



NORMALISING COMPUTER ASSISTED LANGUAGE LEARNING IN THE CONTEXT OF PRIMARY EDUCATION IN ENGLAND.

Monika Pazio

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PhD

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THE CONTEXT OF PRIMARY EDUCATION IN ENGLAND.**

by

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PhD

Institute of Research in Education (IREED)

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NORMALISING COMPUTER ASSISTED LANGUAGE LEARNING IN THE CONTEXT OF PRIMARY EDUCATION IN ENGLAND

Toward a model for normalised primary CALL.

Monika Pazio

ABSTRACT

The thesis examines the concept of normalisation of Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL), *i.e.* complete, effective integration of technology, in the context of primary Modern Foreign Languages (MFL) in England. While normalisation research is conducted predominantly in the English as a Foreign Language (EFL) context, understanding normalisation in the primary mainstream education in England is important due to the contrast between teachers' lack of readiness to deliver languages as part of the *National Curriculum*, and technology penetration in the classrooms. This thesis therefore, taking a sociocultural perspective of Activity Theory, attempts to redefine normalisation to include context specific characteristics, identify what factors contribute to and impede normalisation, and assess where primary CALL is on route to normalisation.

An ethnographic approach was deemed to be most suitable to gain deep understanding of normalisation. Prolonged immersion in a primary school and the thematic analysis of observations, interviews, field notes and audio recordings revealed that factors impeding normalisation of primary CALL revolve around the following areas: attitudes, logistics, training and support and pedagogy. The issues related to the subject itself, *e.g.* negative attitudes toward the subject, lack of skills, impact on the achievement of normalisation to larger extent than issues related to technology. Hence in the primary context, normalisation needs to be considered from the point of view of normalisation of MFL and then the technology that is embedded into MFL. The analysis of the data allowed the researcher to create a model which serves as a form of audit of factors that need to be considered when thinking of successful technology integration into languages. Such guidance is needed for the primary MFL context having reoccurring issues, but is also relevant to primary EFL contexts in Europe where similar problems related to teaching of the subject are reported.

DECLARATION

I declare that this thesis is my own unaided work. It is being submitted for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy at the University of Bedfordshire.

It has not been submitted before for any degree or examination in any other University.

Name of candidate: Monika Pazio

Signature: *Monika Pazio*

Date: July 2015

DEDICATION

Owoc ostatnich pięciu lat mojej pracy dedykuję moim rodzicom w podziękowaniu za ich wsparcie i pomoc.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AT - Activity Theory
CALL – Computer Assisted Language Learning
CK - Content Knowledge
CLT - Communicative Language Teaching
EAL - English as additional language
EFL - English as a Foreign Language
ELL - Early Language Learning
EU – European Union
HE - Higher Education
ICT - Information and Communication Technology
IWB - Interactive Whiteboard
LA- Local Authority
MFL - Modern Foreign Languages
PCK - Pedagogical Content Knowledge
PEOU - Perceived Ease of Use
PK - Pedagogical Knowledge
PU - Perceived Usefulness
SAMR - Substitution, Augmentation, Modification, Redefinition model
TAM - Technology Acceptance Model
TCK - technological Content Knowledge
TK - Technological Knowledge
TEL - Technology Enhanced Learning
TPACK - Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge model
TPK - technological Pedagogical Knowledge
UK – United Kingdom

CHAPTER 1

Introduction

INTRODUCTION

Before the discussion of the background to the study commences, some explanation needs to be given on how I understand the field of primary Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) and what other areas impact on how the discussion is structured.

When discussing CALL in general, and primary CALL in particular, one refers to two curriculum areas, or two components – the language component, traditionally English as a Foreign Language (EFL) or, as in the present case, Modern Foreign Languages (MFL), and the technological component. While in the EFL context it is the technological component of CALL that attracts more attention, in the primary context the importance given to MFL as a subject and ICT as technology integrated into the subject seems to be equally distributed. This is because as Jones and Coffey (2012, p.113) point out, both subjects (MFL and Information and Communication Technologies (ICT), now Computing) are equally controversial in the current primary teaching debates as:

“...they are often considered to be skills-based subjects, though, in fact, this label underplays the complexity and transferability of the cognitive processes involved. They are also among the subjects that many believe children show an aptitude for (or not!). In other words, they are both subjects that tend to evoke strong reactions from teachers and parents - beliefs that are often subliminally passed onto children - about either being able to do it, or not, and

by allusion, from the teachers' perspective, being competent to teach it or not.”

Normalisation of CALL can be briefly described as complete integration. Bax (2011) treats normalisation as a sociocultural concept; I adopt a similar stand in this thesis. Choosing sociocultural theory as a theoretical framework demands taking a broader look at factors influencing primary CALL. Due to the difficulties of the current language teaching landscape, the discussion of the place of MFL in the primary curriculum cannot be avoided. While the focus of the thesis is normalisation of primary CALL, since MFL is the subject matter, it is impossible to ignore the impact of MFL status on general MFL teaching and CALL. Similarly, when discussing CALL in the primary context, one cannot disregard the literature surrounding Technology Enhanced Learning (TEL, referred to interchangeably as ICT) and the debate around technology and pedagogy. Hence in order to understand the complexities of the research context, the thesis is focused on primary CALL influenced by its overlapping fields of primary MFL in England (and Early Language Learning (ELL) pedagogy) and TEL, and the general field of CALL from which the term normalisation originates (as illustrated in Figure 1.1). The discussion of the background to the study in 1.1 refers to those three fields and outlines their relationship with the subject matter of this thesis, *i.e.* normalisation of primary CALL.

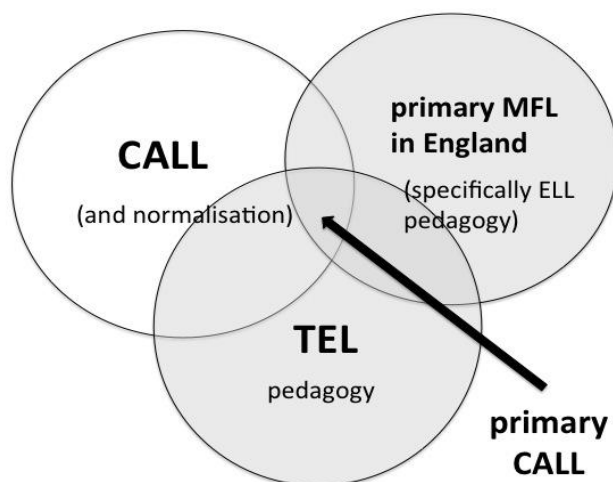


Figure 1.1 Field overlap in primary CALL.

1.1 Background to the study: International (European) and national context

For decades English has been the predominantly taught language in Europe. However, it is becoming transparent that while the importance of English is still recognised, the knowledge of solely this language is not sufficient to succeed in the world or the European Union (EU) economic market (European Commission, 2008). The promotion of the value of multilingualism has preoccupied the latest European political debates, as expressed in a series of policy related publications by Council of the European Union (2008, 2009). Tinsley and Board (2012, p.4) point out that multilingualism is seen as:

“...crucial to enabling European businesses to take advantage of opportunities within the Single Market, as well as enabling individuals to live, work and study in another member state”.

The importance of foreign languages in the EU has resulted in the teaching of more than one language, across the European primary schools but is also reflected in a widespread trend of lowering of the period of mandatory introduction to a foreign language, which according to Eurydice (2012), Tinsley and Comfort (2012) and Board and Tinsley (2014) now commonly happens outside of the UK around the age of eight. This EU wide enthusiasm for languages and the initiatives that followed, positions the United Kingdom (UK) behind the EU. Whilst internationally the value of languages has been recognised, Eurydice (2012) suggests that nationally (in England), languages are only now becoming officially acknowledged as an important part of children’s education.

The position of MFL teaching in the English primary curriculum has been unstable for a long time. At this point of an introduction, it is important to emphasise that up until 2014 languages at primary level were not considered to be a part of the core curriculum. Their status diminished also at post primary level following a decision to make MFL optional at General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE) level in 2004. What followed was a steep decline in the entries

that, despite the implementation of counter-measures, still has not been reversed, as reported by the Department for Education and Skills (DfES, 2007), Tinsley and Board (2012) and Department for Education (DfE, 2013b).

Jones and MacLachlan (2009) attribute a lack of motivation at secondary level to this lack of interest; Saunders (1998), Sharpe (2001) and Watts (2003) point to the influence of prevalent societal attitudes, which - as a result of the high status of the English language abroad - undervalue language learning in general. This is contrary to the EFL context dominated by CALL research, where the value of English language as a subject is recognised.

European Commission (2012c) reports on thirty nine percent of foreign language speakers in England able to have a basic communication in a foreign language. According to the 2012 *Eurobarometer report* (European Commission, 2012c) this number, contrasted with ninety eight, ninety five and ninety four percent of the researched population being able to hold a conversation in a foreign language (FL) in Luxemburg, Latvia or the Netherlands respectively, puts the UK at the bottom of the EU statistics. Followed by the alarming news regarding the low numbers of fluent foreign language speakers in the UK, several industry reports (CBI, 2012; British Chambers of Commerce, 2012) emphasised the importance of language skills for the future development of Britain's economic position. The reports pointed toward the importance of foreign languages for employability and highlighted employers' dissatisfaction with language skills of their employees as the key factor impeding business success. This economic argument for languages echoes the main message from Willy Brandt (quoted in Sharpe, 2001, p.21), who said: "If I'm selling to you, I speak your language. If I'm buying, dann müssen Sie Deutsch sprechen!"¹

The changes in the language landscape in the UK (elaborated on in 2.3.2) shed light on the difficulty of the current situation. Sharpe's (2001) comparison of languages in the English school curriculum with the 'Phoenix rising from the

¹ "...then you have to speak German!"

ashes' is a dramatic, yet possibly accurate one. The issues relating to the drop in language uptake, the rise in the status of languages other than English, and the bearing this has on the English core curriculum, were recognised by the government, and forced a re-examination of the place of languages in the curriculum. However, according to Macrory and McLachlan (2009) the decision to bring back MFL, has caused apprehension, fear and uncertainty among teachers, who understand the high expectations set in the *New Curriculum* (DfE, 2013a), but who are not content with being given the task of teaching a language in which they are not fluent.

The debates surrounding technology integration also evoke strong emotions. It is recognised in the literature (see for example Jenkins *et al.*, 2006) that technology influences and changes the way people communicate, socialise, work and access knowledge. Jenkins *et al.* (2006) claim that this has impacted on education, in that new literacy skills have been developed as a result of interaction with technology, and have subsequently been translated into the educational context. Hence:

“...active, personalised and collaborative learning environments are to be designed and offered to students for them to engage in effective, efficient and rich learning paths, developing the knowledge and key competencies needed by 21st century societies.”

(European Commission, 2013, p.13)

The belief that technology has the potential to add to or even transform education triggered investment in technological infrastructure. As a result the capability to integrate technology in schools across Europe rapidly grew and the European Commission (2013), as well as Hennessy and London (2013), predicted that it will continue expanding further across the EU countries. The issues of inadequate infrastructure are slowly being eliminated as technology and broadband become ever more accessible. However, as the European Commission (2013) explains, while the majority of teachers are becoming accustomed to technology in an educational setting, across the EU technology is still used primarily for administrative purposes.

Contrary to the UK's position in the MFL landscape, Sharpe (2001) and Whyte *et al.* (2014) put the UK at the forefront of technology integration. Whyte *et al.* (2014) point out that this is largely due to the Interactive Whiteboard (IWB) penetration (and Internet connection) which made technology use integrated into teachers' practice. It is predicted that ninety four percent of British classrooms will have an IWB by 2016, which as Whyte *et al.* (2014) point out, puts Britain in the lead in the EU. However, Laurillard (2008) and Selwyn *et al.* (2010, p.2) explain that "...educational expectations for current ICT use echo the last fifty years of largely unrealised predictions of a computerised revolution in the classroom"; while technologically there has been improvement as the move from Personal Computers (PC) to laptops, IWB and iPads can be observed, classroom practice has not been transformed.

Technology, more specifically computer technology, has had its place in language education since 1960s, and was also emphasised as an important aspect of primary MFL learning in *Languages for all, Languages for Life* strategy (DfES, 2002), *KS2 Framework* (DfES, 2005), and the *New Curriculum* (DfE, 2013). The need for a pedagogical, as well as technological, shift as expressed above in relation to TEL, also applies to the field of CALL. A lack of pedagogical change has been noted in the CALL literature by Egbert, (2005), Stockwell (2007) and Thornbury (2011, online), who described CALL practice in terms of a tendency "...for the technological tail to be wagging the pedagogical dog". Hence Thornbury (2011) suggests that CALL applications seem to be technologically driven. The European Commission (2013) describes teaching practices associated with MFL learning as technology-centred lessons with didactic instruction and very little room for pupil development and engagement. O'Hara (2008), Wade *et al.* (2009) and Macrory and McLachlan (2009) confirm this observation in relation to primary MFL in England, where the frequency of integration of technology in the classroom is higher than in the EU countries, but pedagogy lags behind the variety of available resources. While in England pockets of good practice have emerged in the use of technology in learning and teaching reported by Dale (2013), Macaro's *et al.* (2012) review seems to indicate that those are not common across the primary

language sector. It is important therefore to examine what the ‘end goal’ of that integration entails, *i.e.* what it means for technology in a primary educational setting to be normal, and determine what factors (pedagogical as well as broader sociocultural factors) impede the achievement of those goals. This discussion of the end goal of integration has been growing in importance over recent years within the field of CALL, and brought about the emergence of Bax’s (2003a) concept of ‘normalisation’ to describe the final step in CALL integration. The concept of normalisation is central to the present work and as Bax (2003a), Levy and Stockwell (2006), and Chambers and Bax (2006) indicate, marks the future agenda of CALL, and a goal to achieve. Establishing this future direction is especially important for the context of primary CALL in England, which - as Macrory and McLachlan (2009), and Board and Tinsley (2015) indicate - requires support.

1.2 Rationale, the research gap and research questions

This brief outline of the language, technological and CALL landscape presented in the previous section situates the study in the context of CALL, MFL and the broader debate about the role of ICT in pedagogy (presented above as TEL) (Figure 1.1, p.2). Situating primary CALL in the centre of the three fields is aligned with the theoretical perspective I adopt which treats normalisation as a sociocultural concept. Bax (2003a), drawing on Bijker (1997) and Tudor (2003), moves away from both the techno-centric discourse around technology in education, and attributing the success or failure of a lesson to technology, which, he treats as a fallacy and an oversimplification of the complex relationships between broader sociocultural factors that affect successful technology integration. This is especially true of primary CALL context in which the complex nature of MFL teaching may create obstacles to effective technology integration. It is important therefore to take a broader view in identifying factors which impact on the success of technology integration. This can act as a step toward defining and fulfilling the promise of pedagogical transformation. This, in this thesis, is done within the framework of the sociocultural ‘idea’ of activity

theory (AT) which links the individual to the social and the cultural, and allows the identification of contradictions and tensions within an activity system.

While the literature on CALL and normalisation is steadily expanding, Egbert (2005), Huh and Hun (2005) and Timucxin (2006) express the need for CALL research that addresses contextual differences. The current body of CALL research is dominated by the EFL context as reflected in the recent Early Language Learning (ELL) CALL review conducted by Macaro *et al.* (2012), which acknowledges studies that referred to MFL but focuses solely on the EFL context. Hence the examination of primary CALL in England as a non-traditional context addresses the need from the CALL community for research in other contexts to allow for comparisons.

The present study therefore addresses this contextual gap in the current body of research and focuses on examination of the concept of normalisation applied to primary languages in England. The research questions under investigation were formulated as follows:

1. What is the definition of normalisation of CALL in the context of primary schools in England offering primarily specialist provision with some input from non-specialists?
2. What factors impede normalisation of CALL in the research school and schools offering similar provision type in England?
3. To what extent has normalisation of primary CALL been achieved in the research school and schools offering similar provision type in England?

Drawing on the data gathered to answer the research questions, the present work also attempts to provide a model for assessing and supporting normalised primary CALL, which, following the sociocultural theoretical framework, situates pedagogy within broader sociocultural factors that impede successful CALL (Chapter 5). The model establishes a visual representation of these identified factors and their relationships to each other. When considered in relation to

critically evaluated classroom practice, it supports the identification of issues to address and implications for pedagogical change that is needed in the field of primary CALL in England.

1.3 The structure of the thesis

As presented in Figure 1.1 (p.2), normalisation of primary CALL is influenced by three areas: CALL (and normalisation), primary MFL (and ELL) and TEL pedagogy. The literature review section of this thesis adopts a similar approach to Chapter 1, *i.e.* it deals with the discussion of relevant sources that influence the thinking behind this study, in relation to the three fields situating normalisation of primary CALL in its sociocultural reality. Hence the literature review presented in Chapter 2.1 addresses the field of CALL through outlining the argument for the use of the term CALL; the typology of CALL stages, and the discussion of the concept of normalisation, situating it within the sociocultural ‘idea’ of Activity Theory (AT) as a lens through which the data are examined. The following sections discuss the components of CALL, *i.e.* ICT (2.2) and MFL (2.3), providing background to understanding the new, non-traditional context, outlining possible sociocultural factors that might affect normalisation and specifying the ‘object’ in the activity system, *i.e.* what normalised TEL pedagogy and normalised ELL entails. Those two components are finally merged in 2.4, which focuses on primary CALL practice and, drawing on previously discussed sources, applies effective practice in TEL and ELL to primary CALL. This helps to specify the ‘object’ of the activity system and provides a basis for observation of classroom practice and identification of tensions and contradictions within the activity system.

The methodology, arising out of the literature review and the call for more in-depth analysis of contextual factors, reflecting my ontological and epistemological position, is explained and discussed in Chapter 3. It focuses on justification of the qualitative paradigm, ethnographic approach and methods used in the pilot and the main study. The chapter refers to the pilot, and outlines the results linked to the model created out of engagement with the literature and amended after the

analysis of the results of the main study. The theoretical discussion of validity and reliability that follows draws on Sandberg's (2005) work. It redefines both terms to align them with the interpretive tradition, as well as presents steps that were taken throughout the research to ensure a valid and reliable study. The aim of the research is to produce a model, hence (the concept of generalising from an interpretive research), is explained. The chapter then discusses thematic analysis as the chosen method of analysis and concludes with the explanation of ethical procedures and an outline of possible bias.

Chapter 4 presents the discussion and analysis of collected data, applying a lens of sociocultural AT. The chapter is structured around themes identified across the data sets, *i.e.* attitudes, logistics, training and support, pedagogy and the relationship between MFL, ICT (TEL) and CALL. Chapter 5 discusses the creation of the model for normalisation, outlining the factors that impede normalisation and the relationships between them, and provides a visual representation of what was discussed in Chapter 4.

The final chapter, Chapter 6, commences with a reflection on my journey from a PhD student to an emerging researcher. It offers a summary of the main findings of the study in relation to the research questions, outlines limitations and implications for practice and closes with the outline of the original contribution to knowledge.

CHAPTER 2

Literature review

INTRODUCTION

Chapter 2 reviews the literature that guided the design of this research and influenced the methodological choices described in Chapter 3. The sociocultural theoretical perspective I adopt demands looking at broader factors that influence the topic at hand, *i.e.* normalisation of primary CALL. As indicated in Chapter 1 and represented in Figure 1.1 (p. 2), I consider primary CALL to be an amalgam of three areas – CALL and normalisation, TEL pedagogy and primary MFL (with ELL). In order to illustrate the influence of those fields on this study and the complexity of primary CALL in England, each section of the literature review deals with a specific area. Hence: section 2.1 outlines evidence in relation to CALL and the concept of normalisation central to this work; section 2.2 discuss issues related to TEL and pedagogy; 2.3 outlines the background to primary MFL and the issues of Early Language Learning (ELL); and finally section 2.4 drawing on the literature in the previous sections, discusses effective practice with primary CALL which, in this thesis, is aligned with normalisation.

STATEMENT OF SELF

Following Fetterman's (2010) advice I write the thesis from the point of view of an ethnographic 'I,' in the first person singular. This reflects my association with

qualitative paradigm, as discussed in 3.1. As I cannot detach myself from the sociocultural reality under investigation, I describe my individual interpretation of that reality. Therefore in the interest of validity and reliability, I need to document my understanding of the world, and reveal any pre-conceived notions that might have guided my understanding, choices and interpretations. This section outlines my educational and professional experience that influenced my understanding of normalisation of primary Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) in England and the interpretation of the field and the collected data.

I approach the research topic first and foremost as a foreign language specialist with a passionate and pragmatic approach to technology integration across different stages of education. I first encountered young learners as a specialist teacher in Poland and continued to work with children in England, as my first permanent post as a Teaching Assistant was in a primary school. This experience helped me gain an understanding of the nature of primary Modern Foreign Language (MFL) teaching as providing support with MFL was also part of my duties. The professional involvement within the same Local Authority (LA) as the research site creates a common ground for understanding of the local rules and interpretations of the influence of the wider community on the school. Finally, my involvement into professional MFL and English as a Foreign Language (EFL) communities allowed for better understanding of primary teaching in a wider sociocultural context.

While I encountered MFL contexts in a professional capacity, the majority of my educational and professional background is in the EFL context. As a result of my involvement in CALL literature at the time of defending my Master's thesis, I familiarised myself with Bax's (2003a) concept of normalisation. Observations made in my professional environment in relation to technology integration in the primary schools, triggered my interest in the differences between the two fields - MFL and EFL, in relation to normalisation. This intrinsic curiosity was a trigger for exploring the topic as part of my PhD degree.

Finally, my current post as a Lecturer in Educational Development, and my focus on Technology Enhanced Learning (TEL) influences how I perceive the role of technology in education. While I understand that there are major pedagogical differences between Higher Education (HE) and primary education, the research I conducted in both fields in relation to normalisation implies an overlap. This is reflected in factors that impede technology integration identified by Bryant *et al.* (2014a, 2014b) as well as current thinking about the role of the student as producer and active participant expressed by Neary and Joss (2009). It is difficult to leave the involvement in HE behind, considering the intensity of my daily immersion in it, hence there are some references made to HE throughout the thesis. Those references are useful for a broader discussion of technology applications in educational environments of all types, which the sociocultural theoretical perspective adopted in this thesis demands. Those also point to the possibility of some generalisations across the contexts despite their pedagogic diversity. Having said that, I have an awareness of pedagogical differences and do not intend to translate the philosophy of HE teaching to primary learning.

2.1 CALL and Normalisation

Since the concept of normalisation, rooted in CALL, is central to the present work, I commence the discussion of the relevant literature with CALL. The focus of this first section is on defining the two main terms used in this thesis – ‘CALL’ (which refers to any technology integration in primary foreign education) and ‘normalisation’, which, following Bax (2003a, 2011) I align with effective teaching. This section continues with an outline of the results of earlier normalisation research, which guided the methodological choices for this study, as well as an assessment of the route toward normalisation reported in the literature to inform research question three. The chapter concludes with a discussion of theoretical assumptions underpinning normalisation and situates it within the sociocultural ‘idea’ of Activity Theory (AT), which serves as a theoretical lens for the examination of normalisation of primary CALL.

2.1.1 Definition(s) of CALL

As a result of recent debates about the appropriateness of the term of CALL revived by, amongst others, Jarvis (2013), I begin the discussion outlining the meaning behind the acronym, and justifying my choice to refer to technology integration into primary languages as CALL throughout this thesis.

The term Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) dates back to at least the 1980s (Chapelle, 2001) and according to Levy (2007, p.1) denotes "...the search for and study of applications of the computer in language teaching and learning". Over the years similar broad definitions were offered by other scholars in the discipline. Beatty (2003, p.7) describes CALL as:

“...any process in which a learner uses a computer and, as a result, improves his or her language.... [This] encompasses a broad spectrum of current practices in teaching and learning at the computer”.

