiety amongst LC-practitioners, since seminars and their preparation were often within just a few days of the lectures. Although levels of communication and material sharing differed between courses, this coordination was dependent upon well-established relationships between Faculty and LC, which were expressed to require some level of continuity (Lock et al., 2016). In such a transnational context, with high staff turnover and mobility, related concerns were often noted. Participants saw more fluidity to course delivery and development with more solid relationships when collaborations were lengthier. Despite these obstacles participants displayed in the experiences flexibility and adaptability to change, setting trends for the JD discourse.

From the above – and in addition to Friend and Cook's (2014) list in Table 7 – the accounts reveal three additional characteristics to the collaboration: accountability, dependency, and timekeeping. These interrelate closely, as they relate to the dependency in sharing lecture materials and the pressure that this poses to LC-tutors planning and designing seminars and assessments. Timekeeping in materials sharing was critical in courses with a number of visiting lecturers with a single session per term and often assigned by their HoD, thereby missing the voluntary aspect of the collaboration (Friend & Cook, 2014) and bringing little accountability for the module.

Other factors the analysis highlighted were dependency on personalities and flexibility to openness, reflection and constructive critique between peers and departments. Healthier collaborations were reported with more plasticity to practices allowing courses to evolve. Instances of flexibility and evolution were present in course changes, such as dividing long seminars into two sessions pre- and post-lecture to meet the particular learning needs. This displays a collaborative understanding of students´ learning experience, alongside particularities of the course and administrative flexibility to allow for changes to occur.

In departmentally designed courses – where LC-tutors provide language support and both specialists share the same learning space – the interactions seem closer. Participants' accounts report a variety of interactions and levels of collaboration. While some are depicted as successful 'true collaborations', welcoming materials sharing and classroom interjections, other instances were more disconcerting for LC-practitioners, as curriculum inclusivity and departmental understanding of the various functionalities and expertise were unclear. The absence in understanding of each other's roles in the university community suggests pedagogical distances and divisions between specialists' neighbourhoods. This concerns the University's overall cohesiveness and its compartmentalisation of "*knowledge and disciplinary grouping*" (Becher & Trowler, 2001 p. 36). Even though these suggest detachment, participants saw more collaboration through JD than in delivering traditional EAP and departmental provision separately. Still, having greater understanding of the LC-tutors' multifaceted purpose university-wide could improve inclusivity in departmental curricula and maximise meaningful support and practice. As transdisciplinary JD collaborations increase the differences narrow further. Hence, nurturing these multidisciplinary interactions and practices still further can improve students' learning experience and the University's whole functionality.

The LC-support in JD departmental courses was also flexible in exploring and incorporating VLE features, through blended learning and flipped-classrooms approaches (Ehlers, 2013; Hew & Cheung, 2014; Reidsema et al., 2017). Participants discussed these as embedded elements of their support duties, which varied depending on course requirements. In accounts with well-established collaborations, this support was better acknowledged, appreciated and integrated in lecture delivery, incentivising the LC-initiatives further, in

exploring and bringing new and innovative teaching methods to the course. Hence, in addition to acknowledgement and materials sharing (Friend & Cook, 2014), analysing and incorporating each other's work in our practice are also vital features, not only of collaboration, but of the course cohesiveness.

Greater integration of LC-support in lectures can also benefit Faculty. As participants volunteered, subject lecturers experience time constraints and work overload, with some delivering in L2. This can represent intimidation at the notion of having language specialists in the audience. Yet, both specialists can benefit from greater exchanges, materials integration and participation in lectures, seminars or a mixture of both, with greater integrated contribution in teaching, mutual observations, peer-feedback, and partnership consolidation (Baeten & Simons, 2014), thus, enhancing and contributing to everyone's learning.

While lecture-learning is valued (Bligh, 2000), having more specialists co-teaching in large but flexible learning-spaces in seminars, tutorials or workshops formats, further face-to-face interactions and hands-on practices would be adopted. By minimising lecture-time and by keeping receptive learning and individual on-line work outside class-time (Reidsema et al., 2017) more constructive and resourceful learning is achieved, maximising the seminars' practical output. This encourages, thus, interactive cooperative productive learning projects that meet holistically the students' learning needs on content, skills and language through practice, particularly within transnational education. Thus, collaborating is not only happening amongst practitioners, but in students' work and class ethos.

Spontaneity, interaction or interjecting between co-teachers added to the instruction. This was generally welcomed depending on personalities, culture and classroom roles. Some co-teachers found it more effective having a demarcation of roles or clear divisions of delivery, while others found an embedded understanding and comfort in knowing there was support and understanding from the co-teacher. The cultural background in training and experiences influenced learning and teaching styles and peers' preferences. The study found it pivotal to clarify these preferences before co-teaching and make it part of the course planning (Friend & Cook, 2014). This awareness contributes to the peers' flexibility to new ideas and

practices, to the collaborative respect required (Croker et al., 2016), the more organic building of the cooperation, and to JD's overall innovative and transformative approach.

Participants were genuinely appreciative of their peers' presence and support in the classroom, building camaraderie and team collaboration. Mini-debates between teachers, fluidity in co-teaching, improvisation and spontaneity in the classroom, and outside, bring to practitioners and specialists an organic construct to the collaboration (Littlefield et al., 2015 p.130), which needs to be harvested and sustained. As a diversity of backgrounds and personalities interact and collaborate, learning cascades to all levels and to all. In an ever-changing international context willingness to learn and adapt seems assured. In such a context, JD can serve to students as a model of its collaboration ethos. JD's Integrated and multidisciplinary courses exemplify collaborations and practices that bring the cognitive, the constructive and the social phenomena together.

6.4 Contribution to Pedagogy

In the transnational context, regional approaches to learning and teaching need to be recognised to avoid potential assumptions and expectations that can constrain learning.