Egbert (2005, p.4) refers to CALL as “...learners learning language in any context with, through, and around computer technologies”. While the focus in those definitions is on the computer, technology has evolved greatly from that pre-network stage, and so have teaching methods and approaches. Despite this technological and pedagogical shift, the term CALL, even though regarded as “anachronistic” by Thorne and Smith (2011, quoted in Jarvis and Achilleos, 2013, p.2), still remains the predominant acronym used to denote technology integration in foreign language education.

The persistence of the term CALL has been the source of debates by such scholars as Levy and Hubbard (2005), Jarvis (2012), Jarvis and Achilleos (2013) and Levy (2013). Levy and Hubbard (2005) and Thomas and Reinders (2010) suggest that apprehension toward the use of the acronym ‘CALL’ might be due to its association with behaviourism. Jarvis (2012) and Jarvis and Achilleos (2013) highlight as issues with the term, the emphasis on the ‘computer,’ and the term’s lack of ability to reflect the current state of the art, with the nuances of technology

and pedagogy being lost. As a form of rebellion, and to denote that in fact the field has moved on from behavioural principles as represented by the emerging new software and pedagogy within which it is embedded, many new acronyms came into use, including: Technology Enhanced Language Learning (TELL), Blended Learning (BL), Network Based Language Teaching (NBLT) or Web Enhanced Language Learning (WELL), Computer Assisted Language Use (CALU), Mobile Assisted Language Learning (MALL) and Mobile Assisted Language Use' (MALU). The last three terms – CALU, MALL and MALU - have emerged recently as a result of Watson-Todd's (2007), Kukulska-Hulme's (2009) and Jarvis' (2012, 2014) observations of EFL learners' technology applications, which reflect primarily out-of-classroom applications. This is reflected in Watson-Todd's (2007) CALU and the substitution of 'learning' with 'use'. Kukulska-Hulme (2009) and (Kukulska-Hulme & Shields, 2008, p. 273) draw on that, and add the importance of the use of mobile devices to aid that autonomous learning, and argues for the use of the acronym MALL, which:

“...differs from CALL in its use of personal, portable devices that enable new ways of learning, emphasising continuity or spontaneity of access across different contexts of use.”

Those two aspects, namely autonomous use and the popularity of mobile devices, were brought together by Jarvis (2014), who advocates the term MALU as one which accurately reflects current tendencies, and the changing world of technology and its applications. Following from the argument of autonomy, Jarvis and Krashen (2014) draw on Krashen's (1988) views of language acquisition and emphasise how technology is not used purely for learning and teaching, but mostly as a source of 'comprehensible input'. This is largely triggered by the popularity of the social media. For that reason, according Jarvis and Achilleos (2013, p.9) the shift from CALL to MALU is necessary and defined as:

“...non-native speakers using of a variety of mobile devices in order to access and/or communicate information on an anywhere/anytime basis and for a range of social and/or academic purposes in an L2 [second language]. Such a definition encompasses all the features of CALL and even MALL, in that it allows for conscious study purposes on desktops, laptops and

OMDs [Online Mobile Devices], but is not constrained by the limitations and also recognises social uses in the L2 in both formal and less formal learning situations.”

Figure 2.1 below presents an overview of the terms mentioned above and used to denote technology integration in foreign language education. These terms vary in relation to the technologies they refer to, and the type of teaching and learning for which they are suitable. While BL and TEL(L) seem to be as broad as CALL, within language education CALL appears to be the chosen term used by the researchers. While Jarvis (2014) might be right in saying that the computer no longer represents the predominant type of technology with which learners interact, MALU does not reflect the diversity of equipment used outside of mobile devices, and what is more, restricts the field to adult settings of EFL, through its links to acquisition *via* social media, which are not widely used for early language learning. Levy (2013, p.XVIII) argues there is a need for a term that encompasses this diversity and “...will not diminish CALL’s body of work by omitting key areas, especially those that appear to be on the edge of current mainstream practice“. I argue that CALL still fulfils that purpose.

technology \ term	IWB	PC suites	Internet/web 2.0	Mobile technologies	Other
CALL	Both	Both	Both	Both	Both
CALU	independent out of classroom use	independent out of classroom use	independent out of classroom use	independent out of classroom use	independent out of classroom use
TELL	Both	Both	Both	Both	Both
WELL			Both		
BALL			in-class integration		
BL	Both	Both	Both	Both	Both
MALL			in-class integration	in-class integration	
MALU			independent out of classroom use	independent out of classroom use	

	in-class integration
	independent out of classroom use
	Both

Figure 2.1 Overview of the terms used to denote technology integration for foreign languages and their scope.

According to Levy and Hubbard (2005, p.148), the term CALL is still appropriate for three reasons:

“...the distinctiveness and complexity of language as an object of learning; the need for a global term that can be reliably employed to describe what we do, and the de facto existence of a substantial, international group of individuals and established professional organisations that have continued to use the term for over two decades.”

The argument in relation to professional organisations is especially relevant here as the publication of Jarvis' (2012, 2014) articles triggered a discussion amongst members of such organisations as EUROCALL or WORLDCALL. The term CALL is broad and flexible enough to encourage researchers from different areas of technology research, and as such should be still attractive as a representative term. Historically speaking CALL referred to computers as the main technological item, and those unfamiliar with how it developed over the years associate it with PCs and behaviouristic software design focused on lexis drilling. However, as Levy and Hubbard (2005), Egbert (2005) and Levy and Stockwell (2006) emphasise, at the moment a reference to CALL encompasses a wide range of equipment and accompanying software. It is distracting and often confusing to use a new term to denote each one of these. Therefore I agree with Hubbard and Levy (2005, p. 148) that even though CALL is the earliest term employed, avoiding it “...fuels the idea that CALL is somehow locked into some kind of 1980s, pre-network time warp”. Hence taking into account all the arguments outlined above by Levy and Hubbard (2005) and Levy (2013), I use the term CALL throughout this thesis and refer it to any technology integration in the foreign language classroom.

2.1.2 Stages of CALL – Normalisation as the ‘end goal’ of CALL

Since the beginning of the existence of the term, CALL has undergone major changes in application that were triggered by both new developments in the technological world, and changes in the pedagogy of foreign language teaching. While the need for an analysis of the past to inform future developments has been

attempted by such scholars as Ahmad *et al.* (1985), Sanders (1995), Levy (2000) or Chapelle (2001), Bax (2003a) argues that those accounts lacked a degree of critical analysis and served rather as a review of what had been done. A critical typology of different stages of CALL has been attempted by Warschauer and Healey (1998), and Bax (2003a) who critiqued and updated that first version.

Warschauer and Healey (1998) provided the first systematic analysis of the history of CALL. They proposed the division of CALL into three stages: 'Behaviouristic' or 'Structural' (Warschauer 2000) CALL, 'Communicative' CALL and 'Integrative' CALL. This division reflects the type of available equipment but also the teaching methods predominant at a given period of time. 'Behaviouristic' CALL of the 1970s and 1980s, according to the aforementioned authors, represented what Hart (1981) referred to as 'drill and kill' activities. The software used for teaching reflected behaviouristic principles of stimulus-response pattern (2.3.5, Table 2.7, p.78). The pedagogical rationale for using those types of activities was that repetition is essential to learning, and computers of that period seemed to be a suitable tool for carrying out repeated drills. In the behaviouristic stage then, the predominant model for ICT application was what Warschauer (1996) described as 'computer as tutor', *i.e.* vehicle for material delivery.

While the elements underlying behaviourism are still present in contemporary teaching, overreliance on behaviouristic approaches has been rejected and new technological inventions, as well as the shift in methods of teaching, have led to the arrival of a PC and 'Communicative' CALL phase. Pedagogically, disenchantment with the audio-lingual method brought about 'Communicative Language Teaching' (CLT), which (as indicated by Cameron (2001), Sharpe (2001), Bax (2003a), DfE (2005) and DfE (2013a)) has been the predominant teaching method since the 1970s and 1980s. 'Communicative' CALL, reflected the characteristics of CLT, *i.e.* the emphasis on using the language as opposed to focusing on analysing the language; implicit teaching of grammar; generating original sentences; and exclusive use of target language. As opposed to the 'computer as tutor' model adopted in the previous stage, in the 'Communicative' phase the most common model was that of 'computer as tool/ workhorse', or

‘computer as stimulus’ (Warschauer and Healey, 1998), where the emphasis was on stimulating thinking rather than reinforcing the right answer. As Warschauer (1996) points out, ‘Communicative’ CALL was criticised for *ad hoc*, marginal and non-integrated use of technology. This gave rise to the last phase referred to by Warschauer (1996) as Integrative CALL. ‘Integrative’ referred here not only to the greater integration of technology into learning, but also to greater integration of language skills and stretching the use of technology beyond the classroom walls. Its popularity coincided with the introduction of the Internet and Computer Mediated Communication tools, *i.e.* Internet fora, email, blogs, chat rooms.

Warschauer and Healey’s (1998) typology was challenged by Bax (2003a) due to inconsistencies in chronology and lack of clarity in relation to categories themselves. Historical validity of the division was questioned by Warschauer and Healey (1998, p.58), who admit that:

“The three stages mentioned above do not fall into neatly contained timelines. As each new stage has emerged, previous stages continue. Current uses of computers in the language classroom correspond to all three of the paradigms mentioned above.”

Bax (2003a), additionally, identifies flaws in relation to the description of the two remaining stages. According to Davies (1982) and Kenning and Kenning (1990), ‘Communicative’ CALL, was not concerned with authentic communication, which is the primary principle and goal of CLT. Similar inconsistencies were pointed out in relation to the final stage, ‘Integrative’ CALL, which - according to Warschauer and Healey (1998) - incorporated project-based and task-based approaches, as well as emphasizing greater integration of technology into teaching. While the integrative nature of the stage, in relation to the degree of integration, is not as such questioned by Bax (2003a), the association of project work and task-based learning, which is linked to Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) (2.3.6) specifically with ‘Integrative’ and not ‘Communicative’ CALL, is.

Bax (2003a) proposed a new typology of CALL approaches, to relieve it of the burden of historical analysis, and identified ‘Restricted’, ‘Open’ and ‘Integrated’ CALL. Although the stages seem to correspond to Warschauer and Healey’s (1998) discussion, there are amendments to the initial understanding. According to Bax (2003, p.20) ‘Restricted’ CALL, which seems to reflect ‘Behaviourist’ CALL, is more appropriate since:

“...it allows us to refer not only to a supposed underlying theory of learning but also to the actual software and activity types in use at the time, to the teachers’ role, to the feedback offered to students and to other dimensions—all were relatively ‘restricted’, but not all were ‘behaviourist’.”

The openness of ‘Open’ CALL manifests itself in the openness of the software design that allowed for the use of open feedback, but also, pedagogically, a more open role of the teacher. Finally, Bax (2003a) draws a clear line between ‘Integrative’ CALL and ‘Integrated’ CALL by claiming that such a stage is yet to be achieved. Rather than representing a visible trend in contemporary CALL, it represents “...an aim towards which we should be working” (Bax, 2003a, p.22), referred to as ‘normalisation’. A comparison of the two typologies of CALL stages can be found in Table 2.1 below.

The ongoing discussion in the field related to the change of the term CALL (2.1), stems from a need to move toward a new stage of CALL, which in some respects more accurately describes current pedagogical and technological trends, but also gives a goal to aim for. Bax’s (2003a) analysis therefore is important in the sense that it not only examines the past but also points to the future of CALL, and more precisely the end goal of CALL, *i.e.* the integrated stage of normalisation. The discussion above outlining how CALL evolved creates background to understanding the origin of the term normalisation, which, situated in the context of primary CALL, is the focus of this thesis.

Typology of CALL stages	
Warschauer and Healey (1998), Warschauer (2000)	Bax (2003a)
<p>BEHAVIOURISTIC CALL</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 1970s-1980s • mainframe computer • mainly used for drilling • objective – accuracy • aligned with audiolingual and grammar translation method 	<p>RESTRICTED CALL</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • mainly used for drills, text reconstruction and closed questions • limited feedback • teacher monitors the task, teacher apprehensive of technology • CALL session as an extra • Whole lesson around the PC delivered in a lab
<p>COMMUNICATIVE CALL</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 1980s-1990s • PCs • Aligned with Communicative language teaching • Used for communicative activities • Objective - fluency 	<p>OPEN CALL</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Simulations, games, Computer Mediated Communication, used for interaction with the machine and other students • Open, flexible feedback • Teacher monitors and facilitates the task, teacher either apprehensive to use technology or overenthusiastic • Whole lesson around the computer delivered in a lab
<p>INTEGRATIVE CALL</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 21st century • multimedia and the Internet • project work, task based learning • authentic discourse • objective – fluency and agency 	<p>INTEGRATED CALL</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • use for Computer Mediated Communication • interaction with students and through the computer • more detailed, flexible, stimulating feedback • the teacher acts as a facilitator and manager • technology is a normal part of teaching, integrated into the syllabus, part of every lesson, part of regular teaching space - NORMALISED

Table 2.1 A comparison of Warschauer and Healey’s (1998) and Bax’s (2003a) typologies of CALL phases.

2.1.3 Definition of normalisation

The description and critical analysis of the short history of CALL in 2.1.2 gives an indication of its future direction, namely achieving the stage of normalisation. Defining the concept of normalisation, applied to the non-traditional context of primary MFL in England, is one of the aims of this thesis. This aim cannot be achieved without examining the current thinking behind the concept, which serves

as a starting point for understanding what normalisation in general entails, and how it translates to the new context of primary CALL in England.

There have been several references to normalisation in the literature as outlined in Table 2.2. The definitions combined the aspects of complete integration, availability, accessibility and pedagogically-focused applications. The most detailed and widely applied is the definition provided by Bax (2003a) who explores the concept further. I adopted his understanding as a point of reference in this thesis and developed it further to include context specific characteristics absent from the EFL field. This is discussed in 6.1.

Source	Definition
Rogers (1995, p.428)	"...the stage when an innovation has become incorporated into the regular activities of the organisation and has lost its separate identity".
Levy (2007, pp.230-231)	"...technology is affordable and accessible, technology support is available when needed, and that it works" but also "...when user focus is on the task at hand rather than the technology being used to undertake the task".
Bax (2003a, p.23-24)	"...computers are used every day by language students and teachers as an integral part of every lesson, like a pen or book, without fear or inhibition, and equally without an exaggerated respect for what they can do. They will not be the centre of any lesson, but they will play a part in almost all. They will be completely integrated into all other aspects of classroom life, alongside coursebooks, teachers and notepads. They will go almost unnoticed." "...when a technology is invisible, hardly even recognised as a technology, taken for granted in everyday life" and the term CALL "...ceases to exist as a separate concept and field for discussion."

Table 2.2 Definitions of normalisation in the CALL literature.

The concept of normalisation is important for two reasons. First of all, it aligns CALL research with the wider research community investigating educational change and the adoption of innovation (such as Rogers (2003) and Fullan (2005)),

and the broader discussion on the relationship between technology and pedagogy. And secondly, as Chambers and Bax (2006, p.466) elaborate:

“...it offers CALL practitioners a clear aim and therefore a clear agenda. In this light, our aim as CALL practitioners is to achieve such a seamless linkage between the computer and our teaching that the computer becomes as unremarkable in our daily practice as the pen and book.”

It is this linkage between the tool and pedagogy that is especially needed in the primary context in England where, as Board and Tinsley (2014) indicate, lack of subject knowledge creates obstacles to CALL delivery.

Since its introduction in 2003, the term appeared more and more in the CALL literature and was used by such scholars as Levy and Stockwell (2006), O’Dowd (2007), Lamy and Hampel, (2007), Curtim Schmid (2008) and Motteram (2013), confirming the value of the concept to the field as explained by Levy and Stockwell (2006, p.234):

“...we believe that working towards normalisation is a useful, practical strategy. Language teachers are very much working within a complex system of opportunity and constraint. Normalisation then becomes a process of understanding the infrastructure, the support networks, and the materials, and working effectively within them”.

This broader sociocultural perspective is especially useful in primary CALL in England, which is influenced by other fields as visualised in Figure 1.1 (p.2). Understanding the complexity of the system within which primary language teachers operate contributes to defining and reinforcing effective **learning**. This, in this thesis, is achieved through the creation of the model for assessing and supporting normalisation of primary CALL (Chapter 5).

2.1.3.1 Other perspectives on normalisation

While Bax (2003a, 2011) states that achieving normalisation is needed, as it translates into a stage when technology is associated with language gains, this positive view was challenged by Hubbard and Levy (2006), as well as Kirk

(2011). Hubbard and Levy (2006, p.23) point out that since one of the criteria for normalisation is the disappearance of CALL as a separate field, moving toward normalisation is equivalent to "...CALL practitioners...aiming at their own extinction". However, looking at the examples of technologies that, according to Bax (2003a), are normalised - for example a book - normalisation did not mean the extinction of professionals or the disappearance of research on the development of materials. Similarly, it can be argued that normalisation of CALL will not contribute to the demise of the field but if understood as effective learning, can contribute to the pedagogical changes.

Kirk (2011) offers a broader, non-language field bound perspective on normalisation and argues that rather than normalising, one should strive for sustainability of an innovation. According to Kirk (2011) normalisation is associated with lack of enthusiasm that initially accompanies the introduction of an innovation. This in turn leads to the sporadic and scattered application of a technology or an idea, as opposed to the regular integration that can be observed at the stage of introduction. This process is referred to by Kirk (2011) as the 'Iron Law of Educational Innovation'. However, the excitement that occurs with the initial stage of introduction of an innovation, referred to by Murray and Barnes (1998) as the 'wow effect', is associated with "...unreasonable and unfounded fascination and belief in computer technology's educational power" (Warschauer and Healey, 1998, quoted in Bax, 2003a, p.25). Bax (2003a, p.25) referred to this stage of technology introduction as the 'Omnipotence Fallacy', *i.e.* "...excessive 'awe' of computer technology and the belief that it can do more than it can". This in turn contributes to clouded pedagogical judgement and ineffective integration. Hence the lack of enthusiasm and gradual decrease in the application of technology that, according to Kirk (2011), leads to normalisation, is not considered to be normalisation by Bax (2003a) and by me in this thesis.

Drawing on Bax's (2003a, 2011) definition, normalisation in this thesis is predicated on effective use, discussed in this thesis primarily from the point of view of teaching. The ambiguous term 'effective' needs further clarification. As Davies (2008, 1.1) points out:

“...concrete evidence on the effectiveness of CALL is difficult to obtain, with plenty of anecdotal evidence about the positive effects of CALL by teachers reporting on their students being ‘enthusiastic’, ‘engaged’, ‘motivated’ and even ‘excited’ in classes in which CALL is used, but are sceptical about measuring its effectiveness”.

Defining what effective language teaching (and in the present case Early Language Learning (ELL)) with technology entails, demands considerations of sources outside of traditional adult EFL CALL context, which appear to dominate CALL research. The basis for exploring ‘effectiveness’ is, first of all, the consideration of effective ELL practice, and secondly a broader discussion on effective technology integration in education. Hence the discussion of effectiveness in this thesis takes place firstly within the two areas influencing CALL, *i.e.* MFL and ICT, examined independently in 2.2 and 2.3 respectively, and then combined into effective primary CALL in 2.4.

2.1.4 Earlier normalisation research

Normalisation, being a relatively new concept in CALL, has been appearing more and more in the CALL literature, and is referred to by such scholars as Levy and Stockwell (2006), Allford and Pachler (2007), Ward (2007), Curtim Schmid (2008), Maftoon and Shahini (2012), Mahdi (2013) and Rahmany *et al.* (2014). While as discussed in 2.1.3 the concept is useful to the field and the practitioners, the research on normalisation is still scarce. A pioneer study that looked at normalisation beyond a technocentric focus was conducted by Chambers and Bax (2006). Chambers and Bax’s (2006) study was conducted in the context of Further Education and HE EFL education in the UK, and identifies areas that create obstacles for normalisation presented in Table 2.3. Chambers and Bax’s (2006) study in particular informed the development of the focus and the methodology of my research presented in this thesis. Following from those results, and attempting to address a call from the CALL community for examination of different contexts (for example Egbert, 2005), a series of studies tried to achieve a similar goal, *i.e.* to identify factors that impede normalisation. A summary of factors identified by those researchers can be found in Table 2.3.

As can be seen from Table 2.3, there appears to be a degree of overlap of the results between all those accounts. Ward's (2007) research addressing primary Irish teaching in Ireland echoes the same worries in relation to equipment and software, logistics, pedagogical integration and teacher's knowledge and skills that are expressed by the other authors: Rahmany's *et al.* (2014), Maftoon and Shahini (2012), Mahdi (2013) - all of whom report on the Middle Eastern HE EFL context; and Field (2012) who conducts her research in the EFL HE context in New Zealand. This points to a set of issues that are generalisable across contexts.

While normalisation as a research area is proving to be more and more valuable for researchers, the common pattern that emerges, as outlined in Table 2.3, is the predominance of the adult EFL context. It is difficult to find any normalisation research conducted outside of EFL, with Ward's (2007) conference presentation as the only source I found through the literature search. This, however, should not mean that normalisation is exclusive to adult EFL. While many EFL researchers, for example Jarvis (2014), treat this context as being an important focus in foreign language research, as Dale (2013) and Pazio (2014) point out, the MFL context should not be overlooked, as the research and practice is valuable to the broader foreign language field. It is important then to follow the call from the community expressed by Egbert (2005) to go beyond EFL and examine other contexts not specific to English language, to allow for comparisons and knowledge exchange. This call is addressed in this thesis.

Source	Factors identified as obstructing normalisation	Context
Chambers and Bax (2006)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Logistics ▪ Stakeholders' conceptions, knowledge and abilities ▪ Syllabus and software integration ▪ Training, development and support 	Adult EFL (England)
Ward (2007)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Equipment (lack of equipment, lack of functioning equipment, lack of equipment in the right place) ▪ Software (lack of age appropriate materials, not linked to the curriculum, installation, monitoring and support issues) ▪ Teachers (lack of computer and CALL knowledge, lack of confidence, extra effort) ▪ Other interest (learner interest, integration plan) 	Primary MFL (Irish Language, Ireland)
Maftoon and Shahini (2012)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ lack of facilities ▪ lack of administrative support ▪ lack of time ▪ perceived ease of use ▪ low mastery ▪ others' attitude ▪ perceived usefulness 	Adult EFL (Iran)
Field (2012)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Teachers' perceptions ▪ Logistics ▪ Stakeholders' conception, knowledge and abilities ▪ Training, development and support 	Adult EFL (New Zealand)
Mahdi (2013)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Personal issues (ICT knowledge, training, technical support, time, beliefs, administrators issues) ▪ Technical issues (location, organisation, adequacy, quality) ▪ Pedagogical issues (methodology, textbooks, the objectives) ▪ Sociocultural issues (the content, fear of influence) ▪ Institutional issues 	Adult EFL (general)
Rahmany <i>et al.</i> (2014)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Logistics (equipment, time management, preparation) ▪ Stakeholders' conceptions and support (administrators, teachers' attitudes, learners' attitudes) ▪ Syllabus and software integration (software/ Internet integration, syllabus integration) ▪ Training and ability (technical issues, training issues) 	Adult EFL (Iran)

Table 2. 3 Summary of factors impeding normalisation identified by previous research.

2.1.5 Assessment of normalisation at the present stage

The present work attempts to answer where primary CALL is, on the route to normalisation as *per* research question three (1.2). As indicated in 2.1.4, the literature on normalisation is dominated by the EFL context - hence there is no evidence from the literature to shed light on the ‘normalisation of primary CALL. This is the gap in the body of knowledge that this research addresses. However, looking at the overlap of the issues identified across different contexts by the research presented in Table 2.4 (p.40), it is interesting to examine the ongoing debate within the EFL context, with the aim of comparing the new context of primary CALL and the context of adult EFL dominating CALL research. This comparison is made in light of the data collection and analysis in 6.1.

Researchers such as Curtim Schmid (2008), Motteram and Stanley (2011), Dudeney (2007) and Jarvis (2012), refer to different technologies that might lead to pedagogical changes necessary for normalisation. Curtim Schmid (2008) mentions the Interactive Whiteboard (IWB) as the technology that is most likely to help in achieving normalisation. This is due to its availability, especially in mainstream education (Whyte *et al.*, 2014), such as primary CALL in England, and its integration into the regular teaching space. Motteram and Stanley (2011) point that the changes in personal computer-use habits, and the influence of Web 2.0 tools, may be moving CALL closer to normalisation, which should bring technology to the core of teachers’ practice. As Dudeney (2007, quoted in Motteram and Stanley, ii) writes:

“Web 2.0 perceives the transition of the World Wide Web from a disparate collection of websites to a fully-fledged computing platform....resulting in a vast collection of websites and services which are more social in nature, inviting people to share what they find, what they do and what they learn in a wide variety of contexts.”

The new Web 2.0 tools also offer connectivity and functionality, for example the creation of ‘Personal Learning Networks’ (Siemens, 2004). These in turn facilitate the formation of online communities of practice and the exchange of knowledge, which translates into practical classroom solutions.

These networks are well developed in the language world, both in EFL and in MFL (Dale, 2013). As Drexler (2010, p.369) points out, Web 2.0 resources “...empower networked students to transcend the traditional concept of classroom...”, but also empower teachers. This is especially important in the context of primary MFL where - due to a shortage of qualified specialists, as O’Hara (2007) and Board and Tinsley (2014) indicate - teacher support is crucial.

While the potential of Web 2.0 tools to create communities of practice and facilitate knowledge exchange is important, Dudeney’s (2006) references to the aspect of sharing facilitated by Web 2.0 tools reflect Jarvis’ (2012) argument about the tendency for CALL to be used in autonomous learning situations, especially in light of the growing popularity of social media. Chinnery (2006), and Kukulska-Hulme and Shield (2008), indicate that the acceptance of MALL is believed to be further reinforcing that trend and leading to a more informal, flexible style of learning. While this might be true, as Jarvis (2012, p.9) points out:

“...unless and until normalisation is realised CALL will continue to be primarily associated with autonomous learning and self-study contexts and as a result further away from normalisation in classroom teaching”.

Chambers and Bax (2006), Bax (2011), Ioannou-Georgiou (2006), and Thomas (2009) suggest that normalisation has not yet been achieved in the EFL context; however, the use of CALL is becoming more and more integrated. Bax (2003a) himself claims CALL is in transition from the ‘Open’ to the ‘Integrated’ stage. Meaningful communication is made possible with Web 2.0 tools, but at the same time the type of software used is more open. Bax (2003) points out, however,

that the openness does not translate to other key aspects necessary for normalisation, namely teachers' attitudes.

2.1.6 Theoretical framework - Situating normalisation within sociocultural theory

As Bax (2011) points out, views of technology in education appear to be contradictory and polarised, accompanied by either excessive awe, expectations of radical change and pedagogical improvements, or exaggerated fear and open resistance. There is a tendency to attribute perceived change to any single agent, which is often the technology itself - a phenomenon referred to by Bax (2003a, 2011) as the 'Sole Agent Fallacy'. However, as Bijker (1997, p.6, quoted in Bax, 2011) explains:

“...one should never take the meaning of a technical artefact or technological system as residing in the technology itself. Instead one must study how technologies are shaped and acquire their meanings in the heterogeneity of social interactions”.

This argument is persuasive. When examining technology use, it is crucial to avoid over-simplistic explanations of success or failure based on an assumption that sole responsibility of the outcome lies in the hands of the teacher or the technology, and look at broader factors that might affect the integration, be it technical, economic or political. As Motteram (2013, p.178) points out:

“There are a wide range of elements that will be having an impact on the teaching as it plays out in the classroom: the time that they live in, or the place, the phase of education, the choice of pedagogical approaches, whether, for example, mobile phones are allowed in the classroom, whether students have internet access at home, the attitudes of the community to the language that they are learning; these are just some factors that need to be considered.”

Hence as Tudor (2003, p.4) explains, there is a need to take a more ecological perspective “...within totality of the lives of various participants involved”. That means considering the participants of the context, and the activity of teaching

and learning within the broader factors. This echoes Bax's (2011, p.5) call to avoid the technocentric view by constructing:

“...a theoretical framework for understanding normalisation on the basis of those traditions of educational and sociological research which themselves seek broad and complex social explanations as opposed to relatively simplistic perspectives, and one of these traditions is that associated with Vygotsky.”

Bax (2003a), Tudor (2003) and Bijker's (1997) views influenced the choice of sociocultural theory as a theoretical framework for this thesis, as it allows me to consider technology, and normalisation, in the context of the totality of factors. This is especially important in a context as complex as primary MFL, which is influenced by overlapping fields as per Figure 1.1 (p.2).

Before outlining which aspects of the theory were adopted in this thesis, I want to briefly explore the tenets of the theory. According to Warschauer (2005), those main tenets revolve around mediation being the central concept, the social nature of learning and genetic analysis.

Vygotsky proposes that a variety of tools or artefacts mediate human action. As Lantolf (2000, p.1) explains:

“...just as humans do not act directly on the physical world but rely instead, on tools and labour activity, which allows us to change the world, we also use symbolic tools, or signs, to mediate and regulate our relationships with others and with ourselves and thus change the nature of these relationships”.

Hence as Lantolf (2001) argues, those (cultural) tools possess the characteristics of the culture within which they were created, and are altered as they are passed on from generation to generation. Warschauer (2005) points out that this relationship is reciprocal, as human behaviour is also altered as a result of the interaction. Lantolf (2001) mentions the development of the computer, from a cumbersome PC to widely-used mobile devices, as an example of how the tool can be altered to fit a new generation's needs. The changes to the teaching

profession that resulted from the introduction of technology illustrate how the tool mediates and alters human behaviour.

The concept of mediation is linked to Vygotsky's (1978) theories of the social nature of a child's learning. The role of other people in the social context in furthering children's understanding is crucial, as they mediate the world for them, and have the ability to promote learning within the zone of proximal development (ZPD). Vygotsky (1978, p.86) defines ZPD as:

“...the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers”

In fact, as Cameron (2001) points out, Vygotsky redefined the meaning of intelligence to account for ZPD, claiming that intelligence should be considered in terms of what a child can develop with assistance. Hence according to Vygotsky, adult interaction can assist a child in the development of skills but also development in thinking, using language as the main artefact to further that understanding. The child initially relies on that help, but with time that reliance on others decreases and independent action and thinking develops. This move away from the adult scaffold - through language and talking aloud - to independent internal thinking, is referred to as 'internalisation'. Internalisation is “...a concept that explained how individuals developed their own consciousness” happening at two levels, *i.e.* first at 'interpsychological' between people and then 'intrapsychological' inside the child (Vygotsky, 1978). As Lantolf (2001, p.14) explains, initially the activity is mediated by others, but in the end “...we come to organise and regulate our own mental and physical activity through the appropriation of the regulatory means employed by others”. Hence Vygotsky emphasized the role of social interaction, which facilitates learning, as well as the assistance of more competent individuals, in a child's development. Observation methods adopted in this research will allow for identification of that.

Finally, the sociocultural concept of genetic analysis places the importance of the history or origins in trying to understand "...aspects of mental functioning" (Warschauer, 2005, p.3). Lantolf (2001) links this to the idea that cultural artefacts are inherited and passed on from generation to generation. As Moll (1992, p.113) explains, "...the major route to understanding mind is to specify the origins and genetic transformations it has undergone..." - failing to acknowledge this creates "...the risk of being misled by the appearance of 'fossilised behaviours'". Warschauer (2005, p.3) suggests that applying this idea to CALL means that "...we can only understand CALL when we place it in its broader historical, social, and cultural contexts".

While Vygotsky was concerned with child language development as a "...fluent user of a sign system" (Wertsch, 2007, p.186), applying the theories that were developed on children to an 'adult' concept (such as normalisation) would be a flaw (Bax, 2011). Hence Bax (2011) refers to neo-Vygotskian perspectives. This means drawing "...on certain of Vygotsky's ideas and ways of understanding central psychological processes..." as opposed to translating "...all of his psychology uncritically into this different area of social practice" (Bax, 2011, p.5). Similar ways of applying Vygotsky's theories outside of his area of practice are reported as common by Mitchell *et al.* (2013). While there is criticism of the neo-Vygotskian perspective, Mercer and Fisher (1997, p.15 quoted in Bax, p.6) conclude that "...it represents the only available theoretical perspective which is potentially capable of handling teaching and learning as culturally based, 'situated' activity," and a lens through which processes that lead to normalisation, and embedded within it the characteristics of effective learning, can be discovered.

Bax (2011), drawing on Vygotsky's sociocultural theory defines learning as a social, communicative, culturally-based process, facilitated through assistance. Hence in helping adults master technology integration, and through that achieving normalisation, access and participation in knowledge building is important, but insufficient on its own. Bax (2011) describes the role of an expert,

who can offer scaffolding, modelling and can challenge ideas, as a crucial and necessary route through which normalisation can be achieved.

Bax's (2011, p.5) application of sociocultural theory as a theoretical framework to normalisation is a new idea, since the Vygotskian (or neo-Vygotskian) perspective "...has not been applied in any detail to the pressing question of how or why certain technologies achieve normalisation or fail to do so in language educational contexts". The theory, however, has been widely used in CALL research in relation to: Computer Mediated Communication and the concept of mediation by Warschauer (2000, 2002); to examine the role of the computer in the classroom considered in social context by Murray (1995) and Wegerif and Scrimshaw (1997); or to examine teacher practice by Motteram (2014).

I see one's actions as influenced by society and the cultural history of the community one belongs to. This is linked to my philosophical position outlined in 3.1. Therefore, similarly to Bax (2003a, 2011) and Bijker (1997) I see normalisation of CALL not as dependent on the tool itself or the teacher, but influenced by a variety of wider factors aligning the present research with sociocultural theory. As Warschauer (2004, p.10) points out, sociocultural theory "...refers to a fairly broad array of related perspectives". While Bax (2011) adopted a neo-Vygotskian perspective, explaining how one can be guided to achieve normalisation, the present thesis aims to achieve a similar result through understanding normalisation in the new context of primary CALL, and identifying factors which impede (and contribute to) it. Hence Activity Theory (AT), and its depiction of an activity system and focus on tensions, is an attractive lens through which normalisation can be examined. However, Bax's (2011) references to the concept of mediation, and its relationship to the importance of the expert in moving toward normalisation, are not rejected here and are referred to in Chapter 6 in practical implications from the collected and analysed data. However, the nature of the present research demands an application of a different angle of sociocultural theory; AT itself and its relevance for the present study are elaborated on below.

2.1.6.1 Activity theory

As indicated in 2.6, while sociocultural theory in general links to my ontological position and creates the background to understanding normalisation, AT in particular serves as the sociocultural ‘idea’ applied in the present study as a theoretical lens. This is following a growing body of research that uses AT to understand technology adoption, for example Barab *et al.* (2002), Lim and Hung (2003), Basharina (2007), Motteram (2008), Yamagata-Lynch (2008), Hu and Webb (2009) and Field (2012).

Yamagata-Lynch (2010, p.16) explains that Vygotsky’s understanding of AT focused on the relationship between individuals and goals, mediated through cultural artefacts, as represented by “...the basic mediated action triangle” (Figure 2.2). The triangle consists of three components: the subject, representing an individual; the object as the goal of the activity; and the mediating artefact, represented by tools (be it be it physical or cultural (Mitchell *et al.*, 2013)), signs and symbols (Motteram, 2008) or “...prior knowledge” (Yamagata-Lynch, 2010, p. 16).

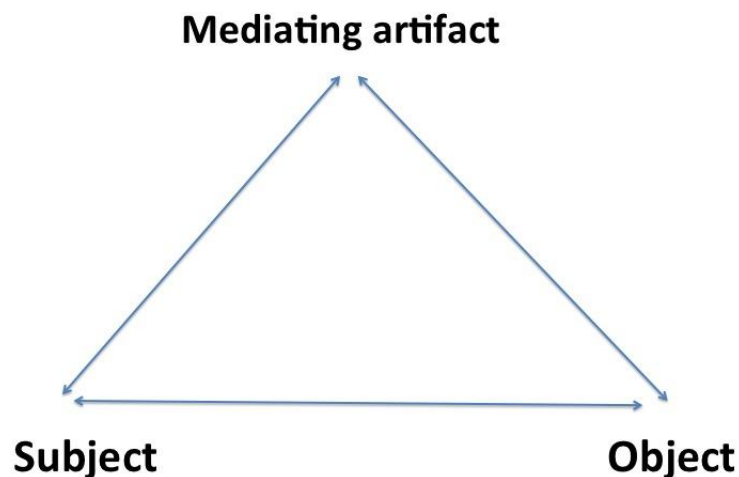


Figure 2.2 Vygotsky’s representation of Activity Theory.

Yamagata-Lynch (2010, p.18) explains that Vygotsky’s representation of the relationships between the subject, the tool, and achievement of the object

(portrayed in Figure 2.2) focuses on the individual experience so it “...did not adequately address cultural evolutions”. Leont’ev as well as Engeström (1999, 2001) moved the focus away from the mediating artifact and the individual, toward the individual embedded within the collective. They therefore developed Vygotsky’s concept further by situating the activity within the broader sociocultural context, addressing the call for an approach “...that can dialectally link the individual and the social structure” (Engeström, 1999, p.19) (Figure 2.3). Engeström’s (1999) AT therefore addresses two levels, *i.e.* within the activity, and what transpires around it, incorporating broader sociocultural rules on which the activity depends and into which it is embedded.

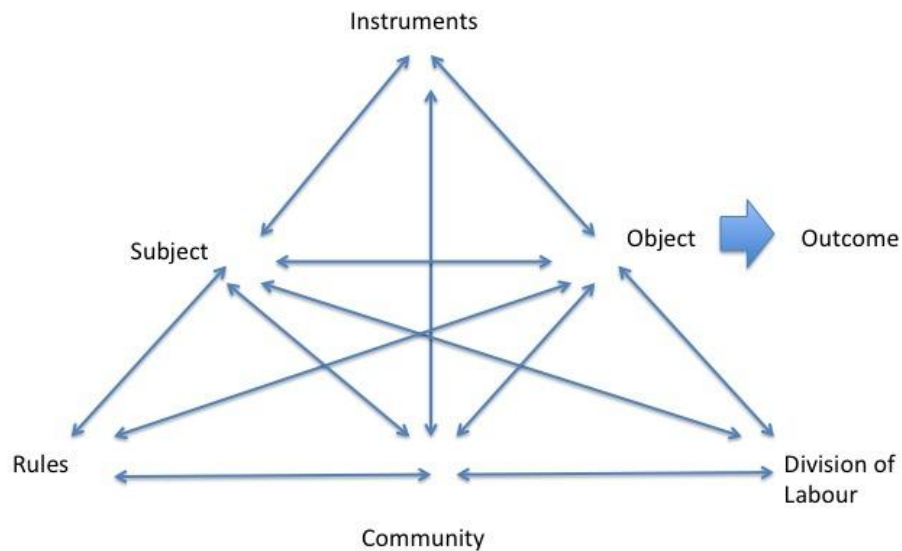


Figure 2.3 Activity system as represented by Engeström (1999).

As presented in Figure 2.3, Engeström’s interpretation embeds Vygotsky’s basic ‘person-focused’ triangle, adding to it the ‘social basis’ of the activity system. The social basis comprises of ‘rules’, ‘community’ and ‘division of labour’. Engeström (1999) defines the ‘community’ as the wider group of individuals involved in or influencing the activity. The ‘division of labour’ refers to the distribution of tasks in the activity. Finally, ‘rules’ refers to explicit regulations

and values and norms that affect how the tools are used. Engeström's (1999) "...model thus shows how individual actions and goals are interconnected with those of the sociocultural context" (Mitchell *et al.*, 2013, p.227).

2.1.6.2 Applying AT as a theoretical lens for the present study

According to Mwanza and Engeström (2005) AT is useful when trying to explain: the nature of activities; the methods and tools used for the achievement of the object; and the reasons for subject-object interactions. While the usefulness of the theory for those applications is not negated here, I want to extend this list to include normalisation and factors that influence it in the primary MFL context. The aim of the present work is to understand the concept of normalisation in primary MFL. It therefore looks at the relationships between the 'subject' and the 'object,' mediated by the 'tool' and situated within the broader context of the school, including the history and culture in which the school is situated. As indicated in Figure 1.1 (p.2), primary MFL, and by extension the normalisation of primary CALL, is influenced by other fields, *i.e.* MFL, TEL and general CALL. The aim of the thesis is to identify factors which contribute to normalisation and impede it. Therefore AT in particular, and its focus on contradictions and tensions, is of interest as it situates the discussion within a framework that allows one to identify where tensions emerge, which the research seeks to identify. Those tensions also serve as a basis for the creation of the model for supporting and assessing primary CALL, as discussed throughout Chapter 5.

Engeström (2009, p.147) refers to contradictions as "...historically accumulating structural tensions within and between the elements in an activity system". On the one hand, Engeström (2001) explains those tensions are an indication of, and can result in, change. On the other, they create obstacles and resistance to change. Murphy and Rodriguez-Manzanares (2008) refer to a number of studies that embrace the principle of contradictions and tensions in researching the role of educational technology, either as a force for development or an obstacle to it, indicating at the same time that this angle of AT is not prevalent. The study closest in spirit to mine is Hu and Webb's (2009) identification of factors

obstructing pedagogical change toward student centred teaching with technology. While the study was not conducted within the area of CALL, the principle of contradiction is applied in this thesis in a similar vein, looking at the source of obstacles toward the achievement of the ‘object’.

Table 2.4 below outlines how AT was applied to my study. The ‘subjects’ are teachers and students, including their attitudes and skills, who want to achieve the ‘object’ of normalised CALL. While the concept of ‘normalisation’ or ‘CALL’ might not be known to the subject in the form it is described in this thesis, its association with effective teaching of languages with technology would be, and was, understood (3.5.2 and Chapter 4). The ‘tools’ that are primarily being referred to are technological tools such as IWBs, PCs, cameras *etc.*, however, the nature of the researched context also puts language skills and pedagogy in that category. The ‘community’ refers to the wider school community, such as the headteacher and the parents, but also the wider community within which the school is situated, such as the government, the Local Authority (LA) or the secondary school. The ‘community’ establishes the ‘rules,’ the latter referring to the school rules, as well as the general principles that guide primary schools, as expressed in the *National Curriculum* or *KS2 Framework for Languages*, and the broader outlook on effective teaching of ELL and TEL as reported on in the literature informing classroom practice. The ‘division of labour’ refers to the teaching, learning and management responsibilities of different participants in the school, hence heavily focuses on the differences between specialists and non-specialists as defined by Sharpe (1999) and discussed in 2.3.3.

Component of the system	Application to the research context
Subject	Pupils and teachers (specialist and non specialist) and their attributes, <i>i.e.</i> their attitudes, training, knowledge and skills, pedagogical preferences
Object/ outcome	To effectively teach and engage in primary languages (using technology) - normalisation CALL (normalised CALL pedagogy)/ educate higher number of fluent speakers
Tools	ICT tools – IWB, PC, cameras, visualisers, CD-ROMS, Internet, software Non-ICT tools – mini whiteboard, board, flashcards, pedagogy, language (MFL)
Rules	School rules and arrangements, arrangements between the teachers, teaching philosophy adopted by the school, beliefs about effective teaching and provision arrangements, policies, funding arrangements, National Curriculum, KS2 Framework for Languages, staff training arrangements
Community	School management, parents, administration, secondary school(s), LA, the wider society, the government
Division of Labour	Teachers: Specialist – prepare and deliver MFL lessons, assess, advice on resources; non-specialist teachers – offer support, continue the session, revise MFL lessons; mainly prepare, plan and teach other subjects Students – participate in activities Management – participate in establishing local rules

Table 2.4 Application of Engetsröm’s (1999) Activity Theory to the present study

Hence using the AT terminology, the aim of the study is to understand the concept of normalisation and examine the tensions within the activity system that impede the achievement of the ‘object’. Since Bax (2003a, 2011) aligns normalisation with effective teaching, in order to identify factors which impede the ‘object’ in the primary context, effective CALL applications with young learners need to be specified. This, along with outlining the characteristics of the primary context, is discussed in the remaining sections in relation to TEL pedagogy and Early Language Learning (ELL), covering the areas influencing primary CALL presented in Figure 1.1 (p.2) in Chapter 1.

2.2 Technology Enhanced Learning (TEL) and Pedagogy

As was presented in Figure 1.1 (p.2), normalisation of primary CALL is influenced by three areas – CALL, primary MFL (and ELL) and TEL pedagogy.

The first section of the literature review outlined the sources that related to the broader field of CALL from which normalisation, central to this thesis, originates. Section 2.2 discusses the literature related to TEL (technology integration in primary school) and TEL pedagogy, and serves two purposes: it provides insight from the literature to better understand the context/ activity system under investigation in relation to the ICT aspects of CALL, and contributes to defining the ‘object’ by clarifying what effective TEL practice entails.

2.2.1 Technology adoption and change

As John and Wheeler (2008) point out, technological innovation brings about levels of uncertainty, in relation to technology itself, its applications and the pace of change in general. Cox *et al.* (1999b) and Gomes (2005) indicate that resistance to change is a major obstacle to adoption of an innovation. Buckingham (2007) points out that this resistance can be fuelled by the way that decisions are made in relation to the introduction of a curricular or pedagogical innovation. Educational change is mandated from the stakeholders, who have limited regular contact with classroom practice. Hence there can be lack of understanding on the part of decision makers on how complex the change process in a school is, and how much time and support is needed to successfully implement it. This results in scepticism toward top down decisions made by ‘non teachers’ without any consultation with the professionals who are affected by and responsible for progress.

Maftoon and Shahini (2012, p.29) claim that “...normalisation is a state of educational change...” hence the theories of educational change and processes that accompany it are relevant. Adoption, and in the present case technology adoption (followed by implementation and institutionalisation), is the first stage in implementing change (Fullan, 2005). It is important therefore to consider how this implementation takes place.

Studies that look into technology adoption in society report on similar categories of adopters: see for example John and Wheeler (2008) and Rogers (2003). The

classification from both sources presents similar characteristics of each group; however, since diffusion of innovations is directly linked to normalisation through Bax's (2003) alignment of the theory with the concept of normalisation, the discussion is centred around Rogers' (2003) classification.

Rogers (2003) distinguishes five categories of adopters. The first is that of 'innovators,' who see the pedagogical potential and welcome the challenge of mastering the complexity of new technology. They additionally have financial security to take the risks associated with technological change. 'Early adopters', like 'innovators' have the financial means to invest and are the decision makers in society but are more cautious in relation to the decision making process about innovation adoption. The 'Early majority' group is a big proportion of the population, usually not in a decision-making leadership position, that after a certain amount of time adopts an innovation. They are followed by the 'late majority' whose inability to engage earlier is linked to scepticism about the usefulness of technology tied to their preference for traditional pedagogy, but also lack of financial means to support the innovation at the early stage. The last group, 'laggards', tend to exhibit aversion to newness, or as John and Wheeler (2008) state, actively seek opportunities to undermine the value of an innovation.

Rogers' (2003) discussion gives a broad overview of innovation adoption and change within the society, however, lacks aspects that are specific for the context of teaching, or teaching languages, and the discussion of normalisation that takes places within the boundaries of those fields. Hence drawing on Rogers (2003), Bax (2003a) developed stages of progression toward normalisation, illustrated in Figure 2.4.

Fallacy' (Bax, 2003a). In the stage of 'normalising,' technology is gradually starting to be seen as part of teachers' regular practice, which finally leads to normalisation, and technology being fully embedded into teachers' repertoires as defined in 2.1.3.

While drawing on the research pertaining to technology acceptance in the society (represented by diffusion of innovations theory (Rogers, 2003)) is of interest to the present work, it is also important to explore the 'person-centred' factors that drive teachers' individual decisions to integrate or reject technology. Those are therefore linked to Vygotsky's basic triangle in AT (Vygotsky, 1987). Davis' (1993) Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) offers that insight, and describes the factors that affect technology adoption by individual users (Figure 2.5).