One of these assumptions is that students transfer knowledge from one course to another. Various accounts have reported difficulties in transferring skills from EAP to subject specific courses, particularly with reference to the advent of JD, as it contextualises and applies literacy skills with the specifics of the subject matter (Jacobs, 2005, 2007). This is perhaps indicative to traditions in having one subject per course and ending with exams representing the course completion. With the cultural value posed on exams in this particular context, JD courses can create a bridge for students to convey knowledge between courses, even more so when JD combines multidisciplinary or transdisciplinary approaches (Becher & Trowler, 2001; Cortazzi & Jin, 2013).

Specialists' coordinated effort in JD does not only bring EAP to subject courses, it aligns academic literacies in language and skills to meet students' learning needs in particular departmental work and assessments. Thus JD materialises for students the reasons why they need the skills exercised in EAP courses. Questions may emerge, however, as to

whether EAP's related skills alone do indeed make sense to students in other courses. It remains open whether students make the necessary connections between skills, content and coursework requirements, and then, whether students maintain and transfer these skills to later years as required, when greater demand and complexity in essays and dissertations emerges.

Other assumptions relate to not only practical skills such as note-taking, but soft skills that might be specific to learners in this context, such as autonomous learning, which is not necessarily working alone, but taking initiative without receiving specific direction, working with a team, or offering an answer to the classroom. These may clash with embedded pragmatic approaches in learning such as urging for the unique outcome that solves a particular problem, and to obtain this answer from the teacher and not peers, since they are all equal. Hence, exchanging expertise, observations and teaching experiences amongst JD practitioners can provide students with a better equipped palette of learning styles for students to test against, compared with their own preferences.

Views, assumptions and approaches regarding L1/L2 acquisition and use in the JD-classroom differ amongst local and international practitioners (Lasagabaster, 2017). Co-teachers sharing L1/L2 exhibited a singular classroom dynamic, as students' attitudes towards L2 use differed depending on which teacher circulated at their table. While an L2 monitoring co-teacher may ease students' L2 use, the presence of an international peer may also enforce L2 practice. This raises questions about the conditional and situational use of L1/L2 and its learning limitations, whether L2 obstructs the teacher-student exchanges and rapport, and if certain co-teaching combinations better aid students' L2 acquisition.

In the accounts, students' attitudes towards code-switching and their general L2 acquisition is interesting. Often seen as situational and conceptually dependent, students' L1/L2 selection seems to favour content learning over academic language and skills in JD courses. Apparently, they are particular about the lecturers' L1, with problems over accents and the general preconceptions that L2 acquisition is dependent on exposure to L2-native speakers, without the realisation that the real world is different (Okuda, 2019). These presumptions and pragmatic approaches based on culturally embedded learning paradigms pointing at

time-efficiency and fast-goal attainment, can affect attendance, motivation, and the overall EMI perception. Yet, this pragmatism towards effectiveness and efficiency rather than process through thinking and practice (Huang, 2010; Clark, 2013) may be detrimental to improving in both L2 and content learning. JD provides the real-world experience with diversity in ideas and backgrounds, and the opportunity to explore and practise extensively.

Pragmatism and efficiency may originate in China from a constant overcrowding of all daily routines, not only in the streets, but in *Gaokao* exams, canteens, dormitories, developing a sense of constant competition. Running alongside, there are also regulations, from strict character-writing rules in primary school, to a lengthy history of habituated choices and constant supervision piercing through the Confucian anthropocentric layers (Figure 1) reaching the inner 'family' and 'self' circles (Lu & Jover, 2019). In such a context receptive, grammar-translation and rote learning methods favour the domestic discourse (Hayhoe & Ross, 2013). However, since TNE fosters diversity in thinking and cognition, the JD discourse and approaches may well contribute to collaborations that blend diversity in peoples and learning styles, closer to a Confucian 'community' circle, if not the epicentre of 'self' through learning. Ultimately, students might find their readiness in taking initiative, using L2 often, seeing the use of teamwork and peer-learning and realising the many possible answers to a problem.

While our common goal is for students to excel in L2 the university context presents challenges for immersion programmes with specific demarcation of L1 and L2 usage, such as CLIL approaches in Canada and Europe (Lasagabaster, 2017). Although similarities could be adopted, JD collaborations can help in highlighting the relationship between subject matter and language. That is, by contextualising language within the framework of the content, the physical environment of the university and campus may energise the use of L2 more widely, as a shared common goal. However, this tactic may prove demanding in the national and geopolitical paradigm, and within traditional learning patterns.

Students practice English mainly in the classrooms and although attendance is expected for all sessions, participants discussed absenteeism as a common issue. Attendance can reflect the effectiveness of a course, its teachers, and/or the students' motivational interests.

Particularly for first-year students, attendance may be affected by first-time sudden freedoms living away from home and family ties, and after the constraints and strict demands of the *Gaokao* exams and close supervision from parents/grandparents and teachers. The adaptation process to an EMI international university can last depending on preconceptions in learning and university purpose, together with challenges in maturing, time management and the general transitioning of the particulars of this context (Huang, 2012).

Participants highlighted attendance as an important aspect of their JD-experiences. They argued that attendance should not be imposed, but rather challenged through engaging activities. Some use the cultural focus on exams to assess class tasks. Others use subtle approaches reaching students' emotions and are conscious to establish student-teacher relationships in such a way that students would refrain from skipping class and save face for the teacher, as someone superior (Yao, 2000).

Motivating students to attend through cunningly disguised punishments, recording attendance, assessing classwork, inducing a sense of guilt, or drowning them with a flow of engaging activities: all question the simplicity of the core issue, the attitude towards learning. JD collaborations may serve as examples of teamwork dynamics that persuade students of the advantages of university life and of the learning relationships that they can build with their peers, right from the beginning of these courses, forming working teams that encourage attendance (Macfarlane, 2013).