In his model, Davis (1993) defines those factors, influenced by external variables outside of teachers' control, as: 'perceived usefulness' (PU) - "...the degree to which an individual believes that using a particular system would enhance his or her job performance" (Davis, 1993, p.477); and 'perceived ease of use' (PEOU) - "...the degree to which an individual believes that using a particular system would be free of physical and mental effort" (Davis, 1993, p.477). PEOU is important since it influences attitudes, and PU, on both personal and professional levels, and determines the scale of adoption of an innovation. Cuban (1986, cited in Buckingham, 2007) suggests that the issues and inconvenience that access to new technologies causes, combined with the difficulty of use, pushes teachers towards older technologies, such as textbooks and blackboards, as more suitable tools to deal with the problematic nature of school and classroom life; teachers "...are likely to resist changes that they perceive as irrelevant, burdensome or undermining of their position" (Cuban 1985, quoted in Buckingham, 2007, p.51). Technology integration might be perceived as all of those since the development of competency may be a burden, and a lack of it can undermine the teachers' authoritative position of an expert.

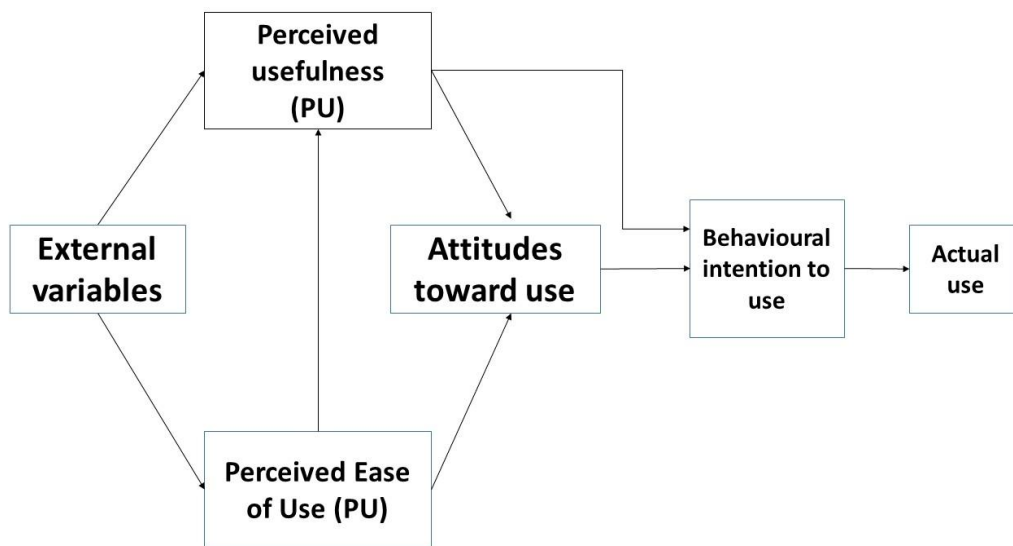


Figure 2.5 Technology Acceptance Model (adapted from Davis, 1993)

The references to those particular components of TAM (Davis, 1993) are made due to their possible impact on normalisation. PU and PEOU are explicitly referred to by Maftoon and Shahini (2012) as important factors for normalisation and are thought, in the present thesis, to shape teachers’ attitudes (considered as the attributes of the ‘subjects’). Attitudes on the other hand, as presented in Chapter 6, have the potential to inhibit or facilitate change.

2.2.2 Technology in primary schools – the investment and the curriculum

John and Wheeler (2008, p.8) suggest that “the marriage between education and technology”, triggered by the need to educate a technologically literate workforce to increase market competitiveness, has been a UK government priority since the 1980s, when the first promise of a computer for every school was articulated. This link between computers and the working world is an interesting one, since as Simpson and Toyn (2012) point out, initial funding for technology was not provided by DES, but by Department for Trade and Industry, emphasising therefore the distinction between the world of work, to which computers belong, and their educational purpose linked to employability. This resulted in a focus on developing computer skills, and only later, along with the development of Papert’s LOGO software, refocusing thinking on considering

computers in terms of ‘learning machines’ (Simpson and Toyn, 2012), which was also reflected in CALL (Warschauer and Healey, 1998; Bax, 2003a). Simpson and Toyn (2012) claim that this change of thinking about technology use resulted in a greater need for the presence of ICT in education, and had consequences for allocation of further funding.

The intention to increase IT resources was expressed by Tony Blair, the Prime Minister at the time, who initiated the ‘Internet in every school’ campaign (John and Wheeler, 2008). The widespread use of technology in education had been the priority for the new Labour government in 1997. This was done as a response to studies, such as the ones by Wegerif and Scrimshaw (1997) and McKinsey and Company (1997), which linked technology use to improvement in educational outcomes. Those attitudes and initiatives led to the creation of the National Grid for Learning, whose funding allowed for greater ICT provision and gave schools more freedom with decision making on resource allocation (Simpson and Toyn, 2012). This led to an increased number of PCs in schools and the creation of computer suites with Internet connections.

Following the wide availability of Internet access, the type of technology that has been adopted on a large scale is the Interactive Whiteboard (IWB). Arnott (2004) claims that this investment was triggered by the promise of a revolution; however, as Buckingham (2007, p.68) points out:

“A great deal of the research on educational technology has been driven by the overriding optimism of the enthusiasts. Much of the evidence has been anecdotal: there have been few large scale studies or rigorously controlled comparisons, no longitudinal research, and little sustained observation of learning in computerised classrooms.”

There have been studies to support the link between IWB use and attainment, for example Cox’s *et al.* (2003a) review for BECTA, Somekh’s *et al.* (2007) research on IWB, or Balanskat’s *et al.* (2006) cross European study pointing toward IWBs positive impact on primary English provision. However, the majority of studies on IWB indicate no improvement (Glover *et al.*, 2005; Smith

et al., 2005; Martin, 2007), even in technologically confident schools (Higgins *et al.*, 2007). Other researchers such as Goodison (2002) suggest that the link between ICT and attainment is weak and, as Higgins (2003) and Stephen and Plowman (2003) indicate, possible only if changes in pedagogy accompany technology integration. Moving away from considering technology effectiveness in terms of the cognitive domain, Digregorio and Sobel-Lojeski (2010) draw attention to affective domains such as motivation, mentioned as a positive outcome of IWB integration by Weimer (2001), Levy (2002), Beeland (2002), and Miller and Glover (2002). However, a common worry expressed by Miller and Glover (2002), Levy (2002), and Harrison *et al.* (2003), is that this might be associated with the ‘wow’ effect that accompanies the introduction of new technology, and motivation might not be sustained once the novelty wears off, especially in cases in which no pedagogical change promoting interactivity accompanies the integration (Higgins *et al.*, 2007). This worry is echoed by Bax (2003a), and embedded into his understanding of normalisation as discussed in 2.1.3.

However, despite the minimal evidence available further investment was approved. Investment increased from twenty six percent of British primary schools being in possession of an IWB in 2003 to hundred percent in 2007 (Becta, 2007). Those statistics are supported by further research, which puts the UK at the forefront of Interactive Display penetration, with eighty five percent of classrooms equipped with an IWB, and a prognosis to increase that number to ninety four percent by 2016 (Whyte *et al.*, 2014). Smith *et al.* (2005) argue that investment on such a scale is bound to have an impact on teaching and learning environments in the UK as it eliminates the issue of accessibility and allows for regular integration. Accessibility is embedded into the definition of normalisation as discussed in 2.1.3, hence it is treated as an important factor that contributes to the achievement of normalisation. The statistics outlined in this paragraph influenced the focus of the discussion of the literature review, and the focus of the observations and the data analysis, as the IWB is the most widely used technology for MFL.

The importance placed on technology is not only visible in funding, but also through curricular changes. ICT has been occupying an important place in the curriculum since 1999, when the importance of the development of ICT capability was expressed in the *National Curriculum's Programme of Study* (DfES, 1999). Barber and Cooper (2012, p.46) define capabilities as a combination of "...skills and routines that allow children to solve a problem or carry out a task..." which "...requires more rigour, understanding and application of knowledge and should be the desired sort of learning carried out during ICT lessons". Good practice with ICT was demonstrated by application of those skills to other curriculum subjects (Barber and Cooper, 2012); hence the nature of ICT as a subject was and is cross-curricular. In 2013 there was a shift in thinking about ICT, mirrored in the change of name from ICT to Computing. The rationale for the change was as follows:

"ICT as a subject name carries strong negative connotations of a dated and unchallenging curriculum that does not serve the needs and ambitions of pupils. Changing the subject name of ICT to computing will not only improve the status of the subject but also more accurately reflect the breadth of content included in the new draft programmes of study."

(DfE, 2013c, online)

Therefore following the demands of the market, and the needs of the generation born into the digital world referred to by Prensky (2001) as digital natives, the New Curriculum extends the breadth of study of the subject, placing greater importance on digital literacy, including the use of IT "...to create programs, systems and a range of media" (DfE, 2013a, p.188). The support for cross-curricular use of technology to support pedagogy remains unchanged (DfE, 2013a).

2.2.3 Children, teachers and technology

Applying the concept of normalisation, researched predominantly within the adult EFL field, to the context of primary CALL means dealing with a different

type of learner, one with greater exposure to technology than adults. In most families children are born into, and grow up in, a digitally dominated world. Hence Prensky (2001) and Tapscott and Williams (2007) notice a generational shift that began along with the popularisation of the Internet. Prensky (2005, p.8) claims that contrary to previous generations, ‘digital natives’ or ‘New Millennium Learners’ (OECD, 2008), are “...fluent in the digital language of computers, video games and the Internet”. As a result of the exposure to and interaction with technology and the media, ‘digital natives’ acquire different skills but also learn differently, develop different critical thinking skills, are able to multitask, and have the capability of rapid information processing (Downes, 2005; Jenkins *et al.*, 2006). As Selwyn *et al.* (2010) indicate, those learners expect school life to reflect their technology rich environments. This presents the world of education with a challenge since schools “...are faced with the priority of keeping up with these children and providing schooling that fits with their high tech lives” (Selwyn *et al.*, 2010, p.10).

This also puts teachers who were born in a different decade in a difficult situation of ‘digital immigrants’ (Prensky, 2001). Henry (2014, p.2) summarises the problem as follows:

“While digital immigrants may learn and use new technologies they tend to retain their ‘accent’. The problem for education is (...) that teachers are trying to teach digital natives in an outdated language”.

As Henry (2014, p.2) points out “...good pedagogy builds from what children already know and understand”. However, as Hall and Higgins (2005) indicate, what students experience in relation to technology at home differs significantly to what they experience at school, *i.e.* teacher-directed school access versus the independence, flexibility and autonomy that they receive at home, and crave in the classroom.

Prensky (2001) suggests that it is a common belief that pupils possess greater confidence with technology than teachers, however, this has been questioned

because of his assumption that every child has access to technologies outside of the classroom. As Warschauer (2004) points out, issues of the digital divide still pertain. Nevertheless this common assumption of the superiority of children's technical skills contributes to the overestimation of what the teachers think the children are capable of with technology, and their lack of confidence about the level that their own skills are at in comparison. This contrast, according to John and Sutherland (2005), leads to teachers' unfounded perceived lack of competence, and as a result a disrupted balance of power. As Hall and Higgins (2005) explain, this can translate into teachers' remaining in their comfort zones using the tools that put them in the position of an authority.

2.2.4 Pedagogical applications of technology

“I believe that the motion picture is destined to revolutionise our educational system, and that in a few years it will supplant largely, if not entirely, the use of textbooks...The education of the future will be conducted through medium of the motion picture, a visualised education, where it should be possible to obtain one hundred percent efficacy.”

Thomas Edison, 1922 (quoted in Buckingham, 2013, online)

The rhetoric of a revolutionary nature of an innovation is not new to the general world of TEL or to CALL. Edison's quotation relates to motion pictures; Buckingham (2007) points out that similar claims were made in relation to radio, television and finally to 'teaching machines' (computers). While technology has revolutionised our everyday lives, it is arguable that the same cannot be said of the world of education and pedagogical practice using technology. The initial excitement that technology brings, and the promise of its pedagogical wonders, is crushed by the hard realisation that many years after the initial technological introduction, not much has changed pedagogically.

There are numerous references in the literature to effective technology integration, for example Moersch (1995), Jenkins *et al.* (2006), and Beauchamp and Kennewell (2010), tackling the issue at theoretical and practical level. However, I find Puentedura's (2014) 'Substitution', 'Augmentation',

‘Modification’, ‘Redefinition’ (SAMR) model useful in determining what effective practice entails, as it relates to a variety of technologies and reflects the most recent thinking about technology integration.

The SAMR model (Figure 2.6) attempts to classify stages in teachers’ technology use. Progression from one level to the next is characterised by changes in pedagogy - a shift from teacher centred to student centred instruction based on authentic hands-on tasks, supported by technology. The first stage ‘Substitution,’ according to Lewin *et al.* (2008) characteristic of teachers who have only just begun working with technology, refers to the use of technology to perform the same task in the same way as before the introduction of that technology. This results in no functional change and no real gain from technology, and teacher-led instruction. ‘Augmentation’ is also a direct substitute, but with slight functional change; the task itself is not redesigned, however, there is slight enhancement. A characteristic of both ‘Substitution’ and ‘Augmentation’ levels is a very limited shift in pedagogical terms. Technology is used with limitations; it does enhance learning to some extent, however, its full potential is not explored. This changes both at the ‘Modification’ and ‘Redefinition’ levels, where transformation happens. ‘Modification’ involves using the technology to redesign the task as opposed to using the technology to do the same task, as observed in the two previous cases. And finally ‘Redefinition’ involves technology use for a completely new task that could not be completed without the technology.

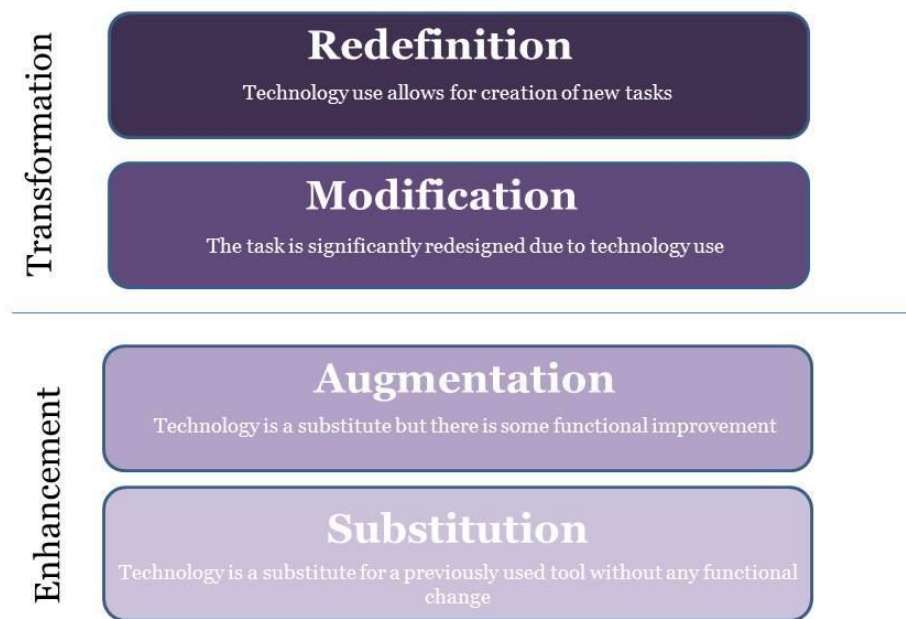


Figure 2.6 SAMR model adapted from Puentedura (2014).

Puentedura (2014) associates redefinition of the task with effective utilisation of technology. This echoes Bax’s (2000, p.212) references to the aspect of ‘added value’ and the technology’s ability to “...contribute something different from non-ICT approaches”. Following those ideas, I associate normalisation and effective teaching in this thesis with the stage of ‘redefinition.’ This is reflected to some extent in the literature that reports on good practice with TEL and CALL - such sources as Becta (2007), Dale (2013), Pim (2013) or Pazio (2014) refer to the application of Web 2.0 tools for content creation and online collaboration. According to Puentedura’s (2014) the application of Web 2.0 technologies is associated with ‘redefined’ technology use.

Barber and Cooper (2012, p.40) point out that the emergence of Web 2.0 tools, and their potential to facilitate socially constructed meaning, shifted the thinking about technology and education “...from a world in which the children are fed information to the one in which they fish for themselves”. Education Web 2.0 therefore goes beyond the teacher-centred approach and encourages

collaboration and communication between peers, and changes the way the role of the pupil is perceived. This is also true in primary education. The *Rose Review* (Rose, 2009, p.9) highlighted a valid aspect of children "...learning independently and co-operatively...", emphasizing the importance of giving greater autonomy to learners. Beauchamp (2012, p.2) describes this approach to education as "...not something that is done to children but something that is done with them as active partners who are able to influence the course of a lesson". This responsibility placed on the children aligns with the sociocultural perspective and the perception of technology as a tool through which meaning is mediated (2.4.1). Beauchamp (2012) reiterates that the idea of learning being socially constructed places emphasis on the importance of everyone in the classroom being involved in knowledge construction using ICT, not just teachers but also pupils as being a part of classroom ecology. This marks the move toward Education 3.0 (Keats and Schmidt, 2007) noticed in HE, where the emphasis is on contextually reinvented social learning (Moravec, 2008) based on co-constructivism - teaching roles are not restricted to the teacher but teaching is done on an assumption that one can learn from anybody. Hence as Lewin *et al.* (2008) advocate, the currently well-defined roles of the teachers and students need to blend; there needs to be cooperation and greater incorporation of student ideas.

Education 3.0 emerges as a result of changes to technology integration in students' personal lives. As Pim (2013, p.20) notices, "...children, and young people are now becoming increasingly interested in the concept of content curation – selecting, sifting, showcasing and sharing content with friends, family and peers". Allowing learners to co-design and produce is, therefore, becoming more and more important, not just in HE as indicated by Jenkins *et al.* (2006) and Neary and Winn (2009), but also as early as primary school. As Henry (2014, p.7) points out, content creation is "...an integral part of helping them [children] to learn in a Digital Age". Ramirez (2010) explains that the shift from consumption to production allows the children to express their own voice, creates the need for deeper thinking and results in children putting more effort in

the publicly accessible work. Hence as indicated above, the SAMR model (Puntedura, 2014) and the stage of ‘redefinition’ - which transforms the task to allow for content creation and engagement, with and through technology applied to primary MFL - is linked in this thesis to normalisation.

2.2.4.1 Technology, interactivity and interaction

As Beauchamp (2011, 2012) points out, the value of technology lies in interactivity and interaction and is linked to the description of transformation stages in the SAMR model, discussed in 2.2.6. However, that potential is only realised if technology use is embedded within interactive teaching.

While there might be support for interactive teaching, Hargreaves *et al.* (2003) point out that what it actually means remains unexplained in policy documents and the literature. As Hargreaves *et al.* (2003, p.174) explain:

“Interactive teaching is...a complex pedagogical form and there is no clear conception of what constitutes interactive teaching in primary schools. It is interpreted and practised differently, often intuitively in several guises by individual teachers.”

Burns and Myhill (2004) characterise interactive lessons as creating opportunities for collaboration, encouraging collective thinking, encouraging participation and developing autonomous students. It is thought that those features contribute to moving towards more meaningful interactions, dialogic teaching, a deep approach to learning and socio-constructivist thinking about education; technology is used as a tool to support that. In terms of language education, this is realised through Communicative Language teaching (CLT) and discussed in 2.3.6.

Hargreaves *et al.* (2003) understand interactivity in terms of surface and deep forms: the former refers to using games or activities that engage learning at a surface level, the latter refers to using the tool to deepen students’ thinking (Hargreaves *et al.*, 2003). Hence Hargreaves *et al.* (2003) distinguishes between the use of technology for technology’s sake, as an ‘attention grabbing’ gimmick, and an essential tool for engagement and development of thinking. Similarly,

Aldrich *et al.* (1998) refer to a reactive and proactive model of interactivity – the former refers to learning through drill, and the latter refers to learning through active construction of knowledge, hence moving closer to the socio-constructivist nature of interactive teaching realised in Bax's (2003a) 'integrative CALL.' Smith *et al.* (2005) also make a distinction between physical (the equipment and the space) and pedagogic interactivity (the tool, the teacher and the students and learning), which is translated by Mercer *et al.* (2010, p.197) as the difference between "...what a piece of technology can do, and what it can be used to achieve educationally".

Whyte *et al.* (2014) claim that interaction should follow from interactivity. As Beauchamp (2011) points out, children in primary school have the ability to interact in several ways. Those include interacting with resources (physical dialogic interaction), with setting (located interaction), with other participants in the educational environment such as peers, teachers and support staff (community interaction), and finally with ICT (technology-mediated interaction) - with an additional category of interaction through ICT taken from John and Wheeler (2008). None of those categories has to be used exclusively and, more often than not, there are different types of interaction involved in a lesson. Mercer *et al.* (2010) argue that the physical dialogic interaction of learners with resources, in the context of discussion of interactive teaching, refers to such use of resources that encourage dialogue and thinking. Located interaction emphasises the importance of the space and the effect it has on learning and interaction. As Beauchamp (2011, p.182) points out:

"...some classrooms provide small discrete areas for discussion in groups, others provide large open spaces with easy access for pupils (and teachers) to move around and interact or hold whole-class discussions, whilst others still (such as an L-shaped classroom) make interactions more much more challenging. This architecture-shaped discourse is a factor that teachers need to consider when planning lessons, but is not always a negative feature."

When speaking of technology, interactivity and interaction, the IWB can be central to the discussion as, by the virtue of its name, it is also the technology

type that was meant to support interactive teaching. As Smith *et al.* (2005, p.99) point out:

“The uniqueness and the ‘boon’ of IWB technology lies in the possibility for an intersection between technical and pedagogic interactivity; in other words, in the opportunities this technology holds for collective meaning making”.

However, as Miller *et al.* (2004) suggest, for the IWB, or in fact any technology to have an impact, interactive technologies need to be embedded into interactive pedagogies. As in the case of any other technology it is the teacher that is crucial to student’s learning; technology is a ‘mediating artefact’ (Engeström, 2001) and a facilitator of a variety of interaction.

Beauchamp and Kenewell (2010) provide a framework (Figure 2.7, p.57) that can serve as a point of reference when discussing the progress toward interactive teaching and better orchestration of interaction in the classroom. Similarly to Puentedura’s (2014) SAMR (2.2.6), the framework indicates stages of technology implementation, however, specific to IWB use. This focus on IWB is especially useful for this thesis. As was indicated in 2.2.2, England (and the UK) is at the forefront of IWB penetration. Hence IWB is the most common technology present and used in primary school teaching, and as Curtim Schmid (2008) indicates it is the technology that fulfils the condition of availability and easy integration for normalisation to happen. Since normalisation is, in this thesis, associated with effective use, effective use of IWB - as the form most regularly used by teachers - needs to be specified.

Armstrong *et al.* (2005) and Schuck and Kearney (2007) explain there is a general preference for didactic use of IWB since it is a natural translation from what the teachers are already familiar with, *i.e.* a blackboard. This is reflected in Puentedura’s (2014) SAMR in the stage of ‘substitution.’ As Beauchamp (2004), Beauchamp and Kenewell (2010) and Glover *et al.* (2007) point out, this is usually characteristic of new teachers who do not explore the interactive features of the board and do not introduce any changes to their pedagogy. The board is

therefore used to display the content provided by the teacher. The role of the pupil is to watch and absorb the presented information. Sources such as Thompson and Flecknoe (2003), Passey *et al.* (2004) and Smith *et al.* (2005) report that when teachers become more confident with the tool, they start to allow children to have physical interactions with the machine so that there are important elements of doing rather than just listening. The structure of the activity is still provided by the teacher; however, there are small gaps that the students have an opportunity to fill from pre-prepared options. Dialectic teaching is delivered by an ‘initiate’ user, who, having some competence with technology, starts to rethink his/her practice around the IWB. This teaching is characterised by greater student involvement, as the activities are influenced by student ideas. The structure is still provided by the teacher however very little information is given. ‘Dialogic’ teaching with the IWB aims to develop critical understanding of concepts. Finally ‘synergistic interactivity’ allows for application of concepts to a variety of situations, which is achieved through cooperation between the students and the teacher who play equal part in providing the content and leading the pace and direction of the activity.

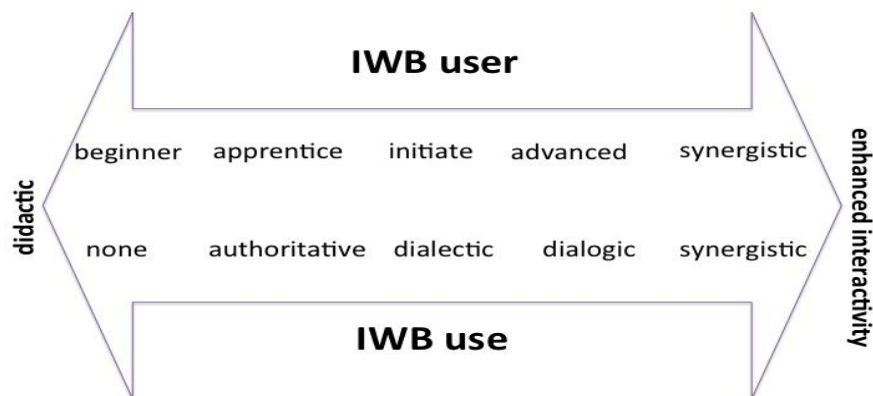


Figure 2.7 IWB and interactivity – the user and IWB use (adapted from Beauchamp, 2004 and Beauchamp and Kennewell, 2010).

Hence normalisation can be associated with synergistic use by synergistic users. The application of Beauchamp and Kennewell's (2010) framework to IWB for primary MFL teaching is discussed separately in 2.4.1 when specifying effective IWB application for CALL.

2.3 Primary MFL and Early Language Learning

This section continues in a similar vein to 2.2, and considers the literature related to MFL serving two purposes: outlining the characteristics of the primary context in England highlighting possible issues that might affect CALL delivery, and specifying characteristics of effective practice with Early Language Learning (ELL) and teaching as a step toward identifying the 'object' of the activity system.

2.3.1 The rationale behind Early Language Learning - The age factor, exposure, continuity and motivation

As indicated in 1.1 and expanded upon in 2.3.2, England has experienced major changes in relation to MFL which led to the inclusion of MFL into the core curriculum in 2014. The reason behind rethinking the status of second languages was the belief that children are better at learning languages than adults (Cook, 2008). However, the relationship between age and the ability to learn a foreign language has always been a source of controversy, and the question still remains unanswered. The theory that there is an optimum biological time for learning, at which language learning should begin, was popularised by Lennenberg. According to Lennenberg's Critical Period Hypothesis (CPH) (1967, cited in Lightbown and Spada, 2013), in the years that precede puberty, the lateralisation of a child's brain is not yet complete and therefore it is particularly adaptable for language acquisition. After that age, language acquisition is a more laborious process and can be less successful. As Brown (2002, p.59) explains:

“...during this time the child is presumably neurologically assigning functions little by little to one side of the brain or the other; included in these functions is of course language. It has been found that children up to the age of puberty who suffer injury to the left hemisphere are able to re-localise

linguistic functions to their right hemisphere, to “relearn” their first language with relatively little impairment.”

There have been different assumptions about when the process of lateralisation is actually completed, which determines the cut off age for language learning. Whereas Lennenberg (*ibid.*) concludes that puberty is the period of completion, Geschwind (1970) suggests an earlier age, with Krashen (1973) quoting research that points to that period being as early as 5 years old (cited in Brown 2002).

Numerous research studies attempted to confirm or refute the hypothesis. The findings were contradictory. Singleton (1989), Johnstone (2003), Tierney and Gallastegi (2005) and Lightbrown and Spada (2013) found younger learners to be outperforming their older peers in speaking, including pronunciation and listening. Hawkins (1987) suggests that older learners, seem to acquire a language at a faster rate as they have better understanding of grammar and metacognitive knowledge. Johnstone (1994), Ramsey and Wright (1974) and Asher and Garcia (1969) add to the list of advantages better developed learning strategies. Cummins (1981, cited in Cook, 2008), and Snow and Hoefnagel–Hoehle (1977) challenged both those claims.

The majority of research confirming CPH takes the neurolinguistic stance. However Brown (1980, cited in Moya, 2014), over three decades ago, offered an alternative explanation, claiming that in immersion contexts, sociocultural factors occurring through acculturation can be included when confirming CPH. Brown (1980, p.158) referring to the ‘optimal distance model’ explains it as the process when:

“...the interaction of language and culture produces a syndrome which gives rise to a certain stage during which language learning achieves an optimal level. At that critical stage, adults and children have an optimal chance to become fluent in the second language.”

This view points toward the need of young learners to use the language to get to know and comprehend the world around them; as Brown (1980) explains, they have a natural need to communicate. Brown (1980), Halliday (2005) and

Lightbown and Spada (2013) point out that this need leads to a more natural and spontaneous production of the language, with a greater degree of experimentation, which results in the development of a repertoire of their own skills. The ‘optimal distance model’, as well as the neurolinguistic research, to a large extent refers to immersion contexts, hence in Krashen’s terms (1988) the contexts of acquisition rather than learning. The exposure to the target language in immersion settings is much greater than in controlled classroom situations where, as Board and Tinsley (2015) report, a session lasts on average 30 minutes. Apart from the *Burstall Report* (Burstall *et al.*, 1974), which pointed toward no difference in language gains between early and late starters, there have not been many studies that attempted to look at classroom contexts (2.3.2).

Inconclusive as the CPH debate is, some researchers attempt to offer a conclusion. Lightbown, (2000) and DeKeyser, (2000) summarise that positive outcomes of an early start to foreign language learning would not be visible in contexts of minimal language input, that is in the context of primary MFL where the exposure is scarce. Lightbown and Spada (2009) also conclude that the end goal of language learning has to be taken into account. If the end goal of learning is achieving native-like fluency, then an early start benefits the learner; however in cases where the goal is achieving communicative proficiency, the benefits of an early start are not evident - this is linked to the aspect of the length of exposure. An early start with languages has the potential to enable continuity of provision in secondary school, contributing to greater language gains as a result of longer contact with MFL teaching. Hence, as Carroll (1975), Vilke (1988), Radnai (1996) indicate, especially in controlled settings, it is in fact the time factor, rather than the age factor, that is one of the most important predictors of ELL and foreign language learning success, and achieving proficiency especially in controlled settings.

As Jones and Coffey (2013, p.7) argue “...the case for early start is not so much age-dependent but rests on a range of other more influential factors”. Motivational and attitudinal advantages are an important aspect of early start that need special attention in the UK context, which as Graddol (2000, 2006),

McLachlan (2009), Coleman (2009) and Ofsted (2011a) suggest, has a long history of societal reluctance - if not resistance - to learning languages, caused by the high status of English in the world. Jones and Coffey (2013) explain that the importance of motivation is reflected in the rationale behind early language learning (ELL), which aims to promote enjoyment and positive attitudes to learning. As Sharpe (2001, p.35) explains:

“...while it may be difficult to show clearly that young children are more efficient learners of foreign languages, it is perhaps less difficult to argue that on the whole they are easier for teachers to motivate....Primary teachers tend to be skilled motivators, and the material they are working with is more plastic than if they were teaching older pupils.”

Sharpe (2001) points out that the motivational aspect is very important for Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) (2.3.6), as skilful teachers are able to teach communication and communicative competence; however, the actual act and extent to which communication takes place, and the learner seeks opportunities for communication, is linked to motivation. This also concerns seeking opportunities outside of classroom to use the target language, which as Johnstone (1994) explains, demands more effort as exposure to popular culture from target language countries is not as rich in comparison to any EFL context. The Internet provides access to the target language and culture; however, the motivation to seek the contact outside of allocated time might be difficult to arouse.

Sharpe (2001) suggests that primary-aged children appear to be easier for teachers to motivate compared with those at secondary school, not only in terms of language education but also in developing positive attitudes toward broader aspects of language learning such as multiculturalism and diversity. Hence primary contact with MFL offers students “...immunisation against later negative attitudes which might emerge after puberty” (Sharpe 2001, p.35). Sharpe (2001) suggests that developing those positive attitudes in secondary school is a more difficult task.

2.3.2 The state of the art of primary languages

Understanding the turbulent history of MFL in England, and the effect that a lack of recognition of the value of MFL has on the current MFL situation, is crucial to understanding primary CALL. Sharpe (2001) indicates that while some provision has been in place, prior to 1960s, languages were mostly excluded from state funded schools or inaccessible to all students. This was due to the fact that the teaching method predominant at that time was the ‘grammar translation method,’ and this type of analytical approach to language learning was more suitable for those learners whom, in Piaget's (1925, quoted in Enever, 2009, p.379) terms, achieved “...an abstract developmental stage”. The idea behind the 1963 investment into pilot scheme *French from Eight* was to look into the effectiveness of early language learning (ELL) in the UK. The aims of the study were to test: the influence of ‘early start’ on pupils’ attainment and long term attitudes; to look into how other variables, such as sex, parents’ views and previous learning experience, affect attitudes and performance; and to investigate the correlation between achievement and attitudes (Burstall *et al.*, 1974).

The evaluation of the scheme published in the *Burstall Report* (1974) concluded that no substantial differences were found in achievement at secondary level between those who were taught French for 3 years in primary school; the only consistent advantage laid in improved listening skills. In relation to attitudes, younger learners were more positive toward language learning, especially if they were successful at it, but there was no correlation with higher attainment.

These results were questioned for example by Gamble and Smalley (1975) and Buckby (1976) on the grounds of sample representativeness, validity, reliability of testing and lack of consideration for what the schools did at the secondary school level. The latter was thought to be the biggest flaw of the project as pointed out by Sharpe (2001). Teachers faced with pupils from different backgrounds had no choice but to treat everyone as beginners. Additionally as Sharpe (2001, p.8) indicates, the evaluation prioritised one criterion –

effectiveness understood in terms of higher attainment and “...omitting other long term advantages related to intrinsic value of the experience for the children”. Flawed as the research was, the *Burstall Report* (1974) was influential in putting an end to funding for primary French.

Although there was no official policy in place, Hurrell and Satchwell (1996) report on several local authorities, *i.e.* Tameside, Kent and East Sussex (where the research took place), who developed schemes for primary languages which were the force driving the revival of early language teaching, not only in England but also in Wales and Northern Ireland. Sharpe (2001, p.12) explains that such organisations as the Association for Language Learning and the National Association of Headteachers became aware of the rising interest and advocated the introduction of primary languages which “...provided rallying points for the onward movement of the grass roots primary MFL bandwagon”. Clearer indication of the intention to reintroduce languages on a larger scale, thus contradicting the results of the *Burstall Report* (1974), came from Tony Blair who signalled in 1999: “Everyone knows that with languages the earlier you start the easier they are” (Sharpe 2001, p.3). In pragmatic terms this announcement of support for languages manifested itself through the creation of the National Advisory Center for Early Language Learning (NACELL). This also resulted in the inclusion of non-statutory guidelines for KS2 MFL in the *National Curriculum*. This revival of interest into languages prompted several research projects by Martin (2000) and Powell *et al.* (2000), which aimed at evaluating the current MFL situation and making recommendations for extending the provision to other schools.

In 2000 a major independent inquiry into the foreign language situation in the UK commenced, known as the *Nuffield Enquiry - Languages: The Next Generation* (Nuffield Foundation, 2000). The resulting publication brought the issue of primary languages to the spotlight, focusing on an objective picture of language provision and the need for improvement:

“The work of the enquiry has highlighted serious mismatch between what the UK needs in languages capability and what the education system is providing...The present system is incoherent, fragmented and increasingly ineffective in meeting national needs.”

(The Nuffield Foundation, 2000, p.62)

Those issues were recognised and echoed in a government review *Languages for All: Languages for Life: A Strategy for England* (DfES, 2002, p.5):

“For too long we have failed to value language skills or recognise the contribution they make to society, to the economy and to raising standards in schools. This has led to a cycle of national under-performance in languages, a shortage of language teachers, low take-up of languages beyond schooling and a workforce unable to meet the demands of a globalised economy.”

What followed was the allocation of government funding for Pathfinder Projects in nineteen Local Authorities (LA). The primary aim of those projects was developing KS2 provision at schools that had no provision in place. The project provided a space for experimentation with different models, as well as informing other institutions as to the most effective methods of delivery. Muijs *et al.* (2005) concluded that best results were achieved when languages were introduced from Year 3 and there was cooperation with secondary schools.

Having recognised this growing enthusiasm for languages, the *National KS2 Framework of reference for languages* (DfE, 2005, p.1) was created, along with an official commitment to:

“...give every child between the ages of 7 and 11 the entitlement to learn a new language. This marks a fundamental shift in our approach to language learning in this country and, by 2010, will transform the shape of language learning in our schools.”

The *Framework* was a collaborative document created by teachers, providing ELL with “...a structure and thus turned it into a project by offering clear guidelines, measurability and accountability in terms of progress and

assessment” (Jones and Coffey, 2013, p.1). As Hood and Tobutt (2007) point out, the KS2 framework did not suggest any content, but rather focused on strands of progression, with oracy, literacy and intercultural understanding (IU) as the main strands (see Table 2.8, p.83). This was supplemented with two cross-cutting strands of knowledge about the language (KAL), and language learning strategies (LLS), and, additionally, linked language learning to *National Literacy Strategy* (DfES, 2006). The discussion of the framework situated within broader discussion of effective practice with ELL and CALL commences in 2.4.

While the entitlement itself was a big step, the *Dearing Report* (Dearing, 2007) suggested languages become compulsory from 2010. The *White Paper* accepted that suggestion with an official statement and starting date for implementation set as of September 2011. This proposed implementation date was not met. Tinsley and Board (2012) suggest that this lack of government’s follow through with initial commitment to statutory MFL resulted in some schools abandoning the provision that was already in place. This, however, was not common practice. What followed was a nationwide consultation about redesigning the *National Curriculum* that also included introduction of primary language education.

As a result of a nationwide survey, the proposal for the *National Curriculum* published in January 2013 confirmed the intention to make languages a compulsory subject. Those changes were meant to be effective from September 2014. As Board and Tinsley (2014) point out, the expectations for pupil achievement were set high, focusing on both spoken and written language, the latter often neglected in the past, which presented teachers with more challenges to overcome.

The discussion of the short ‘history’ of recent language provision resonates with what Sharpe (2001) refers to as a ‘Phoenix rising from the ashes’. Although time has passed from the Nuffield Inquiry to the stage of entitlement and mandatory introduction, with the initial date of 2011 shifted to 2014, the serious steps taken by the government to ensure those changes were in place point to commitment to

long term provision at primary level. However, this shift in thinking about ELL observed since 2000, and which led to the introduction of languages at KS2, paradoxically resulted in making languages optional at KS4, contradicting therefore the assumptions of *Languages for All, Languages for Life strategy* (DfES, 2002). As Thompson (2004) argues, this decision was an outcome of a rapid drop of performance at GCSE level and an attempt to improve the overall results. The status of primary languages is, however, strong. This does not mean that the lack of coherence and fragmented delivery that was reported at the stage of the Nuffield Inquiry is eliminated. While a lot of funding was put into place for the introduction of languages in terms of training and resources, *i.e.* Pathfinders and the launch of Primary Languages Training Zone page, the issues that schools have to face in relation to provision (who teaches languages, which languages, how long for, what mode of delivery) still remain and are outlined below.

2.3.3 MFL provision in primary schools: the who, how, what and why

The discussion of the place of MFL across the decades provided in 2.3.2 shed light onto the possible difficulties with the current delivery. Lack official commitment to primary MFL contributed to the variety of provision in England (Enever, 2009). This variety is reflected in who teaches MFL, what model of provision is adopted, and how many languages are covered *etc* and is discussed throughout this section.

The discussion of the variety commences with the teachers responsible for provision. As Sharpe (2001, p.118) explains:

“It cannot be too strongly argued that good teaching of MFL in the primary school depends on mastery of effective teaching techniques and the establishment of positive teacher-pupil relationships. Crudely it could be said that there are really only two things which are needed to provide sound primary MFL teaching: linguistic knowledge and pedagogic expertise.”

His definition of the main factors that constitute successful provision is an accurate one; however, as Board and Tinsley’s (2015) survey suggests, the type

of teacher he describes is rarely found in primary schools. The primary specialism programmes that started in 2001 in cooperation with the Teacher Training Primary Languages Project, supported by institutions abroad and now the National Centre for Languages, attempted to educate primary generalist teachers with a primary subject specialism. Funding from the Training and Development Agency for Schools for international placements provided an opportunity to increase teachers' pedagogical skills and cultural knowledge. While Griffiths and Driscoll (2010) state that those initiatives helped to increase the number of teachers with MFL specialism, Board and Tinsley (2015) report that those types of teachers are still rare. According to the *Language trends* report (Board and Tinsley, 2015), over seventy one percent of primary class teachers are responsible for language delivery in England.

Sharpe (2001) divides teachers responsible for language provision in the primary school into two categories - specialist and non-specialist (generalist) teachers, differentiating between them in relation to linguistic and pedagogical knowledge. The specialists can be categorised as follows (Sharpe, 1999):

- primary MFL teacher with MFL specialism
- secondary trained specialist working in primary schools
- native speakers
- MFL graduates without teacher training

What characterises a specialist, similar to the government's understanding (DfES, 2002), is strong linguistic skills. This distinction is adopted in the present study and the pilot. Drawing on this, Low *et al.* (1993) explain that the advantages of specialists revolve around better language input, which not only results in a good pronunciation model but also in the ability to correct errors and react to emerging language. Driscoll (1999) indicates that this in turn results in higher expectations about pupils' performance and a faster pace of lesson, with more material covered. However, possessing high and flexible linguistic knowledge, according to Sharpe (1999, 2001), is often accompanied by low, inflexible pedagogic knowledge. For example, the specialists in Driscoll's (1999) research who were brought in just to teach the language were less inclined to teach through games and songs, and focused on the subject matter

more than was observed with the non-specialists. This resulted in moving through the content with greater speed but also in a greater difference in the learning achieved between lower and higher level students. Also Driscoll (1999, p.43) reports that the specialist's status of the outsider "...puts the teacher at a disadvantage as they fail to penetrate the culture in the classroom and gain recognition as a significant member of the group". Martin (2000) found that this results in higher reliance on the class teacher or support staff when it comes to discipline and managing disruptive behaviour.

The situation with generalists is in contrast to this. Sharpe (2001) explains that while generalists have low and inflexible linguistic knowledge, they possess high and flexible pedagogic expertise as a result of their training and professional experience. Martin (2000) and Maynard (2012) found that a lack of linguistic skills translates to: lower expectations; a dependence on resources to provide an appropriate model; the inability to respond to mistakes; content restricted only to the most familiar words; and an overall reluctance to deliver languages. Their pedagogical skills on the other hand, give them better understanding of pupils as individuals, an ability to recognise children's strengths and weaknesses, and contributes to establishing a good rapport (Martin, 2000). As Vilke (1988, quoted in Martin 2000, p.50) points out, this "...contributes to success of individual children". Generalists also have many more opportunities to be flexible when it comes to lesson timings, or to create cross-curricular links. Martin (2000) found that as language learners themselves, they have more empathy towards pupils and focus on developing positive attitudes and giving students greater confidence as language learners.

There is no official government guidance on who should teach languages. As is stated in *Languages for all Language for Life* (DfES, 2002), the schools were advised to employ a wide variety of individuals including native speakers of the taught language, or any other individual with strong language skills. Hence the recommendations here favour good language skills over pedagogical expertise.

This is contrary to research by Sharpe (1995, 2000) and Driscoll *et al.* (2004), which points to the primacy of pedagogy, and values generalists over specialists.

The variety of delivery models further contributes to the diversity of provision. Models of delivery refer here to the general purpose of language teaching as well as the organisation of teaching. There have been references to various models in the literature, for example Driscoll (1999), Powell *et al.* (2000), Driscoll *et al.* (2004), Muijs *et al.* (2005), Coyle (2006), Kirsch (2008), Pinter (2011), and Maynard (2012). The discussion of the models below refers to those reappearing in the sources and includes the ‘competence approach’, the ‘language awareness approach,’ the ‘sensitisation approach’ and ‘Content and Language Integrated Learning’ (CLIL). A summary of the characteristics of each model can be found in Table 2.5.

Provision model	Main characteristics
Competence	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • linguistic focus on one or two languages • aims at developing language skills in all areas • aims and objectives clearly defined and linked to assessment and scheme of work
Language awareness	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • focus on knowledge about language rather than developing competence in any language • focus on comparison of structures between a foreign language and the native tongue
Sensitisation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • combines language awareness with cultural awareness • does not aim to develop linguistically capable speakers but rather aims at developing positive attitudes to other cultures and language learning in general
CLIL	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • aims to teach content <i>via</i> a FL, using methodologies that are used to deliver content rather than language teaching approaches

Table 2.5 A summary of predominant primary MFL provision models in England.

The models above show different levels of prioritising actual language development and other aspects of language learning, *i.e.* culture, knowledge about the language. According to Driscoll *et al.* (2004), Muijs *et al.* (2005) and Griffiths and Driscoll (2010), the most popularly applied provisional model in

England is the sensitisation approach. The focus on culture is common, especially in areas with high numbers of linguistically and culturally diverse populations. Hawkins (1987) claims that this allows children to see the link between culture and language, and celebrate diversity within their closest environment. There has been a general agreement amongst such researchers as Doye and Hurrell (1997), Driscoll *et al.* (2004) and Muijs *et al.* (2005) that while the sensitisation model is attractive, as teachers can cope with its demands, it is not sufficient for language learning. There are similar opinions about the language awareness model, which contrary to the sensitisation approach is not as commonly applied by schools in England. However, Griffiths and Driscoll (2010) indicate that the language awareness model seems to be suited for primary-level teaching, as it has the potential to create a base for the development of further languages. This is valued in general and included in the KAL strand of the KS2 Framework (DfES, 2005).

The competence model on the other hand, through its emphasis on linguistic skills, contributes to the development of the foreign language skills. Such a model relies heavily on having qualified teachers delivering languages, as well as an established relationship with the secondary school that pupils will eventually attend to ensure continuity. As Kirsch (2008) points out, due to high linguistic demands, such a model is rare in England, and if implemented, it is usually secondary school specialists delivering lessons to upper KS2 pupils. Kirsch's (2008) observation about the specialists' involvement in the competence model was mirrored in the schools used for the pilot and the main study, as both adopted the competence model and both employed specialists to lead the provision (3.4.1 and 3.5.1).

Due to its growing popularity, and the tendency for schools adopting the competence model to move toward Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) observed during the research phase, CLIL needs to be briefly discussed. As Hood and Tobutt (2007, p.198) point out, "...CLIL is a way of organising a curriculum that leads to the learning of second or foreign languages, and is very

close to EAL in the way it is theorised”. There is a lot of evidence about the effectiveness of CLIL in immersion contexts from such sources as Johnstone (2002) and Johnstone and McKinstry (2008). However, the organisational aspect related to effectiveness in the primary context poses some issues to implementation. CLIL relies on the class teacher integrating chunks of foreign language into daily or weekly routines, hence encouraging a more integrated approach to language provision and demanding greater proficiency on the part of the teacher, which, as the discussion throughout 2.3 illustrates, is an issue in England.