On top on these cultural and background influences there are also structural elements such as course relevance and attitudes towards classwork and general logistical elements. Participants interrelated attendance with teaching large cohorts. The impact for both teachers and students seems evident in their accounts (Gibbs & Jenkins, 1992). To adapt to teaching and learning in seminars with large cohorts while maintaining students' motivation and enthusiasm can prove challenging to practitioners and students (Wulff et al., 1987). Introductory sessions for JD may provide practitioners with the processes and approaches in working with large groups and help students work with peers more independently.

Together with the particular dynamics required in large classrooms, are the learning space facilities the university provides. Lecture theatres and fixed furniture spaces are common in contexts where the expectation is 'content download' (Evans et al., 2009), limiting students engaging in interactive tasks. Participants were not discouraged; instead, they adapted tasks and created ways to provide student-centred and motivational activities. Yet there were noticeable preferences for flexible learning spaces where classroom management and collaborative skills can provide a wider range of cognitive and constructive learning tasks.

Although the university is relatively new, rigid lecture-like spaces are common in the university, since classroom design follows the culturally embedded notion that knowledge is acquired through the one expert at the front ('the sage on the stage'). The available flexible spaces today derived from recent requests mainly for JD courses. Fixed spaces can hinder the success of interactive tasks and course outcomes, while flexible spaces can aid students' interpersonal skills and autonomous learning, while maintaining a closer access to the teachers' feedback (Wulff et al., 1987). In TNE settings and JD in particular, a combination of learning spaces may be more suited. Thus, classroom design should involve those who understand and utilise best the space (Jones et al., 2006).

Through its diverse involvement, TNE can be considered to have an influential status on local traditions and wider education (Bennell, 2019; Schulte, 2019). More receptive and pragmatic approaches to learning, such as expecting all the necessary exam related information on the lecturers' presentation slides (Martyn, 2018), and centring practically all efforts on assessed tasks and grades (Cortazzi & Jin, 2013) and singular and unique answers, can be stabilised, as practitioners indicated, by the authenticity of lectures and diversity in Englishes (Clark, 2013). Combined with more productive approaches, JD seminars, during or after lectures, offer the opportunity to evaluate and analyse a kaleidoscope of potential answers to a question. Group projects and research-led activities, while contextualising language and academic skills (Jacobs, 2005) and offering a mixture of pedagogies to the lecture model (Bligh, 2000), can combine learning styles that cater to different personalities and cultures. Pedagogical collaborations and perspective exchanges can offer alternative approaches to cognitive diversity and thinking.

Participants expressed minor collaborative tensions; the disconnection discourse in the use of pronouns us/they were present when referring to the departmental staff. This can be attributed to frustration and stress in the lack of curricula inclusion in some departmental courses where the LC-tutor assists, in the on-time sharing of lecture material in preparation for seminars, and in an imbalance in the dedication and commitment that the tutors sometimes see in their departmental counterparts. As noted by some participants, this was due to additional duties such as research and other interests that subject specialists have, as well as being assigned to JD courses, rather than having the option to volunteer (Friend & Cook, 2014); while the LC-tutors chose JD courses as a means for something new, a change and discovery.

These exchanges acknowledge LC-tutors' expertise in recognising students' learning needs and in building bridges between literacies and content (Jacobs, 2005, 2007). These require initiatives to identify those elements needing implementing and making appropriate adjustments to provide students with the necessary indicators to help them realise the existing links between literacy skills and subject matter.

The participants found JD to have a positive impact on students' learning experience. Although there are still setbacks, such as attitudes towards working in groups, requirements for extra and remedial linguistic work, and difficulties in digesting large amounts of content, the LC-specialists perceive students' experiences of JD as something positively different, interesting, productive, and cognitively sound. The JD programme really can make students think and connect subject-focused ideas with study and language skills (Jacobs, 2005, 2007).

6.5 Contribution to Professional Development

The analysis highlights challenges in transitioning and adapting to JD courses. As experienced practitioners, these changes can be confrontational to their teaching identity. However, in the accounts these challenges are unanimously seen as learning processes and ultimately, part of professional growth and development.

Part of the JD journey is for LC-tutors to participate as audience in lectures. As learners of the subject themselves, the lecture experience complements two main factors: the

understanding of the student experience and learning needs, and the pedagogical underpinnings of the seminar preparation. This preparation requires lecture content to be defragmented and scaffolded, identifying the target language and academic skills necessary for students to grasp new concepts. The JD-tutor needs to be agile in making good sense of the subject matter and in identifying the key components necessary to be transferable to students' learning (and in good time for the seminars). In this process, the LC-tutor may reiterate, supplement and provide remedial instruction in the form of workable tasks encouraging active learning, language practice and cognitive learning. Each element above characterises the JD-tutor's professional development as students, courses, and peers change.

One conflicting challenge to the LC-tutor's identity is the change from literacies, academic and study skills, to JD subject focus courses (Chang, 2017). The analysis suggests that the impact on the teacher's identity can be measured mainly by the degree to which tutors found themselves able to provide meaningful support to students in either language, academic skills, and in some cases content. The greater the contribution is in time and substance of content-related and literacy-content connections, the greater is the teaching satisfaction, collaboration and learning outcomes. The accounts showed more independence and autonomy in courses where tutors could provide their deconstruction and adaptation of lecture content in seminars, rather than in courses developed and run solely by departments.

LC-tutors expressed a range of interests in learning or re-learning their JD-course subject, with some taking the opportunity to learn something new. In all cases, however, tutors were required at some point to sample the student experience by attending lectures in preparation to their seminars. This provided students with a good role model in learning practices, further shared and developed in seminars or via VLE, depending on the course set-up. Yet, in this learning role, tutors are also listening to the students' understanding of the subject matter (Almagro & Vallejo, 2002), which not only complements the seminar sessions, but also provides a closer opportunity and better understanding of students' learning-styles.