Apart from the teachers and the model, the diversity of the language provision landscape in England is also reflected in the choice of the language(s), and the frequency of provision. As Kirsch (2008) explains, language choices are heavily influenced by staff skills and the languages taught in feeder secondary schools, as well as local and national recommendations. Board and Tinsley (2015) report that there is a general tendency to value French, due to its geographical proximity and the political and historical relationships between France and England, followed by Spanish and German. This is especially true of the South East (Griffiths and Driscoll, 2010) where the research was conducted. Some schools decide to include minority languages outside of the most commonly taught languages; such a decision is usually triggered by the school’s demographics. The *New Curriculum* (DfE, 2013a) narrowed down the variety of languages that schools can offer, suggesting focus on French, German, Italian, Mandarin, Spanish or a classical language (Latin or Ancient Greek). There are no official guidelines on how many languages should be taught. With competence and CLIL programmes, the tendency is to focus on one language, with the ‘sensitisation’ and ‘language awareness’ model the most common arrangement is focusing on two languages. This practice, however, differs in some schools, with one language being taught from beginning to end, and a second added later. Another alternative is for one language to be taught for some time, and then another introduced without the continuation of the previous one. Some schools go as far as introducing more languages; one language is taught

through the key stages, and additional languages are introduced every year, more as a taster session as part of the sensitisation approach.

Finally, the amount of exposure is the major factor that contributes to overall language gains, as opposed to the age factor itself as discussed in 2.3.1. Until recently, no official guidelines were in place on how much time children should spend learning languages per week. This contributed to the variety observed across the schools noticed in the more recent report by Board and Tinsely (2015). The lessons at KS1 level tend to be shorter (less than 30 minutes), and delivered once a week. In case of the CLIL approach, the encounters can be as short as 10 minutes and delivered daily. Radnai (1996) suggests that short but more frequent encounters, as exemplified by the CLIL approach, seem to contribute to better development of language skills, especially if the focus of instruction is on speaking and listening skills. However, the length of the lesson is often driven by other non-pedagogical factors, such as the amount of time available in the curriculum, rather than guided by the necessary length of exposure to ensure appropriate learning takes place.

2.3.4 Primary MFL teacher knowledge – Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge (TPCK)

The importance of the teacher, as being the source of learning, has been emphasised in research by Edelenbos *et al.* (2006), Pinter (2011) and Enever (2011). The discussion in 2.3.3 has briefly touched upon the profiles of primary teachers in England referring to specialists and non-specialists (generalists), and advantages and disadvantages associated with each teacher type. Sharpe's (1999, 2001) distinction in relation to the specialist-generalist debate (2.3.3) sheds some light onto teachers' skills. However, greater consideration of teacher competence with primary CALL, defined by Driscoll *et al.* (2004, p.3) as "...knowledge, skills and ability of the teacher" is needed. This is again linked to Engeström's (1999) AT theory which, in the present study, treats skills and knowledge as attributes of the 'subject'. Specifying what knowledge an effective teacher should possess helps with identifying the tensions and contradictions between the 'subject' and the other components of the activity system.

Sources such as Pachler and Field (2001), Driscoll *et al.* (2004) and Ofsted (2009), try to identify the types of skills that an effective (primary) MFL practitioner should possess. The combined accounts from the aforementioned sources group the skills into three areas - subject, pedagogic and curriculum knowledge. Each area encompasses a wider range of skills enumerated in Table 2.6. While Ofsted (2009) provide a comprehensive list of skills that refer to subject knowledge, those overlap with curriculum and pedagogical knowledge in other sources and are classified as such in Table 2.6.

Knowledge type	Description
Subject knowledge	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • knowledge of the target language
Pedagogic knowledge	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • the ability to use subject and age specific teaching methods • choose and incorporate appropriate resources and activities, as well as the knowledge of children as individuals and their learning needs • knowledge of educational contexts, <i>i.e.</i> understanding of the wider school context, especially in relation to English as Additional Language (EAL) children, and the school vision and knowledge of educational ends, purposes and values, philosophical, historical background (<i>i.e.</i> history of MFL methodology, new developments in teaching as well as objectives of primary MFL (Pachler and Field, 2001)
Curriculum knowledge	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • the knowledge and understanding of the <i>KS2 Framework</i> and its strands • the knowledge of the <i>KS2 Framework's</i> relationship to the <i>KS3 Framework</i>, • understanding of the general primary curriculum and its cross-curricular links (Ofsted, 2008)

Table 2.6 Summary of primary MFL teacher knowledge and skills.

Those three areas identified in relation to language teaching reflect Shulman's (1986) work on the aspects of teacher knowledge. Shulman (1986) claimed that teacher-training programmes tend to either prioritise subject knowledge, or focus on pedagogical training. What was needed, however, was a combination of both. This thinking gave rise to Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK). However,

with the growing importance of technology within and outside of educational environments, the 21st century teacher needs to possess knowledge that will enable effective technology integration. This is recognised outside MFL by Koehler and Mishra (2009) and within the MFL field by DfES (2002). To reflect that need, Koehler and Mishra (2009) updated Shulman's (1986) version of PCK to Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge (TPCK), to account for those tendencies (Figure 2.8). TPCK proposes that the use of technology is not context free; hence it is important to understand the relationship of content and pedagogy in relation to technology. The framework then looks into and explores the relationships between content knowledge (CK), technological knowledge (TK) and pedagogical knowledge (PK), and as a result the types of knowledge that are necessary for teachers to possess to integrate technology effectively. While CK and PK have been discussed earlier on in this section in Table 2.6, TK refers to understanding technology applications and limitations, and making good judgement as to when it can enhance productivity. Outside of the core areas, Koehler and Mishra (2009) point to the importance of pedagogical content knowledge (PCK), technological content knowledge (TCK), technological pedagogical knowledge (TPK), which lay at the boundaries of the core areas. Archambault and Crippen (2009) explain PCK as an ability to combine teaching and subject knowledge in a way that makes the subject understandable to the learner. TCK is defined by Koehler and Mishra (2009, p.65) as:

“...an understanding of the manner in which technology and content influence and constrain one another and (...) the manner in which the subject matter (or the kinds of representations that can be constructed) can be changed by the application of particular technologies”.

The final component, TPK, refers to understanding of the reciprocal relationship between pedagogy and technology, as one influencing the other. Possession of all those skill bases constitutes TPACK.

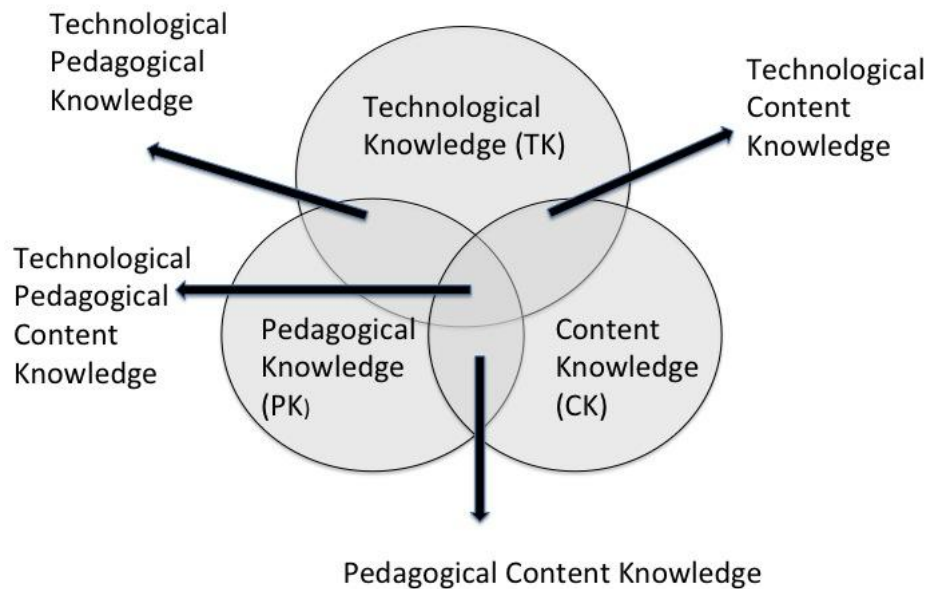


Figure 2.8 TPACK (adapted from Koehler and Mishra, 2009).

As Koehler and Mishra (2009, p. 66) explain:

“TPACK is the basis of effective teaching with technology, requiring an understanding of the representation of concepts using technologies; pedagogical techniques that use technologies in constructive ways to teach content; knowledge of what makes concepts difficult or easy to learn and how technology can help redress some of the problems that students face; knowledge of students’ prior knowledge and theories of epistemology; and knowledge of how technologies can be used to build on existing knowledge to develop new epistemologies or strengthen old ones”.

TPACK is important for this thesis as it outlines the necessary skills, specifically in relation to CALL, and allows one to better identify the attributes of the subject. The studies examining or applying TPACK outside of language education are numerous, for example Archambault and Crippen (2009), Compton (2009), Lee and Tsai (2010) and Koh and Sing (2011). However, recently more and more studies have been appearing within the EFL community that look into teacher’s TPACK skills for example Ansyari (2012), Kurt *et al.*

(2013) and Ekrem and Recep (2014), also in relation to EFL, as Rahmany's *et al.* (2014) study illustrates.

2.3.5 Defining effective language pedagogy – theories of language learning, the voice from the literature, and the KS2 Framework

The discussion of TEL and pedagogy in 2.2.4 allows one to consider effective practice within the field of TEL as a step toward defining the 'object' of the activity system, *i.e.* normalisation associated with effective teaching. This section continues exploring 'effectiveness', however, this time in relation to teaching young learners.

Copland and Garton (2014,) as well as Motteram (2014), point to growing interest in ELL research despite it being referred to by the EFL researchers as 'the Cinderella' area of study, the area peripheral to main EFL and CALL research. While there have been some publications that engage in outlining principles of effective teaching within the MFL field (Sharpe, 2001; DfE, 2005) and EFL (Cameron, 2001), as Jones and McLachlan (2009) and Copland and Garton (2014) explain, the research into and awareness of what constitutes effective pedagogical language practice with young learners is rare. Edelenbos *et al.* (2006, p.36) explain that this might be due to the fact that "...the rationales for pedagogical principles change over time". Hence, the examination of effective primary MFL pedagogy commences with a summary of language learning theories in Table 2.7 and their practical reflection in the teaching methods. The intention, however, is not to provide a detailed discussion of each theory, and each teaching method associated with a theory, but rather to consider them in the light of current sources that tackle characteristics of effective teaching (for example Cameron (2001), Sharpe (2001)), and finally discuss them in light of the *KS2 Framework* (DfES, 2005) that draws on those theories and aforementioned sources to provide guidance for teachers.

Table 2.7 below presents three predominant theories about how languages are learned, and shows how those theories are realised in practice through different teaching methods. Looking at the overall foreign language teaching landscape,

the predominant method applied by teachers and MFL teachers in England is Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). This indicates that the socio-constructivist view of learning is the most widely accepted as associated with good pedagogy. This is reflected in the literature. Sources which attempt to outline characteristics of effective practice with primary MFL refer to socio-constructivist principles. Powell *et al.* (2000), Sharpe (2001) and Cameron (2001) report on the importance of social interaction and communication for children's foreign language learning. Cameron (2001) makes explicit references to the concept of Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) (2.1.6) and scaffolding when discussing principles of effective teaching practice.

Theory	Main principles	Classroom applications
Behaviourism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> learning a language as a process of habit formation based on imitation and practice facilitated through positive reinforcement (Lightbown and Spada, 2013) "...the main aim of behaviourist teaching is to form new, correct linguistic habits through intensive practice, eliminating interference errors in the process" (Crystal, 1987, p.372 quoted in Moya, 2014, p. 8) memorisation and repetition is crucial, especially in relation to the areas that are thought to be problematic 	the technique of drilling audio-lingual method
Cognitive perspectives	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> the existence of two types of knowledge, <i>i.e.</i> declarative – the knowledge about the language, and procedural – the knowledge how to use the language (Mitchell <i>et al.</i>, 2013). two memory storage types – working memory and long term memory (Mitchell <i>et al.</i>, 2011) Krashen's Monitor Model (1982) incorporates five hypotheses: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 'The acquisition/ learning' hypothesis distinguishes between a conscious act of learning through instruction and attention to form, and incidental, unconscious process of acquisition; 'The monitor hypothesis' - conscious learning can function as a monitor or editor that checks and repairs the output of the acquired system, hence one "...can call upon learned knowledge to correct ourselves when we communicate" (Richards and Rodgers, 2010, p.182 quoted in Moya, 2014, p. 12). 'The natural order hypothesis' - there is a predicted order in which grammatical structures are acquired 'The comprehensible input hypothesis' links the process of acquisition to exposure to input slightly below the learner's current level ($i+1$). Finally, Lightbown and Spada (2013, p.106) explain 'Affective filter hypothesis' - "...a metaphorical barrier that prevents learners from acquiring language even when appropriate input is available". 	Natural Approach the Total Physical Response Presentation, Practice, Production (PPP)
Socio-constructivist theory	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> learning is a social process learning happens through active meaning construction through social interaction and scaffolding from more experienced users of the language that leads to internalisation scaffolding is seen as "...the process of supportive dialogue which directs the attention of the learner to key features of the environment, and which prompts them through successive steps of a problem" (Mitchell, <i>et al.</i> (2013, p.222) The concept of ZPD (<i>c.f.</i> 2.1.6) 	'Communicative approaches': Communicative Language Teaching Task Based Language Learning

Table 2.7 Summary of predominant language learning theories.

When discussing these theories, and what constitutes effective teaching practice, the value of repetition for children's learning needs to be re-examined. Repetition or 'drilling' is traditionally associated with behaviourism, and criticised in light of developments associated with cognitive and socio-constructivist theories. Criticised as it is, the role of drilling or repetition, has been re-evaluated and commented on in the literature by Scrivener, (2011) and Harmer (2012). Scrivener (2011, p.170) claims that:

“Certainly there is some danger that students repeating are just making noises with little idea what they are saying, but of all activities in the classroom, the oral drill is the one which can be most productively demanding on accuracy”.

This indicates that some element of repetition is important for language learners, as the reference to the cognitive idea of practice through repetition below indicates, but overreliance on it does not reinforce language learning beyond “parrot mimicry” (Jones and Coffey, 2012, p.4) . As Jones and Coffey (2012, p.4) point out:

“While teachers sometimes talk of children parroting words and phrases - a natural part of the early stage of language learning - children have the cognitive flexibility and physiological apparatus to become competent and creative language users. ...MFL learning needs to go beyond the mimicry stage of parrot fashion learning to encourage creative use of language and experimentation.”

While the behaviourist view of practice as drilling was criticised by the cognitivists, the importance of children practicing itself was not negated. As Lightbown and Spada (2013) point out, it was more the mechanical nature of the behaviourist drill that was criticised, rather than the actual need for repetition. Hence repetitive student practice is defined within cognitive–interactionist tradition “...as interactive, meaningful activity which focuses on ‘task-essential forms’” (Lightbown and Spada, 2013, p.117), which Cameron (2001) refers to as effective teaching practice.

Cognitive theories realised in ‘The Natural Approach’ and ‘Total Physical Approach’ (TPR) (Asher, 1969) (Table 2.7) are referred to as examples

of good practice with ELL by Cameron (2001), Sharpe (2001), DfES (2005) and Maynard (2012). This predominantly refers to making comprehension easy through contextual cues, which gives the learners an opportunity to deduce the language rules using prior knowledge and link it to the present learning experience. Additionally, the creation of a friendly and caring atmosphere is crucial, as this contributes to a lowering of the ‘affective filter’ (Table 2.7). It is especially the latter that is important as the learner’s emotional state (*i.e.* lack of confidence, negative attitudes or anxiety) is thought to contribute to negative experiences with MFL (Maynard, 2012). Associating the aspects of creating rapport with good pedagogy is linked to principles of general primary teaching, which Sharpe (2001) considers important for effective MFL.

The majority of references to effective pedagogy made in this section are made to sources published some time ago. This is done deliberately to show the influence of those sources on the creation of *KS2 Framework for languages* (DfES, 2005), which was the official document supporting the implementation of MFL at the entitlement stage. While the document dates back to 2005, the government has not released any new resource that would offer guidance. Sources published post 2005, such as Hood and Tobutt (2007), Ofsted (2011a), Jones and McLachlan (2009) and Maynard (2012) mirror the principles expressed in the *KS2 Framework* (DfES, 2005) which indicates that effective practice defined in the *Framework* still applies. Additionally, as Board and Tinsley (2015) indicate, it is still the most widely used document to support foreign language teaching in primary schools, and should be considered here as important indicator of what is thought to be good practice with primary MFL.

The *KS2 Framework* is structured around 5 strands as presented in 2.8 The emphasis in the document is on communication as the aim of learning, mirroring Cameron (2001), Sharpe (2001) and Driscoll (2001). At the point of introduction of the *KS2 Framework* (DfES, 2005) it was stated that the focus of ELL should be primarily on the spoken language, with a slow introduction of the written word. However, literacy has been given more priority in the *New Curriculum*

(DfE, 2013a, p.212) describing the general purpose of study in terms of enabling:

“...pupils to express their ideas and thoughts in another language and to understand and respond to its speakers, both in speech and in writing. It should also provide opportunities for them to communicate for practical purposes, learn new ways of thinking and read great literature in the original language”

Furthermore, a stated aim is that pupils ought to be able to:

“...write at varying length, for different purposes and audiences, using the variety of grammatical structures that they have learnt, discover and develop an appreciation of a range of writing in the language studied.”

This is also in relation to KS2, where the balance between spoken and written language is emphasised (DfE, 2013a), reiterating the importance of what Martin (2009, p.61) describes as “...whole language experience”. The reluctance to teaching foreign language literacy stems from two factors, one related to perceptions and attitudes, the other to skills and confidence. As Jones and Coffey (2012) point out, it is a common belief that literacy is considered to be ‘the boring part of learning’, and its early introduction leads to confusion between the languages, and mispronunciation, resulting in demotivation. Those views are, however, challenged by the government (DfES, 2009) who link the ability to learn another language with a positive influence on a child’s understanding and development of their own language - therefore there is link between the *Literacy Framework* and the *KS2 Framework* as outlined in *Developing language in the primary school: literacy and primary languages strategy* (DFES, 2009). Teaching reading and writing proves to be more challenging than developing oral skills, especially for non-specialist teachers. As Pim (2013, p.22) points out, “...written language needs to be explicitly taught by the teacher; the process needs planning and the teacher needs to understand what is involved in doing this”. Board and Tinsley (2014, 2015) report that it is those skills that the teachers lack confidence to deliver. This was the reason for the prevalence of the sensitisation approach as the dominant MFL delivery model (2.3.3).

Outside of developing the four skills (reading, writing, speaking and listening) categorised here under literacy and oracy, the framework also refers to other areas that are not so closely linked to the competence model (2.3.3, Table 2.5, p.69). The Knowledge about Language (KAL) strand as well as the Intercultural Understanding (IU) strand can be related to the language competence model and sensitisation approach (2.3.3, Table 2.5, p.69). It can therefore be argued that the KS2 Framework is an amalgam of all three models: in its emphasis on actual skill development, acknowledging the importance of culture, and learning about the language, it combines the characteristics of the models presented in Table 2.5 (p.69).

Apart from explicit references to skills reflected in the strands, the KS2 Framework also refers to general principles of effective primary teaching that need to be reflected in MFL. Hence creativity, as a skill valued across the curriculum, even though scarce in ELL as reported by Ofsted (2010), has its place in the MFL curriculum, and underlies the discussion of separate strands. CLT presents teachers and students with numerous opportunities to nurture creativity through creating safe spaces for experimentation and play with the language to develop a fun and secure environment. Creativity, fun and play are therefore intertwined, as play enables the children to be creative. Horowitz (2001) argues that this is especially true of such subjects as MFL, where the level of anxiety can be potentially detrimental to learning. Hence as Robinson (2001) points out, the role of the teacher is to create such environment, which contributes to the diminishing of the 'affective filter' (2.3.5, Table 2.7, p.78) where children are encouraged to take risks, make mistakes, and fail and are allowed to do it in all skills.

Strand	Description and aim of the strand
Oracy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Refers to listening, speaking and interaction Aim: to allow students to engage in simple conversations
Literacy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Refers to reading and writing skills Aim: to expose children to a variety of texts and “develop basic knowledge of the writing system” (DfES, 2005, p.8)
Intercultural Understanding	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Refers to cultural aspects of target languages Aim: to increase cultural awareness and develop children’s sensitivity and appreciation towards linguistic and cultural diversity
Knowledge about Language (KAL)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Refers to the knowledge of grammatical rules Aims: to equip students with necessary knowledge to become independent language learners. This is done through expanding their grammatical knowledge of the language to enable comparisons between L1 and L2 and any subsequent language that will be taught later on, and to be able to apply successful learning strategies to further education
Language Learning Strategies (LLS)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Refers to strategies useful when learning a foreign language Aim: to equip students with necessary knowledge to become independent language learners through familiarising them “with strategies which they can apply to the learning of any language” (DfES, 2005, p.9)

Table 2.8 A summary of KS2 Framework (DfE, 2005) strands

2.3.6 The principles of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)

The section above (2.4.1) outlined ideas about effective ELL teaching in relation to learning theories, the literature and governmental recommendations. The key sources such as Driscoll (1999), Cameron (2001), Sharpe (2001), and government guidance in *KS2 Framework for Languages* (DfES, 2005) and the *National Curriculum* (DfE, 2013a) seem to associate effective pedagogical practice with the socio-constructivist theory, which as indicated in Table 2.7 (p.78) is often realised through Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). This was true of the pilot and the main site, as both teachers described their teaching approach referring to CLT – hence, exploration of the principles is valuable.

Harmer (2003, p.289) points out the issue with defining CLT as “...the term has always meant a multitude of different things to different people”. The discussion below refers to what Hiep (2007) characterises as the ‘spirit of CLT’, based on the core concepts of socio-constructivist learning (see Table 2.7, p.78).

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), and its branches, has been the predominant approach in the foreign language classroom for decades now. The popularity of CLT grew out of disengagement with the behaviouristic view of learning as habit formation realised through the audio-lingual method, which in its time was considered to be revolutionary. As Larsen-Freeman and Anderson (2011, 2013) explain, this changed with CLT which, following a socio-constructivist view of language learning, emphasised the focus on communication and interaction in the target language and authentic learning, materials and tasks.

In fact Nunan (1999) claims that CLT changed the way language and language learning were perceived, from a system where the teacher helped the learners internalise, to a focus on meaning and communicative functions. Littlewood (1981) points out that the shift also reflected the change in thinking about the end goal of language learning, as native-like competence was no longer the goal, with emphasis placed on achieving linguistic and communicative competence, identified as the aim of CLT. The socio-constructivist emphasis on interaction as a source of learning, reflected in CLT, is mirrored in the *KS2 Framework* (DfES, 2005, p.4):

“...children spend much of their time in language lessons speaking, listening and interacting - more than in most other subjects. They take part in role plays, conversations and question and answer work, sing songs and recite, perform to an audience and respond to a wide range of aural stimuli. This emphasis on communication, including language learning’s important role in the ‘education of the ear’, underpins children’s capabilities in oracy, which is critical to effective communication as well as a key foundation for literacy”.

As Sharpe (2001, p.25) indicates, “...communicative competence is both the means and the end; learners are taught to communicate through communicating in lessons”. The concept of communicative competence consists of four components: grammatical, discourse, socio-linguistic and strategic competence (Canale, 1983, Halliday, 2005). While other theories, such as behaviourism,

placed great emphasis solely on grammatical competence, the socio-constructivist view of language as "...a system for conveying meaning and performing tasks" (Moya 2014, p. 21) places grammar as one component amongst many. Hence while the knowledge of grammar is still important, the ability to use communication strategies (strategic competence), convey cohesive and coherent messages (discourse competence) and adapt language according to the role and social situation (socio-linguistic competence) were given equal importance. At the time of writing, Sharpe (2001) noted that such an extensive approach to teaching, one that encompasses all of the components of communicative competence, was only experienced by the children at secondary school. This, however, has changed, as elements of the competences are reflected in the *KS2 Framework* (DfES, 2005), with an added dimension of elements of cultural competence realised through the intercultural understanding strand.

A technique that may be linked to the weak version of CLT (East, 2012) as it combines controlled activities with "...communicative activities promoted in CLT in the free production stage" (Ellis and Shintani, 2014, p.120) is PPP - presentation, practice and production. A typical PPP structure starts with the teacher-focused 'presentation' of the material, followed by a 'practice' stage of structured activities, and concluded with the stage of 'production,' consisting of open-ended tasks which allow for more flexible and independent use of the language. As Benatti (2013) and Criado (2013) indicate, the practice stage might - in the case of unskilled teachers - resemble behaviouristic drills. The aspect of repetition, drills and effective student practice activities was commented on in 2.3.5 hence for PPP to be 'communicative', the practice stage should mirror what Jones and Coffey (2012) refer to as meaningful practice linked to the task. The production stage, however, mirrors socio-constructivist principles and is defined by Lightbown (2003, p.6 quoted in Hood and Tobutt, 2007) as:

"...experience in using language for meaningful purposes, including opportunities for thoughtful retrieval of language features that ... have not become automatic..."

Ellis (2003) points out that it is common to apply a use of tasks for the stage of 'production'. According to Shintani (2011) this blurs the boundaries between CLT and Task Based Language Teaching (TBLT) and situates TBLT within the umbrella term of CLT. I make numerous references to 'tasks' in the discussion of the data (Chapter 4) - those are discussed within the realms of CLT and the 'practice' stage.

CLT has its advocates (for example Harmer, 2003, Hiep, 2007; Spada, 2007; Enever and Moon, 2009) and its critics (for example Bax, 2003b). Bax's (2003b) most recent criticism related not to the approach itself but to the overreliance and the conviction of the proponents of CLT about its superiority in every context. The 'CLT attitude' (2003b) is an extreme belief that in any context, the newest method of teaching, widely promoted in the more established and acknowledged ELT context, is better and therefore should be adopted by all. This view mirrors the 'wow' effect discussed in relation to technology (2.1.6). Extreme as the view may be, according to Bax (2003b), is the one shared across the ELT world. While Bax's (2003b) criticism of blind CLT application, especially in relation to the Chinese context was addressed by the advocates of the approach such as Liao (2004) and Hiep (2007), taking contextual factors into account when adopting any innovation is important and should be considered as the first step that every teacher takes when deciding how to best approach their learners. Hence what needs to be clarified is that the decision to refer to CLT as an indicator of good practice in the present thesis does not stem from the over-appreciation for the method but the tenets of CLT seem to lie to a large extent within good practice in ELL. The focus on communication and the primacy of the spoken language resonate well with the context under investigation, more in terms of learning, and less so in terms of teaching as the complexities of the provision might indicate (2.3.3). Yet those CLT tenets were embedded within *KS2 Framework for Languages* (DfES, 2005) and seem to be commonly accepted as beneficial and suitable for the age group as indicted by Cameron (2001), Sharpe (2001), Hood and Tobutt (2007) and Maynard (2012).

2.4 Primary CALL

Having considered pedagogical aspects of ELL (2.3.2) and effective pedagogical practice with technology (2.2), it is important to bring those two together and go back to the topic at hand, *i.e.* effective technology use for language education. Hence in this section the discussion of the two aforementioned aspects is drawn together to outline how technology should be utilised for primary MFL. This identification of characteristics of effective primary CALL defines the ‘object’ of the activity system (2.1.6.2). This is considered in terms of general technology application, and specifically in relation to the IWB as the technology most likely to be used regularly in England. This serves as a benchmark for observations in the pilot, and in the main site, for identification of tensions and contradictions which impede effective pedagogy. However before the definition of the object is discussed, the section starts with an overview of the application of CALL into the primary context to show the general tendencies in the field.

2.4.1 Overview of primary CALL applications

As it was pointed out in the introduction to this section, Copland and Garton (2015) and Macaro *et al.* (2012) see ELL as emerging as a separate field of CALL. While research in the EFL context is growing, within the primary MFL sector in England it seems to be relatively scarce - however some accounts are available, and are discussed here.

Starting with the prevalent field of EFL, Macaro *et al.* (2012) provide an exhaustive analysis of reliable evidence in relation to primary CALL research. The analysis indicates that, in terms of research, the interest in CALL seems to be reflected largely in studies related to reading and vocabulary, linked to storytelling and game software. This reflects the discussion of the benefits of CALL described by Hattie (2009) in terms of differentiated, self-paced learning that drilled activities or games offer. While evaluative studies on the use of software have their value, as Leask (2001) points out, technology works best

across the curriculum when its integration (in the task) is seamless. Beckett and Miller (2006) claim that CLT, and embedded within it Task Based Language Learning (TBLL) facilitated through the use of Web 2.0 tools (as part of Computer Mediated Communication), can help achieve that. Synchronous communication through video-conferencing reported on by Phillips (2010), the use of the virtual world described by Hew and Cheung (2010), and asynchronous communication through email exchanges (Pazio, 2010), offers exposure to authentic language, engages students with authentic tasks, supports the development of the communicative skills of speaking and writing, as well as encourages intercultural understanding (Whyte, 2011). Pim (2014) enumerates several advantages of Web 2.0 tools for language learning, including: opportunities for collaborative meaning-making facilitated through technology, surrounding the learners with ‘comprehensible input’ (Krashen, 1988), and allowing the learners to negotiate meaning and produce output. The influence of other Web 2.0 tools - such as blogs, wikis or social media sites - encourages the culture of producing and content creation, which also translates to the world of language education since children are allowed to interact through creating, as Terrell (2011), and Wang and Vasquez (2012) explain. While Macaro *et al.* (2012) suggest that Web 2.0 applications are not as widely used in primary education as they are in secondary learning, the references to the sources above point to a degree of integration into primary teaching, albeit referred to as innovative practice.

Ofsted (2011b) report on good practice with technology visible across the sector in England in their inspector reports. This seems to be more indicative of the national picture rather than representing pockets of innovation. They refer to using technology to display information, using multimedia to expose children to native speakers and motivational applications of interactive games. Those examples refer to the application of the IWB. While the EFL world seems to be sceptical about the place of IWB in the classroom and its value in developing language skills as expressed by Dudeney (2006, 2007), IWB seem to be used regularly for primary CALL in England.

2.4.1.1 Effective practice with primary CALL – defining the object of the activity system

Colpaert (2013) points out that technology integration is a characteristic of good practice with languages. This claim is confirmed in the primary MFL documentation (for example: DfES, 2005; Ofsted, 2011a), and the literature (Maynard, 2012), as technology is mentioned as an appropriate tool for learning. However, as Whyte and Alexander (2014) note, the opposite relationship, which would suggest that technology integration automatically guarantees good teaching, does not exist.

The discussion of effective ELL in 2.3.5 as well as effective technological applications outlined in 2.2.4, provide a sound pedagogical base for outlining how technology can be used effectively to support primary MFL teaching. Hence drawing on the previously mentioned sources, effective primary CALL application is defined as: such uses that mirror the socio-constructivist principle of cooperation and collaborative meaning-making, through interaction with technology, and through technology facilitating the development of all skills. The tasks designed by the teacher allow for greater flexibility, creativity and autonomy, and allow for a shift from teacher-centred consumer education, to student-centred transformative integration of technology, where creation is central, (as outlined in Curtim Schmid, (2010)), mirroring the principles of Keats and Schmidt's (2007) Education 3.0. Hence, as presented in Puentedura's (2014) SAMR model, the task at hand is modified and the students' experience transformed.

As IWB is the technology that is most commonly present in the classroom, and most widely integrated, it is interesting to look into effective IWB use separately from applications that refer to 'technology' in general terms as the growing body of research in the field emerges (Curtim Schmid 2008, 2010; Whyte, 2013; Whyte, *et al.*, 2012, 2014; Konraad *et al.*, 2013). Even though the IWB might lean toward teacher-centred instruction, the general socio-constructivist principles of CLT and the value of communication and interaction also apply to

effective IWB use. In 2.2.4.1 references were made to Beuachamp and Kennewell's (2010) stages in IWB application, showing a progression from didactic to synergetic use. Those ideas were developed further by Whyte *et al.* (2014), who added context specific language characteristics.

	Language	Context	Planning	Control
Drill	Pre-planned, repetition, feedback on form	limited attempt to contextualize language, focus on form	task pre-planned by the teacher	teacher in control of access and turn taking
Display	input/ output beyond minimum target items, some open questions	limited contextualization of the language, no attempts of authenticity	mainly pre-planned teacher activity, some unplanned elements	mainly teacher in control, practice of pre-planned items
Simulation	some focus on meaning, some feedback on content, interaction based on communication	meaningful context, using role plays to simulate authentic situations	some space for learner's choice, teacher expands on the activity	learner-oriented activity, voluntary participation and freedom of choice how to engage
Communication	focus on meaning, feedback on content, genuine communication, learner choice of forms	authentic activities, participants' opinions	open activity, space provided for learner's choice, preparation by learners	activities controlled by the learner, opportunities for spontaneous communication

Table 2.9 Whyte's *et al.* (2014) description of interaction types around the IWB

As presented in Table 2.9 Whyte *et al.* (2014) characterises teachers' IWB applications into four categories. The first, 'drilling,' mirrors behaviouristic principles, and focuses on repetition of pre-planned language, allowing only for lower levels of interactivity, usually involving only one learner or being completely led by the teacher. 'Display' is slightly less restricted, as it allows for some open ended questions and some unplanned production. However, the teacher is still mainly in control of the board, and the focus is similarly on drilling/ practising pre-selected language items. 'Simulation' starts to focus on

interaction-based communication and role plays simulating real life situations, incorporating therefore some CLT principles (2.4.1.1). The activities are less structured, the teacher's role is less authoritative, and there is some room for learner choice. Finally, 'communication' focuses on genuine communication that incorporates learner choice of language and structures suited for authentic situations. The teacher's involvement in planning the task is diminished, and more freedom and responsibility is given to the learners. The activities (around the IWB) are controlled by the learners, and allow spontaneous production. Effective use of the IWB for language teaching therefore applies the principles of CLT to the task and creates maximum opportunities for interactivity, interaction and communication.

SUMMARY

The discussion presented in this chapter outlined the literature that influenced the thinking behind the research and the development of the methodology. Situating normalisation within sociocultural Activity Theory (AT) demands looking at broader factors which affect normalisation, avoiding therefore the techno-centric view criticised in the literature by Bijker (1997), Tudor (2003) and Bax (2003a). Due to the complexities of the context and situating normalisation at the intersection of three disciplines (Figure 1.1, p.2), this was done in relation the field of CALL, primary MFL and the field of TEL.

As was explained in 2.1.6.1, AT and its principles of contradictions and tensions resonate well with the purpose of the study, hence the aim of this thesis can be understood in terms of identifying tensions in the activity systems that prevent the 'subject' from the achievement of the 'object'. Due to the application of the concept of normalisation to a new context, the 'object' needed to be specified. Treating normalisation as desirable, and aligning it with effective teaching, demands a closer definition of what is considered to be effective practice. This task is difficult since there is lack of clear consensus about what good practice within ELL entails. In trying to define the 'object,' the chapter outlined current debates about effective technology application, effective ELL and finally,

drawing on that, effective ICT integration for ELL (*i.e.* primary CALL). Following such sources as Cameron (2001), Beauchamp and Kennewell (2010), Pim (2013), Whyte *et al.* (2014) and Henry (2014), I aligned effective CALL integration with socio-constructivist theory of collaborative meaning-making, with a focus on cooperation, interactivity, interaction and creation.

The examination of the characteristics of the new context in relation to ICT integration outlined in the discussion of TEL in 2.2, and the complexities of MFL in 2.3, and additionally the results of earlier normalisation research discussed in 2.1.4 allowed me to review the evidence that already exists in relation to general issues with MFL provision and ICT integration. Those issues were related to the aspects of teachers', the management's, and pupils' attitudes, skills, training, logistical arrangements and pedagogy, and allowed for a creation of an initial model (Figure 3.3, p.117). A draft of that model was taken to the pilot site and compared with the research reality. Hence, I approached the site with what Hammersley and Atkinson (2007) described as a set of 'foreshadowed problems', which focused the scope of the interview questions and the observations, however, as explained in 3.2 did not limit it. The visual representation of the influence of the literature on the research presented in this thesis is presented in Figure 2.9. Chapter 3 discusses in greater detail my methodological choices.

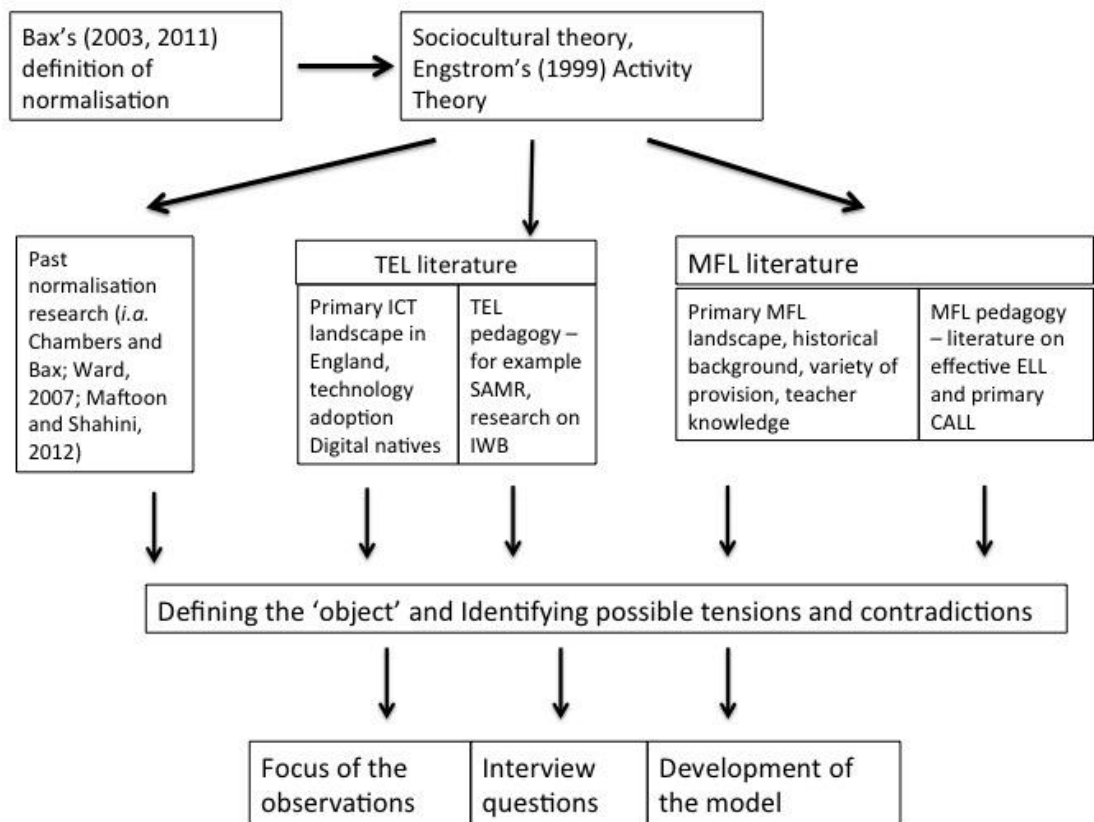


Figure 2.9 The influence of the literature on the research.

CHAPTER 3

Methodology

INTRODUCTION

The previous chapters presented an overview of the current literature on the subject matter, referring to areas presented in Figure 1.1 (p.2). Chapter 3 outlines the methodological choices for the study. It commences with a ‘statement of self’ section, which explains the process of research design and factors influencing the researcher’s thinking. The remaining part of the chapter focuses on the justification of the methodological choice in relation to the paradigm, approach and methods, and criteria for justifying the knowledge produced in this research, which is underpinned by phenomenological principles. The chapter then reports on the characteristics of samples for the pilot and the main study, and discusses briefly the results of the pilot relevant for the main study and the development of the model in Chapter 5. The chapter concludes with the specification of methodological limitations and possibilities of bias.

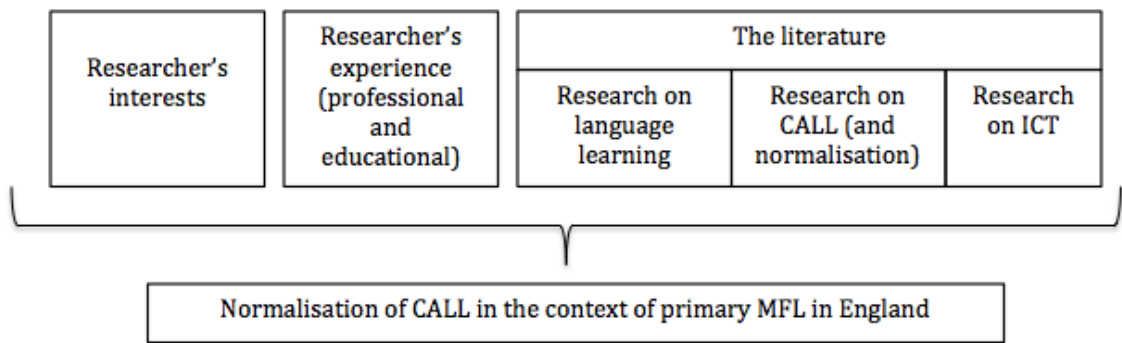
STATEMENT OF SELF

Before the discussion of the choices commences, due to the interpretive nature of this thesis, I must explain the process of research design, and what influenced it. Similar reflections were made in the introduction to openly state how my experience and beliefs influence how I approach the topic at hand and by extension analysis of the data. This process is repeated here specifically to illustrate the influences on the design of the study illustrated in Figure 3.1 below.

The identification of the research area was a result of my professional and educational experience, and my interest in the topic. The focus on primary

education was narrowed down due to my professional involvement at the time of the study, which allowed me to observe day-to-day technology integration in primary schools. Being familiar with the concept of normalisation from the EFL context, I felt that it is important for the primary field, and interesting for the EFL field to explore this concept further by applying it to this non-traditional context. Deeper engagement with the literature allowed for formulation of more focused research questions. Outside of philosophical beliefs, the choice of the paradigm was also influenced by the tendencies and recommendations within the field of normalisation as discussed in 3.1. The association with interpretive ontology and epistemology influenced the choice of the approach – an ethnographic case study (see 3.2) using one school in East Sussex as a research site. My immersion into the school life, spread over three and a half months (March-July, and twelve visits, see 3.5.2), allowed me to gain deep understanding of the school culture. Following from the choice of an ethnographic approach, observations and interviews were my predominant methods of data collection, supported by audio recordings, field notes and a diary. Altogether I observed twenty-four lessons, twenty being MFL lessons (sixteen delivered by the specialist teacher and four by the non-specialist teachers) and four non-MFL lessons as explained in 3.4.3 and presented in Table 3.6 (p.109). Three of those observations were supported with audio recording due to my acting as a participant. I also applied formal and informal interviews. Formal interviews were conducted with the headteacher, the specialist teacher, teachers from Year 1, 5 and 6 (as the ones I worked most closely with) and children from Year R, 1, 4, 5 and 6 (on a whole class basis) (see Table 3.3, p.107). Informal interviews were conversations I had with the participants throughout the day that I commented on and reflected on in the diary (see 3.3.1 for the rationale). Overall I recorded forty-three instances of informal conversation as presented in Table 3.4 (p.108). I analysed the data using thematic analysis, I explain the rationale for that choice in 3.6.

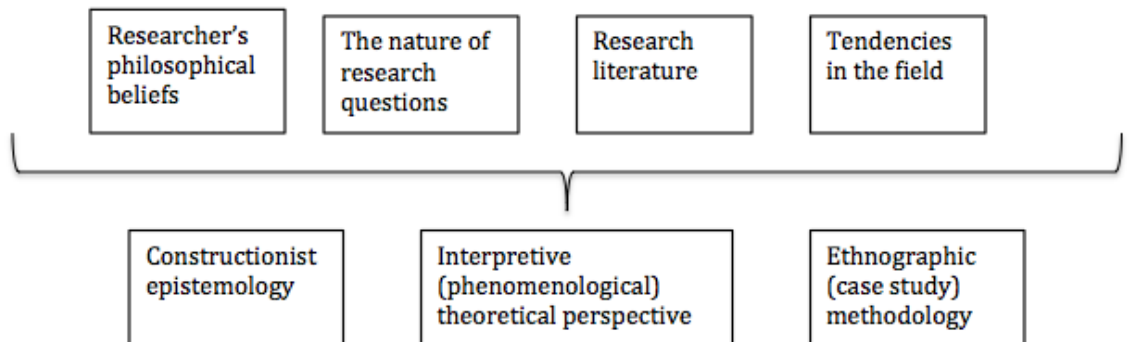
1. SPECIFYING RESEARCH AREA



2. FORMULATING RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1. What is the definition of normalisation in the primary context?
2. What factors impede (and contribute to) normalisation of primary CALL?
3. To what extent is CALL normalised in primary MFL?

3. CHOOSING APPROPRIATE METHODOLOGY



4. DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS

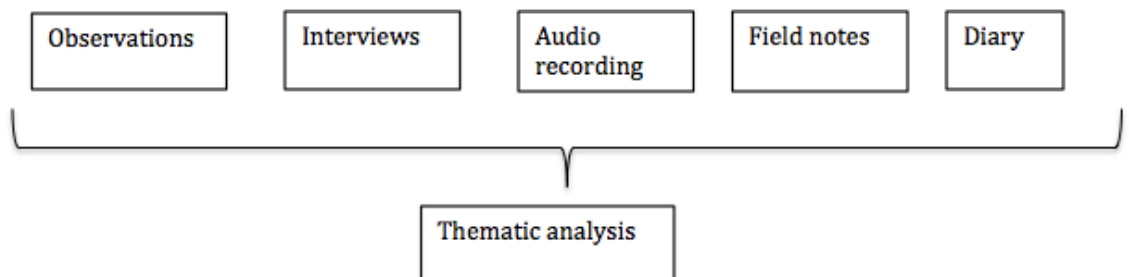


Figure 3.1 Stages in the formulation of research design

3.1 Philosophical position, and the justification of the choice of the qualitative paradigm

When approaching methodological decisions, I first acquainted myself with the epistemological and ontological assumptions that underlie the positivist and interpretive paradigms. Hence I associated myself with one side of the qualitative - quantitative debate as the paradigm more aligned with how I perceive the world, and more suitable for the research topic, the questions and the sociocultural theoretical framework of Activity Theory (AT). The remaining part of this section offers an explanation of my philosophical beliefs and the justification for the choice of the interpretive/ phenomenological paradigm as being more suitable for this project.

Following the interpretive paradigm, I see reality as being socially constructed. As Pring (2005, p.50) explains "...each person lives in a world of ideas and it is through those ideas,...the world (physical and social) is constructed". This view stands in opposition to positivistic paradigm which considers reality to be independent from me and my interpretation of it. The interpretive view of reality results in the existence of multiple realities based on individual interpretations. Research therefore, "...is often focused upon people's perceptions of reality where one lot of perceptions is as good as another" (Pring, 2005, p.60). Pring (2005, p.122) indicates this is true especially within educational research where full understanding of the context:

"...requires reference to the accepted social rules and values within which the teachers are operating. It requires, too, reference to the teachers' interpretation of these rules to the constant, often minute, judgements by which teachers adapt to evolving situations, interpret the learners' responses and make the guiding values concrete."

Along with rejecting the positivistic view of the world, the notion of the researcher as a passive tool of data collection is also questioned. According to Guba and Lincoln (1994), both the participants and the researcher bring their

own narratives to the research situation, and these are embedded within the larger history of the professions and cultures to which they belong. The researcher cannot be detached from the realities she enters without becoming a part of that reality, and participating in constructing it. Hence, Cohen *et al.* (2007, p.19) describe the role of the researcher as to "...understand, explain, and demystify social reality through the eyes of different participants". The data collection process, therefore, becomes a data construction process.