This role shifting could have threatened to some degree the teachers' self-confidence. This was not reflected in the accounts, since the interview responses were obtained at the end of the semester when tutors had time to reflect on their learning and experience, with time to *"rebuild their professional identity*" (Bonnet & Breidbach, 2017 p. 273). Fundamentally, participants expressed particular delight when they were able to provide support with some level of confidence on content particularity, bringing with this a certain degree of importance to the subject rather than skills and students' learning preferences. Yet, both factual knowledge and skills need to be acquired in parallel in JD courses.

An additional factor noted in the analysis influencing the teacher identity was the departments' limited understanding of the LC-tutors' role, capabilities and expertise seemingly restricting potential contributions to the curriculum, students' learning experience, and professional development. This led some tutors to look for avenues to reach students' learning. In departmental-led courses, some tutors found refuge on VLE, providing a blended-learning approach as a platform to provide support. Others used seminars as more practical avenues and interactive spaces in flipped-classroom methods. In order to feel more involved functionally and with a purpose tutors felt the need to justify their presence in their courses as discovering the potential of JD that needed yet more developing and maturing.

The analysis reflects JD working better with more established collaborations. This impacts co-teaching and understanding amongst practitioners and potential professional learning (Lock et al., 2016). From the lecturers' perspective JD can contribute in language for L2 users and pedagogy for both. Even though it can be intimidating in the notion that language specialist(s) are present in the lecture theatre, well-established collaborations would add help requests, as in some accounts. This helps in acquiring confidence and trust in peers that embrace the opportunity that JD brings to their personal and professional development.

Noteworthy is participants' tactfulness, professionalism, and respect displayed throughout their experiences towards each other and learning and teaching (Croker et al., 2014, 2016), becoming free agents of organic collaborative construction with all its ingredients: common goal, group dynamics, peer-support and intentional relational learning, or professional

development (Littlefield et al., 2015 p. 138). This is significant in a transnational university, making it possible to develop collaborative programmes such as Joint Delivery and contributing to the cohesiveness of courses and the university at large.

6.6 Contribution to Current Trends and Future Scenarios

Some potential improvements observed by participants in the study contributing to current practices in JD related to greater communication, continuity, accountability and resources. These elements can be interrelated as great communication can affect positively the share of resources, responsibilities and accountability, thus contributing to the general sense of belonging and continuity.

If we consider Friend and Cook's (2014) models of interaction (see Table 5), as per the accounts, JD fluctuates between a 'multidisciplinarity' and 'interdisciplinarity' without quite reaching the share of common goals and responsibilities that 'transdisciplinary' models offer. This can affect practitioners' levels of commitment, feelings of accountability and trust, posing the question consequently about continuity in the course, or transnational university.

The participants depicted many of the essentials forming 'transdisciplinary' models and included also Littlefield et al.'s (2015) elements of 'organic collaborations', such as peer-to-peer support and intentional learning. Their depictions orbited these concepts, while their conclusions towards future visions indicated an optimum collaborative environment that combines both 'transdisciplinarity' and 'organic collaborations'. These synthesised in JD collaborations include: (1) disciplines integrating their approaches to practice and preferences as part of their course initial planning; (2) communication and adaptation through communication finding the 'happy medium' in co-teaching practices; (3) considering the potentials in including LC-specialists in content and its delivery; (4) allowing for less lecture time and more hands-on projects and team work in seminars with greater formative assessments, rather than final exams; and, (5) teaching training for all on team-teaching (Baeten & Simons, 2014), specialising in content-language teaching and in JD collaborative combinations (see Figure 5).

These future visions are developed through the participants' experiences in collaborating and teaching in JD. Practitioners adapt, design and develop syllabi and materials as entrusted mediators and experts (Liyanage & Walker, 2014), sensitive also to the contextual norms and ideologies with "*views towards the socially constructed knowledge by the policy makers*" (Tazik & Khany, 2019 p. 1404). Thus, the curricula comprise subtle changes of its context (Bennell, 2019; Kirby & van der Wende, 2019), though its constant contribution to educational development is via practitioners' observations and analysis of their students' learning needs. Interestingly, the students are here the main agents of change.

6.7 Author's Reflective Account

JD is a journey of unknowns, wonders and a good number of trials, difficulties and tribulations from where to learn. With a couple of decades teaching, the thought of sharing the comfort of my own autonomy to improvise and adapt lessons as I saw necessary with 20-25 students in EAP groups, to co-teach groups of over 100 students interrelating academic skills with content, was an interesting and exciting challenge. While it took some initial readjustment, there was an increasing appreciation of the flexibility that JD brings to pedagogy and to those involved in a changing world.

As participants expressed, there was a sense of urgency in acquiring and learning the content from the departmental peers, so that it can be transformed into practical tasks for students to practice particular and subject related language, while enhancing academic skills. In co-teaching experience with departmental-staff the level of support that I was able to provide to students seemed dependent on three factors: my departmental peers' understanding of my role in the module, the specificity of the subject in relation to EAP/ESP, and elements of character and circumstances. While the participants discussed the first and last factors, little was mentioned regarding the subject-EAP/ESP relationship; for instance, it was significantly more difficult to produce interactive language practice activities for a computer-programming course than for an urban planning module. Hence, to ensure I was giving students the necessary practice and support needed, a change in the course focus needed to emerge. For instance in computing courses assigning specific time in the course for students to discuss and explain in English how and why their coding would work. This

would involve working closer with peers in their understanding of the LC-role in the course, and co-planning a structure that provides the necessary room for students to practice and cognitive learning.

This structure was clearer in the lecture-seminar courses. As the participants hinted in their descriptions, I had a greater sense of independence in such courses. In the lecture-seminar the only significant connection between departments was the lecture materials that fed into the seminars. In these, there is specific time for students to practice and digest new concepts; conversely, there is less departmental-LC collaboration.

The seminars can gain from further multidisciplinary co-teaching by combining further lectures and seminars. Often seminars were LC co-taught with classroom sizes of over one hundred students, which required students to develop autonomous learning and independent effort in cooperation with a team of fellow-students. This can be challenging for students and teachers alike, as in general, students often find themselves lost in this spacious autonomy hiding between the masses in the large classroom, and teachers fail in 'policing' more than guiding and supporting. Greater collaboration in planning and designing curricula with a mixture of approaches within a session (Bligh, 2000) would bring greater benefits to students' participation and learning and in this, enriching our teaching practice.

From the exploration of this study and teaching in five different modules, JD practices have exhibited the shaping of collaborations to a wide range of modalities that succeed in meeting students' learning needs and courses' outcomes. It has also displayed a significant level of flexibility and willingness to learn and innovate from everyone involved, including administration and management, which together interconnects potentially different areas of the university in a solid and cohesive institution.

6.8 Limitations of the Study

6.8.1 Limitations in Capturing Emotions in Phenomenology

IPA is extensively employed in Health and Psychology, and although it has been adopted widely in Education in recent years (Roeckelein, 1998; Smith et al., 2009), it can be

challenging for educationalists to reach the psychologists' or health analysts' understanding of the human condition. However, it is in the understanding of how language works, via its discourse analysis in interview interpretation, and assessing this against the experience in Education and the particulars of this context, that this analysis has taken form.

Based on the phenomenological framework and guidelines of Smith et al. (2009; Smith et al., 1999), the study's data analysis and findings' connectivity lean closer to the undertakings in Education, than on the feelings and emotions of the participants. The language in phenomenological interview in health, for instance, can expose easily emotional discourse, and aid more the analysis with this evidence. In collaborative teaching, this type of emotive discourse is less likely, instead layers coated with caution and respect are expected in the University's professional context. Yet, the study highlights some of these emotions and attitudes as stressed in the interviews, to some degree. While it is possible that elements of the psychological arena may have been missed in the enquirer's sense making of the participants making sense of their experiences (Smith et al., 2009), the data analysis has established a conscious objective stance or '*bracketing'* (Smith et al., 2009) to the participants' expressions of feelings they highlighted by considering the overall context of the circumstances of the experience.

The study's phenomenological approach offers a variety of responses depending on personalities, sociocultural backgrounds and attitudes towards expressing emotions, feelings and concerns. The interviews show noticeable variations in the various forms of expressing feelings and concerns. Where some participants viewed the interview as an opportunity to reflect on their practice and the JD experience, others found more difficulty in expressing their feelings, often with an understandable note of caution. It can be advantageous, however, to have an understanding of the context, its national and educational systems, and a shared experience and understanding of the participants as co-workers. These elements aid the sense making of phenomenological data (Smith et al., 2009), still with a constant and conscious awareness of potential assumptions and preconceptions. As a consequence, the phenomenological approach to the analysis depicts much more the views expressed by those participants who took a reflective attitude and

had fewer constraints to express their views and feelings, than others, thereby limiting the study to some degree.

Additionally, questions regarding expectations and perceptions helped in establishing a point of reference as to what participants may have based the responses of their experiences on and how they perceive their experiences of JD. It is important to consider, however, that the expectations may have been shaped from peers' comments overheard before experiencing JD, as well as from similar experiences they had previously, or related literature they may have been exposed to in this regard. Expectations can also be led by perceptions of how something is understood or regarded, and informed by perhaps a rich teaching background, such as the case of a majority of participants with 5-20 years of teaching experience.

The nature of the data in relation to the working relationship between the researcher and participants can be considered to differ in depth, quality or relevance. This relationship may have affected the data in both forms, in retention of experiences and forms of delivery, and in easy discussions revealing deep personal feelings about views and experiences of the phenomenon.

In relation to attitudes towards discussing with a colleague about practice and the workplace, all interviews were directed and focused on pedagogy, management, collaboration and personal growth and learning experience, which correlated with the study's concerns. Participants in management positions provided an additional perspective to the study with reference to the development of JD programme and its structure and administrative requirements.

6.8.2 Further Research

Further research could assess the long-term impact on students' learning establishing a case study comparing JD with other courses, so as to assess its value holistically acquiring the students' JD perspective. Yet, as the latest manager notes, JD courses that maintained standards and practitioners' collaboration for a few years, already showed improvements in students' feedback on their experience and in the results of their assessed work.

Continuity is an element assumed in the literature, most having the leisure to conduct longitudinal research without changes in turnover, administration, or constraint by time, even though change can bring fresh perspectives. A longitudinal approach to the study would have depicted in real time genuine perceptions and emotional expressions and feelings. It would have captured perspectives from the students and departmental staff with the possibility of follow-up interviews offering a more holistic view of the essence of the JD phenomenon.

The study is short in providing a framework for the relationship between the three main themes of the study: collaboration, pedagogy, and professional development. In further research, it would be interesting to identify the degree of importance participants find in these themes related to their identity as teachers.

6.9 Implications for Practice

In spite of some of the above mentioned limitations, the study offers considerations for practice. Three main areas are found in striving for the meaning and significance of JD practices in participants' experiences: collaboration, pedagogics and professional development. These elements intertwined in the analysis with *collaboration* as the core essence of JD.

The participants' discourse on collaboration gravitated towards three main questions: 'how the collaboration worked?', 'what was their role in it?' and, 'what would they gain from the experience?'. Within the notion that all collaborations share at least one common goal (Cook & Friend, 2014), this study infers three main essential practices for successful collaborations that can be applied in comparable centres and universities: 1) to co-design a clear and thorough initial plan; 2) to maintain and adapt shared responsibilities; and, 3) to grow at both personal and professional levels. These can be defined and elaborated as follows:

1) To Plan and design together a clear and thorough course outline before the course starts. This should include discussions about roles and expectations. This common task would help build trust, accountability and direction. Practical options may include:

a) Co-planning (Li et al., 2019) and co-designing the course and assessment including course's outcomes, each other's roles and expectations.
b) A guidelines form helping co-teachers establish their expectations and preferences in teaching (e.g. task-based approaches, classroom interjections, lesson adaptations).
c) Establishing and adapting accordingly the degree of fluidity in co-teaching; from an initial demarcation of roles to a successive organic collaborative teaching.
d) To include students in the planning and collaboration by providing, for instance, a recorded presentation of the co-lecturers together with the workings of the course, their role, and how the students should benefit from the course's setting.

2) To adapt and share course responsibilities through an open, adaptive and supportive share of resources sustaining and developing the collaboration. A sustainable co-teaching delivery would include an open attitude towards adaptation to change, coordination and reciprocal inclusivity. Practical options may include:

a) Sharing spaces, teaching resources, instructional responsibilities and assessment (Hedin & Conderman, 2019)
b) Creating informal spaces (Massey, 2016; Fisher et al., 2016), which may include students in a mixture of formal and informal settings (Rice & Pinnegar, 2010; Austin, 2001). This can aid rapport building and engagement with inclusivity in the dynamics of the classroom, and beyond towards an organic collaboration (Croker, 2016).
c) Set courses based on practical and hands-on tasks where small and large groups of students can work in open and flexible spaces shifting teacher-centred approaches to online delivery and hybrid classroom methods – e.g. blended learning, flipped-classrooms, HyFlex and other more recent online approaches (Ehlers, 2013; Hew & Cheung, 2014; Reidsema et al., 2017; Leijon & Lundgren, 2019; Scull et al., 2020).

3) To grow at personal and professional levels by engaging in learning from the JD experience, the departmental subject matter, and the various teaching practices. This should in turn motivate and maintain an interest in the collaboration. Practical options may include:

a) Cultural and Pedagogical exchanges within the TNHE in China, for instance by activating a co-teaching community of practice that welcomes reflection and fluid discussions on JD co-practices.
b) Taking the time to explain and exchange each other's expertise and skills in subject matter and pedagogical skills.
c) Keeping a JD weekly diary recording significant (or not) components that may have been learned each week. That is, reflecting on practice and collaboration exchanging viewpoint for positive change and adaptation in practice.
d) Developing JD training, co-teaching training and teaching strategies gathered from observations and reflection practices.
e) To share university wide and beyond the JD experience, practices and potential research in consortiums, conferences, journals and similar.

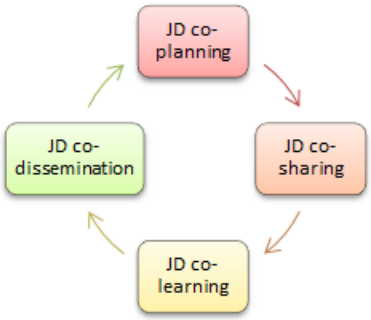


Figure 8 – JD-process: co-planning, co-sharing, co-learning, co-dissemination

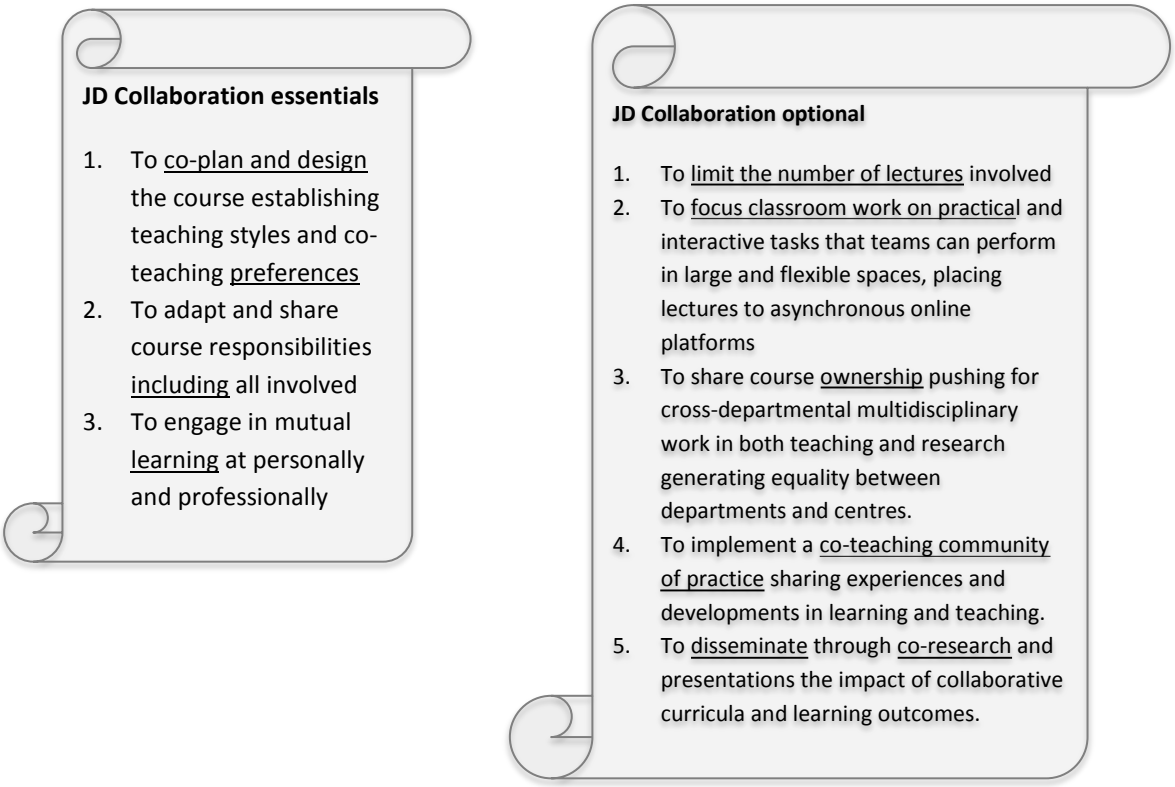
These essential and practical options suggest a cyclic process evolving through the course of the semester (Figure 8 and Figure 9). This basic approach can be implemented in similar TNHE and EMI contexts. Additional elements from the analysis that can be regulated at departmental and/or university levels and aid optimum collaborations relate to two main factors: the ownership of the course and the number of lecturers involved in it.

Localised course ownership for multidisciplinary and JD syllabi, forces one department to regulate and take full responsibility of the course, isolating the participation of the other. This can generate tensions and damage the collaboration, as we see in the analysis regarding assessment and course materials. Likewise, fewer lecturers rather than course visiting lectures would minimise fluctuations in engagement and provide accountability empowering teachers on their craft.

Ultimately, to alleviate conflict, ensure true collaborations and effective practice, and guarantee extensive applications of JD, course ownership and the participation needed to be shared amongst departments. Courses could be centrally owned at university level or a

new entity or department could be formed for all JD and multidisciplinary related items/courses. A collaborative network of practice or a university hub for all the collaborative related work, for both teaching and research could be one way forward.

Figure 9 – Essential and Optional Areas for successful collaborations



Indeed, not all practices can be implemented, as often protocols, regulations and life tend to interfere. Yet, figure 9 summarises some key essentials and optional approaches that could be implemented towards greater collaborations in institutions where there is potential for Joint Delivery courses.

Some of these potentials can be based on encouraging collaborations at departmental level by offering language and academic skills input to already established subject-based courses, perhaps starting as testers and moving forward onto more co-planning and co-delivery afterwards. Also, by inviting departmental staff to observe EAP lessons, and vice-versa, providing a taste of what is being taught and pedagogies, as presuppositions tend to fossilise. Managers might enable more time for communication amongst departments to understand each other's teaching and subjects as in a university wide community of practice, while changes at policy level could include course-ownership and enabling more

transdisciplinary curricula. These can contribute to the university's cohesion and sample to TNHE at large.

The importance of JD collaborations needs disseminating. Sharing this study's findings and learnings with its participants can move JD forward. In addition, sharing it in circles such as BALEAP could benefit EAP specialists of similar backgrounds influencing transnational contexts and bringing forward greater value to practices. Together with these are the potential publications and circulation of related research furthering ideas in papers and journals. JD collaborations can be the core basis of settings at various levels that could start and develop in teacher training while adding value to learning and teaching.

6.10 Summary

This chapter set out the discussion for the study's analysis that IPA discloses the essence of JD and answers the research questions concerning its impact on learning and teaching, professional development and the future of education in similar settings. A good number of elements were consistent with those found in the literature, yet JD contributions can be significant to pedagogical practices and practitioners' professional development. Effective collaborations are found in strong initial co-planning and designing of courses, in maintaining a share of responsibilities and in having a continuous motivational learning, either in teaching practices or subject matter. Such collaborations should enhance and lead to more organic collaborations in multidisciplinary settings. More practical approaches for JD collaborations across departments can evolve into a community of practice aiding the exchange and sharing of experiences and advancing future collaboration in education.

Chapter 7 Conclusion

The focus of this phenomenological study was to analyse how language specialists make sense of their experiences teaching in Joint Delivery. Participants' reflective accounts highlighted various levels of collaboration with departments, pedagogical practices, and professional development. These themes were found often intertwined and closely related in the practitioners' responses. For practice, the three main areas concerned processes and adaptation from the design of collaborative course to the delivery. The underscored essentials to collaborative teaching were found in having an equal share in the planning, designing and share of responsibilities. Openness to learning and adapting to different teaching styles seems apartment in the JD phenomenon.

In learning, the study finds JD to offer a variety of styles and approaches catering for all learning styles and open to new and innovative approaches to teaching. It is an open form of exploring new systems of collaborative teaching: from lectures centered on content delivery, catering perhaps to more introvert or independent learners; to seminars reaching more autonomous learning students via interactive and practical tasks. While some students may feel comfortable in the lecture theatre, others may find open and dynamic spaces more congenial, active in hands-on tasks. JD combines both extremes in the teaching spectrum as in the Yin-Yang's equilibrium, balancing the dynamics of different teaching styles with potential organic and transdisciplinary collaborations.

The participants' responses of all JD modes expressed genuine satisfaction with their collaborative experiences as well as rewarding practices. Although some tensions were uttered regarding course inclusivity and share of responsibilities, it was found that co-teaching needs inclusion within all aspects of a course, from course design to its ownership.

Nonetheless, the LC-teachers welcomed more integrated collaborations within the workings of the University. The integration of EAP in departmental courses showed to add greater value to students' learning and ability to connect subjects and academic skills. By merging language and skills with content we provide students with the essence of what to talk about and practice.

While some educational institutions are challenged by redundancy, with widely available information and technology increasing in sophistication, education is nevertheless increasing in importance. Multidisciplinary approaches establish connections for the students to evaluate and acquire a broader and more critical view of the world and for the world to collaborate further. Thus, pedagogical approaches need to be changing accordingly and programmes such as JD can provide the human and the 'physical' places to establish the necessary discussions, thinking, guidelines, and exchange of ideas that technological advancement may limit, but the environment and geopolitical dynamics surely need.

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Appendices

Appendix 1 – Interview Question Guides

1. Which module do you do and who with (for my own records only)?
2. What were your expectations before you started JD?
3. How different has your experience been from the expectations you had until now?
4. How has your experience been with JD so far?
5. What do you think you gained from the experience?
6. What do you think you contributed to during the experience?
7. What aspects of the experience with JD would you change?
8. More specifically; what's your experience with
    a. Learning
    b. Teaching
    c. Interacting with others (students/ your dep. /other's dep./people in /out of JD)
    d. Integrating with the university
    e. The environment
9. Experience & Feelings – what did these experiences made you feel?

Appendix 2 – Participant Information Sheet

UNIVERSITY OF LIVERPOOL

Committee on Research Ethics

Participant Information Sheet for Tutors

Dear Colleague

My name is Gloria Molinero and I am a faculty member in the Language Centre working on a research paper for my Doctoral studies on Education with the University of Liverpool.

My research project titles "Exploring the impact of 'Joint Delivery' in higher education: A phenomenological approach", which concerns attitudes and experiences of those involved in collaborative teaching and learning between departments within the joint delivery modules.

Thus, I would like to invite you to participate in my research study in my role as student-researcher since I think your contribution can aid the development of these modules within the university.

Before you decide whether to participate, it is important that you understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. Please take time to read the following information carefully and feel free to ask me anything should you require further information or if there is anything unclear. Please also feel free to discuss this with your colleagues or line manager if you wish.

I would like to stress that you do not have to accept this invitation and should only agree to take part if you want to. Please, do take time (5-7 days) to consider participating in this study.

Thank you for reading this.

1. What is the purpose of the study?

The purpose of the study is to explore what 'Joint Delivery' is and how it works in this university. I hope to underline the mechanism of collaborative courses through the perceptions, on-going experiences and reflections of colleagues involved in joint delivery courses.

2. Why have I been chosen to take part?

You have been chosen to participate because your views and experiences in 'joint delivery' are important in building an understanding and knowledge on cooperative teaching and planning in the context of our university, and in establishing potential accomplishments and best practice in these types of programmes.

3. Do I have to take part?

Participation is voluntary and you can withdraw at anytime without explanation and without incurring a disadvantage.

4. What will happen if I take part?

The study method will be in the form of one-to-one semi-structured interviews, classroom observations and one or two lesson-planning meetings. You will be notified in good time when these observations will be done.

The interviews will be held at the beginning, middle and end of the semester, to be able to explore your initial perceptions, on-going experiences, and reflections on the 'joint delivery' modules.

I, the researcher, will be conducting the interviews, taking not longer than an hour. And these will be held in pre-booked meeting rooms for comfort and securing privacy.

The phenomenological approach of the study focuses on the dynamics and mechanisms of 'joint delivery' as a phenomenon and not on you, as the interviewee. Thus, your views and experiences will be confidential. In a similar manner, the classroom and lecture observations, based on the overall practice and dynamics of the collaboration, will aid the data analysis in parallel with that of interviews and planning meeting observations. These observations will be done once or twice per module only.

I will be recording the interviews and lesson planning meetings for analysis and coding with your permission. This interpretative analysis of the interviews will be available for you should you request revision in the case of publication.

5. Are there any risks in taking part?
The study should not present any discomfort or disadvantage, otherwise, do not hesitate to let me know immediately. An instance of discomfort, for example, can be discussing personal experiences and views about teaching with a colleague. Although, all data is confidential and your responses will be anonymously contrasted with others, you can stop the interview at anytime or ask to remove any of the data already provided.

6. Are there any benefits in taking part?
There are no direct and indirect benefits intended at the time of participation or in the future, though, it is hoped that the study will bring insights into the running of 'joint delivery' modules and benefits to the university at large. Please note that there will be no compensation provided for your participation.

7. What if I am unhappy or if there is a problem?
Please feel free to let me know via email gloria.molinero@online.ac.uk or in person if you are unhappy with the proceedings of the participation, or if there is any other problem.

If you remain unhappy or have a complaint, which you feel you cannot come to me with, then you should contact my supervisor ewan.dow@online.liverpool.ac.uk or the Research Participant Advocate USA number 001-612-312-1210 with email address liverpoolethics@ohecampus.com. When contacting them, please provide details of the name or description of the study (so that it can be identified), my name, and the details of the complaint you wish to make.

8. Will my participation be kept confidential?
Yes, it is important that you note that your interview responses will be kept confidential as to avoid conflict between colleagues and also to acquire better understanding towards the essence of collaborative teaching, which is the core of the study.

Data will be collected in the form of mp3 recordings with your permission and field notes on my personal computer with a password. The data will be used for this study only and in not other studies, having access only by the researcher and my supervisor. The name of the university and the department will not be used in the study. And after five years, the data will be deleted.

9. What will happen to the results of the study?
The study results will be available to you should you request them. Please do not hesitate to contact me gloria.molinero@online.ac.uk. Should the study be published your identity will not be identifiable.

10. What will happen if I want to stop taking part?
You can withdraw from the study at any time, and without an explanation. A note on your decision will allow me to make new arrangements. The results up to the period of withdrawal may be used only if you are happy for this to be done, otherwise, you may request destroying the data already collected. Note that withdrawals are anonymised, as are the results of this study, using pseudonyms to minimise the identification of participants.

11. Who can I contact if I have further questions?
Please do not hesitate to contact me at any time by email gloria.molinero@online.ac.uk or at my office (SC540a) for any query.

Appendix 3 – Ethical Approval Notification

Dear Gloria Molinero

I am pleased to inform you that the EdD. Virtual Programme Research Ethics Committee (VPREC) has approved your application for ethical approval for your study. Details and conditions of the approval can be found below.

Sub-Committee:	EdD. Virtual Programme Research Ethics Committee (VPREC)
Review type:	Expedited
PI:	
School:	Lifelong Learning
Title:	Exploring the impact of 'joint delivery' in higher education: A phenomenological approach (Is 'Joint Delivery' a successful approach to learning and teaching in transnational education?)
First Reviewer:	Dr. Lucilla Crosta
Second Reviewer:	Dr. Kalman Winston
Other members of the Committee	Dr. Martin Gough, Dr. Julie-Anne Regan, Dr. Mariya Yukhymenko, Dr. Janet Hanson
Date of Approval:	30th September 2016

The application was APPROVED subject to the following conditions:

Conditions

1	Mandatory	M: All serious adverse events must be reported to the VPREC within 24 hours of their occurrence, via the EdD Thesis Primary Supervisor.