The positivistic notion of objectivity is also questioned in relation to the existence of objective reality, objective truth and objective research in general. This is because according to Pring (2005) objectivity within the social sciences does not align with a positivistic understanding of the existence of something independent of the co-constructed world of ideas. As it was pointed out above, I align my ontological views with socio-constructivism. Since reality is socially constructed it is not independent from my perceptions (Pring, 2005). This is in line with phenomenological view that "...we each inhabit subjective worlds of meaning through which we interpret the social world, ...[the] social world is nothing other than our interpretations" (Pring, 2005, p.98). Hence objectivity, as understood by positivists, is not possible here.

Since, under this interpretation, there is not one reality but multiple realities, there is no one objective truth waiting to be discovered. Truth, or meaning, "...comes into existence in and out of engagement with the realities of the world" (Crotty, 1998, p.9). As Crotty (1998, p.9) points out "...different people may construct meaning in different ways, even in relation to the same phenomenon". Hence knowledge and truth "...consists of those constructions about which there is relative consensus among those competent to interpret it" (Guba and Lincoln 1994, p.113).

Lincoln and Guba (1985) and Mack (2010) in fact question the objectivity of any research. Mack (2010) indicates that through the process of paradigm selection, the researchers position themselves within a method and type of data collection preferred for the paradigm. Hence by identifying oneself with a paradigm and

the beliefs underpinning it, one cannot be detached from that perspective (Cole and Knowles, 2001).

Qualitative researchers deny the idea of the existence of one objective truth - this, however does not mean that the knowledge produced within the interpretive paradigm is condemned to subjectivity. Sandberg (2005) proposes that interpretive researchers rather need to redefine criteria for validity and reliability using principles from within their tradition. This reasoning is applied in the present work in the discussion of validity and reliability and elaborated on in 3.7.

As Oakley (1999) points out, the choice of paradigm, approach, and methods is not a mere interplay between the questions asked and the most suitable way to address them. The characteristics of the context play an important role in determining these choices; for instance external sources, such as methodological trends as portrayed in the journals and considered as reliable in the discipline, affect these decisions. Macaro's *et al.* (2012) and Handley's (2014) research seems to indicate that in the past, the field of CALL was dominated by evaluative, quantitative research related to the use of software. However, the field of education in general (Walker, 1988; Brewer, 2000), and the studies of normalisation in particular (Motteram, 1999; Bax, 2003a), value the depth that qualitative research offers, over the volume that quantitative research provides.

The discussion of the theoretical socio-cultural background to normalisation (2.1.3.1), in line with the philosophical position, heavily influenced the research approach chosen for the study. The ecological perspective on language teaching discussed by Tudor (2003, p.5) focuses on examining technology use "...in light of a wide range of human and contextual factors", acknowledging also the diversity of language teaching. Murray's (1995) concept of a 'tapestry of diversity' is an illustration of the complexity of classroom context. It is important then, as discussed in chapter (2.1.3.1), to explore the meaning of the classroom and the concept of normalisation as it presents itself to the participants, and "...how these various understandings influence participants'

choices and decisions” (Tudor 2003, p.7). This more holistic view on normalisation, and technology integration in general, promotes the emic (from within) approach to research. This is opposed to etic (from outside) approaches which coincide with positivistic principles. Emic approaches pay more attention to the insider, participant perspectives and their perceptions of the situation (Tudor, 2003). This approach aligns with the interpretive tradition and generates qualitative data for understanding participants’ actions, beliefs and motivations, and broader cultural factors that affect those motivations. Hence it fits the socio-cultural view on normalisation research.

Valuable as qualitative research is, I was aware of the criticism the paradigm faces, being described by Denzin and Lincoln (2005, p.10) as “...many things to many people”. Cohen *et al.* (2007 p.11) make claims that this is contrary to the quantitative paradigm, which “...provides us with the clearest possible ideal knowledge”. Simplistic views on the paradigm distinction, however, are constantly being challenged, and efforts are being made by such researchers such as Sandberg (2005) and Braun and Clarke (2006), to ensure qualitative research can compete with positivistic research rigour. The measures taken to achieve robustness at the stage of justifying the knowledge produced through the interpretive paradigm, and the influence these measures had on the design and analysis, is discussed 3.7. These are linked to the theoretical perspective taken and rooted in phenomenological philosophy.

3.2 The choice of ethnography as an approach

The aim of the research is to analyse the complex nature of primary CALL experience and normalisation, moving away from over-simplistic explanations that focus on technology as the ‘sole agent’ of failure or success as recommended by Bijker (1997) and Bax (2003), and examining teacher’s technology use situated within the activity system, and influenced by its components (Engeström, 1999). I thought that a quantitative approach aligned with the positivistic paradigm, as explained in 3.1, would only touch upon the problems superficially. Hence a qualitative approach that would allow for an in-

depth understanding of the research culture, and reach deeper layers of the participants' experience, needed to be chosen.

As Issroff and Scanlon (2002) indicate, the application of AT as a theoretical lens demands deep understanding of the researched culture and its pedagogical practices. Ethnography emerged from the start as the most suitable approach toward data collection, as it has the potential to "...tell it like it is from the inside" (Brewer, 2000, p.17). As Morrison (1993, p.88) points out, prolonged immersion in a research context embedded within the ethnographic approach can ensure that "...the salient features of the situation emerge and present themselves but a more holistic view will be gathered of the interrelationships of factors." Hammersley and Atkinson (2007) add that ethnography allows the researcher to experience the context through observation and first hand participation, as well as gaining a richer understanding of individuals and how they interact in their everyday working lives. It therefore has the potential to allow for a better understanding of the tensions within the activity system between the 'subject', 'object', 'tools', the 'community', its 'rules', and the 'division of labour' within it. Through this capability, this method aligns more closely with the demands of the theoretical lens applied for the present research, and the need for high understanding of the context (Issroff and Scanlon, 2002).

Such researchers as Chambers and Bax (2006) and Ward (2007), who analysed normalisation, used ethnography as an approach. While quantitative surveys or mixed method studies do exist, for example Maftoon and Shahini's (2012) study of the Iranian context, or Rahmany's *et al.* (2014) mixed method study of normalisation and TPACK, researchers in the field have argued for the relevance of more qualitative research in general (Motteram, 1999), and ethnographic research in particular (Bax, 2003a), to ensure a better understanding of CALL, and normalisation as a concept embedded in CALL. Those ethnographies conducted by Chambers and Bax (2006) and Ward (2007) were, however, referred to as 'ethnographic in nature' (Holliday, 1997). While they did not conform to the characteristics of full ethnography as understood in social

sciences - with prolonged immersion allowing the researcher to be perceived as part of the culture - they were conducted within the interpretive spirit, (*i.e.* allowed for the features of the researched culture to emerge) as well as comprising of "...tight rules concerning how the researcher relates to and writes about the research environment" (Holliday, 1997, quoted in Chambers and Bax, 2006, p.468). Due to my prolonged involvement in the culture under investigation (see 3.5.2) the ethnographic approach I adopted is closer to ethnographies conducted in social sciences by such researchers as Rodgers (2007).

Case studies are often used in conjunction with ethnographies as a matter of necessity - as Stake (1998, quoted in Brewer, 2000, p.76) explains, a "...case study is not a methodological choice, but a choice of object to be studied". My case was a primary school in the South East described in 3.5.1. Denscombe (2003, p.65) explains that having a case study embedded into ethnography is useful for generalisations within limitations:

"...from looking at the individual case that can have wider implications, and, importantly, that would not have come to light through the use of a research strategy that tried to cover a large number of instances – a survey approach. The aim is to illuminate the general by looking at the particular."

As Hammersley and Atkinson (2007) point out, the ethnographer usually does not start with a theory but rather is immersed in the context to create a theory from the collected data. The practice of approaching the site with a theory is possible, as exemplified by Festinger *et al.* (1956, quoted in Hammersley and Atkinson, 2004, p.21), yet he suggests it is rare. I approached the pilot site with a model in mind. This might appear as a contradiction to the principles of ethnography and adopting a stance similar to Festinger *et al.* (*ibid*). However, as Malinowski (1992, quoted in Hammersley and Atkinson, 2004, p.21) explains:

"...good training in theory, and acquaintance with its latest results, is not identical with being burdened with 'preconceived ideas'. ...Preconceived ideas are pernicious in any scientific work, but foreshadowed problems are the main endowment of

a scientific thinker, and these problems are first revealed to the observer by his theoretical studies.”

Hence I did not treat the model as a theory to be tested, but rather a frame of mind that emerged as a result of immersion in the literature. Hence I treat the model as an indication of ‘foreshadowed problems,’ rather than ‘preconceived notions’. I was constantly open to different interpretations and constantly developed my views, as demonstrated by the adaptations of my initial framework and its development in the main study (3.2.4.2 and Chapter 5).

3.3 The choice of the methods

The characteristics of the ethnographic researcher as a “...methodological omnivore” (Le Compte and Preissle, 1993, quoted in Cohen *et al.*, 2011, p.221) allow the application of a variety of methods. As Delamont (2004, p.218) argues:

“...participant observation, ethnography and field work are all used interchangeably...they can all mean spending long periods watching people, coupled with talking to them about what they are doing, thinking and saying, designed to see how they understand the world”.

In line with the chosen approach and paradigm, the methods used in the pilot and the main study included observations, informal conversations and formal interviews with the staff involved in MFL, the management and the children, as well as field notes, a diary and audio recordings. A summary of the sample for the main study is presented in Table 3.1. A more detailed description of each data set for the pilot and main study is provided throughout section 3.3.

Method		Main study sample
Interviews	Formal	10 (approx. 7 h)
	Informal	46 instances recorded
Observations		24 lessons
Audio-recordings of lessons		3 lessons
Field notes		50 pages
Diary entries		30 entries, 50 pages

Table 3.1 Summary of main study sample for each method.

As it was pointed out in the summary to Chapter 2, the focus of the interviews and observations was largely shaped by the evidence from the literature in relation to possible obstacles toward technology integration and foreign language teaching in England. Bearing in mind Research Question 2 (‘What factors impede normalisation of CALL in the research school and schools offering similar provision type in England?’), and the principles of tensions and contradictions within the activity system (2.1.6.2) I harboured some ‘foreshadowed problems’ that applied to other contexts and were reported in the research. Those were represented in the initial model in section 3.4.2.2 (Figure 3.3, p.117). The data collection focused on those areas. However, I was open to follow any other route that might be relevant - hence those areas were not prescribed, but served as guidance.

3.3.1 Formal and informal interviews

As Silverman (1993, quoted in Cohen *et al.*, 2011, p.236) explains, the purpose of interviews for naturalistic inquiry lies in:

“...gathering facts, accessing beliefs about facts, identifying feelings and motives, commenting on the standards of actions (what could be done about situations), present or previous behaviour and eliciting reasons and explanations.”

The subject matter of the present research is the concept of normalisation. That includes examining participants’ attitudes, motivations and behaviours.

Interviewing provides insight into all of those aspects; the interviews adopted in the present study were formal and informal, semi-structured and unstructured accordingly.

Following Lincoln and Guba (1985), structured interviews were used in two situations: firstly, when I needed prior information from the participant; and secondly, as Kerlinger (1970) advises, when following up results and gaining in-depth information about the participants' motivations and beliefs. The interviews were semi-structured, and the conversation revolved around aspects of CALL guided by the literature presented in Chapter 2. The focus in the main site was on the headteacher as the representative of the management; teachers in Year 6, Year 5 and Year 1, as the ones I closely worked with and had a chance to observe; and children in Year R, Year 1, Year 4, 5, and 6, again due to my greater involvement with those year groups. The decision to include children's views in the analysis stemmed from the perceived need to take into account young learners' opinions of their educational experience, expressed by Scaife and Rogers (1999) and Hall and Higgins (2005). Also, especially in HE, the views on student partnership became popular and their main tenets can be seen as being mirrored in primary education, where children's opinions about their educational experience are valid and valued (see Neary and Winn, 2009; Bovill, 2013). Hence to promote that sense of partnership in research, and also to provide another dimension to the collected data to complete the activity picture, I organised interviews with children. The decision to conduct a whole class interview was made to enable greater discussion and limit off-topic comments, especially with younger year groups. Lewis (1992) also reported that a group interview conducted with a group of 10 year olds was a good way of generating ideas, and of the children challenging each others' perceptions. Finally, whole class interviews addressed the cognitive aspects of interviewing children, *i.e.* addressing the possibility that the pupils interviewed may not have sufficient knowledge to answer the question about the subject matter. As Simons (1982) and Lewis (1992) explain, conducting group interviews diminishes the problem,

since children are more likely to engage with the actual topic and correct one another if somebody made wrong assumptions.

All of the formal interviews were recorded and I transcribed them verbatim. Following ethical guidance described in greater detail in 3.9 the permission to record teachers' and headteacher's interviews was obtained from the participants. The permission to record children's interviews was gained from the headteacher, the class teacher and the parents. The parents were informed about the nature of the study in the school newsletter and were presented with an opportunity to withdraw their child if they wished to, by contacting the headteacher. They were also informed through the newsletter when the interviews were taking place, again having an opportunity to withdraw their child. A sample of the interview transcripts, with analysis, can be found in Appendix C. The questions asked to each participating group are presented in Appendix A. Specifications of the samples for formal interviews for the pilot and the main site are presented in Table 3.2 and Table 3.3 respectively.

Interview type	Participant	Gender	Duration/ instances
Formal interview (recorded)	Headteacher	F	45 minutes
	Specialist teacher	F	30 minutes
	Year 2 class	M and F	10 minutes
	Year 3 class	M and F	10 minutes
	Year 4 class	M and F	10 minutes
	Year 5 class	M and F	15 minutes
	Year 6 class	M and F	15 minutes
Informal interview	Headteacher	F	2
	Specialist teacher	F	6
	Year 6 teacher	F	1
	Year 4 teacher	F	1

Table 3.2 Specification of the pilot sample for the interviews.

Participant	Gender	Length of interview
Headteacher	F	60 minutes
Specialist teacher	F	80 minutes
Year 6 teacher	F	60 minutes
Year 5 teacher	F	30 minutes
Year 1 teacher	F	30 minutes
Year R children (whole class)	M and F	20 minutes
Year 1 children (whole class)	M and F	20 minutes
Year 4 children (whole class)	M and F	25 minutes
Year 5 children (whole class)	M and F	30 minutes
Year 6 children (whole class)	M and F	30 minutes

Table 3.3 Specification of the sample for formal interviews for the main site.

The informal, unstructured interviews took the form of informal conversations. As Fetterman (2010) points out, they are embedded within the nature of ethnographic immersion in the context, and are helpful in identifying “...shared values in the community”. The use of formal and informal interviews was also a form of validation as discussed in 3.7.2. That was to allow cross-referencing of the attitudes and answers given, to establish pragmatic validity - namely checking if participants’ views changed, depending on the setting and with whom they were conversing. In both cases, I used open-ended questions to allow for free communication and unrestrained flow of ideas, treating the interview as a social event rather than creating the atmosphere of a pure data collection process. The content of those conversations was recorded in the diary or in the field notes. Following ethics (3.9), the teachers were made aware that the sole purpose of my visit was to gain an understanding of their experience of CALL and to collect data to fulfil this purpose, and agreed to participate in the study. They understood that those informal conversations are part of the data collection process. They were presented with numerous opportunities to disengage from the interactions if they wished to. The method therefore was covered by informed consent (3.9).

Due to their nature it is difficult to specify how long those conversations lasted, however, since I reflected on them in my diary, the instances of informal conversations can be counted. This is presented in Table 3.2 (p.106) for the pilot and 3.4 for the main study. An example of a diary entry, which reports on informal conversations, can be found in Appendix B.

Informal conversations (recorded in the diary)			
Headteacher	3		
Specialist teacher	10		
Non-specialist teachers	Year 6 teacher	6	20
	Year 5 teacher	3	
	Year 4 teacher	2	
	Year 3 teacher	2	
	Year 2 teacher	1	
	Year 1 teacher	4	
	Year R teacher	2	
Support staff	Year R TA	1	6
	Year 1 TA	2	
	Year 3 TA	1	
	Year 6 TA	2	
Children	Year 6	3	7
	Year 5	2	
	Year 4	2	
		46	

Table 3.4 Specification of the main study sample - informal conversations.

3.3.2 Participant and non-participant observations (and field notes)

Observations, described by Kumar (2014, p.140) as “...a purposeful, systematic and selective way of watching and listening to an interaction or phenomenon as it takes place”, lie at the heart of ethnographic research. They give insight into real life situations by allowing access to physical, human, interactional, and programme settings. As Morrison (1993) indicates, they help the researcher to understand the participants’ roles, their attitudes, and the relationships between them. Sources such as Denscombe (2003) and Cohen *et al.* (2011) refer to two types of perspectives that an observer can take: etic (non participant) and emic (participant); however other sources, for example Gold (1958), Wolcott (1988),

Adler and Adler (1994) and Angrosino and Rosenberg (2011) refer to a greater variety of roles summarised in Figure 3.2.

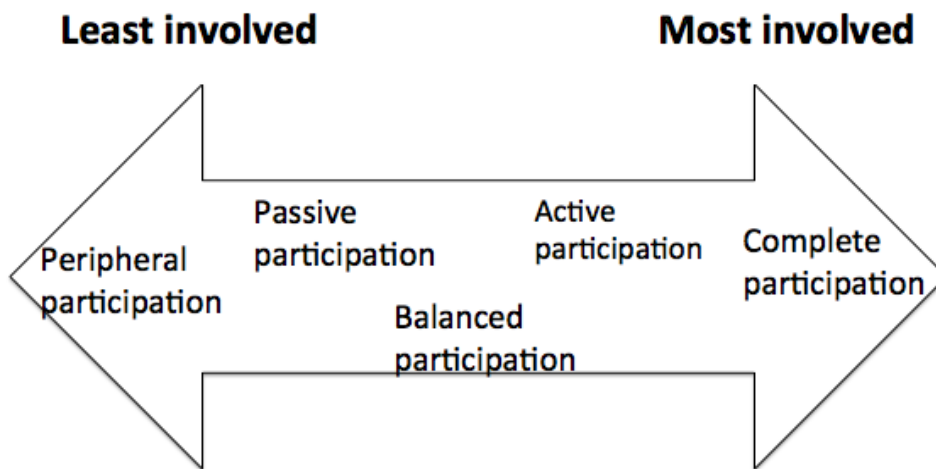


Figure 3.2 Observer's roles adapted from Angrosino and Rosenberg (2011)

As Punch (2009, p.157) explains, the choice of the role that the researcher adopts has its consequences "...for the level of obtrusiveness or unobtrusiveness involved in ethnographic data collection"; it also influences the way the researcher is perceived by the participants. My participation was mostly peripheral, with instances of active participation with some year groups (as specified in Table 3.5 for the pilot, and in Table 3.6 for the main study). Hence there was a mix of detachment with closeness. This is to follow Heigham and Croker (2009), who emphasise the value of the application of both perspectives simultaneously. This is due to the fact that being an insider allows the researcher to have a detailed view of the cultural practices from the perspectives of the participants; analysing the data from the point of view of an outsider helps the research to maintain impartiality. I only participated if the specialist teacher required my help. This was usually the case with Year 3 group, as they were the most challenging class for her in terms of behaviour.

The observation data was either audio recorded, if I was participating, or field notes were taken in class concurrently with the teacher delivering the content. I took notes either by hand or on a laptop. If I was acting as a participant,

additional typing took place immediately after the session, usually during breaks to ensure that everything was recorded promptly. In the main research site I initially focused my observations on the specialist teacher, and later on, due to circumstances described in 3.5.2 I observed non-specialists in year 6, 1 and R. I chose those year groups as the teachers were willing to offer provision during the specialist's absence. Additionally observations of non-MFL lesson took place in Year 1, 2, 5 and 6, as I managed to build a good rapport with those teachers, and such selection of the year groups gave me a good understanding of practice at KS1 and KS2 level. Examples of field notes can be found in Appendix D.

Year group	Teacher	Participant/ non participant	Lesson duration
4	Specialist	Non-participant	35 min
3	Specialist	Non-participant	40 min
6	Specialist	Non-participant	45 min
5	Specialist	Participant (audio-recorded)	35 min
1	Specialist	Participant	30 min
2	Specialist	Non-participant	20 min
R	specialist	Non-participant	10 min

Table 3.5 Specification of the sample for observations - the pilot.

Observations				
		Sample	Lessons	Total
MFL observations	Participant MFL observations	Year 3	2	4
		Year 6	1	
		Year R	1	
	Non-participant MFL observations MFL	Year R	3	16
		Year 1	3	
		Year 2	2	
		Year 3	0	
		Year 4	2	
		Year 5	2	
		Year 6	4	
Non-MFL observations		Year 1	1	4
		Year 2	1	
		Year 5	1	
		Year 6	1	
Specialist MFL observations		Year R	3	16
		Year 1	2	
		Year 2	2	
		Year 3	2	
		Year 4	2	
		Year 5	1	
		Year 6	4	
Non-specialist MFL observations		Year 6	1	4
		Year 1	2	
		Year R	1	
Audio recordings		Year R	1	3
		Year 3	1	
		Year 6	1	

Table 3.6 Observation sample - main study.

3.3.3 Diary

Following advice of such scholars as Spradley (1979), Kirk and Miller (1986) and Silverman (1993), the observational data I collected were followed up with diary entries, which included expanded notes as a reaction to initial observations, as well as providing a record of on-going analysis. Such detailed documentation of the process helps to guide me against any preconceptions I might have, as well as adding robustness to the research design. Hence a diary entry was made following each visit. I kept the research diary for a prolonged period of time to

document my thinking, my reactions to observed and lived situations, as well as how my ideas and interpretation formed over time. The diary therefore was a form of self-reflection, reflexivity, and a ‘statement of self’ record. A sample of diary entries (descriptive and reflective) can be found in Appendix E.

3.3.4 The choice of audio recording

As Fetterman (2010, p.70) explains:

“...ethnographers attempt to immerse themselves in the field, working with people rather than devices. Tools that free the ethnographer from recording devices, whether pen and paper or laptop computers, are welcome”.

I considered an audio recording device to be one such tool, and used it to record those lessons in which I acted as a participant (see Table 3.6). The audio recording served as a support mechanism for reflecting on classroom observations. Since the majority of teaching in MFL takes place on a whole class basis, one recorder was sufficient to capture enough data to allow for the analysis. The permission to audio record the lessons was discussed with the participants. The non-specialists did not express their willingness for their lessons to be audio-recorded, hence to follow ethics, only the specialist’s lessons were recorded. This is one of the reasons why I acted as participant observer only when the specialist was teaching.

Initially I considered the use of video-recording as a method of data collection. This was linked to the initial thinking behind the approach and design, which planned shorter immersion in the research context, similar to the approach advocated by Chambers and Bax (2006) and Ward (2007). With this design, the use of video recording would justify the shorter immersion, and produce rich data, especially during participant observations. Cohen *et al.* (2005), Hammersley and Atkinson (2007) and Fetterman (2010), confirm the advantage of rich and detailed description of classroom behaviours; they also enumerate such disadvantages as ethical threats, the burden and disruption that video might cause to school life, and the observer bias - Hawthorn effect. As Fetterman

(2010, p.80) advises, "...the fieldworker must weigh the expense of the equipment and the time required to use it against the value of the information it will capture". Hence, weighing the advantages of a more detailed description of classroom action, with the disadvantages of observer bias, camera effect and superficial understanding of cultural relationships, I made a decision to abandon video-recording and move closer to ethnography as understood in social sciences. The use of video-recording used in conjunction with longer immersion would, to my mind, not add anything new to the data, but rather disrupt the relationships that I was building and put me in the position of the outsider. This was not present in the main study as exemplified by the incident described in 3.5.2 (p.126).

3.4 The pilot

Having outlined the decisions made in relation to the paradigm, the approach and the methods, this section discusses the implementation of those principles and methods for the pilot. It commences with the choice and the detailed description of the sample, which allows for comparisons and enables generalisations following the discussion of the grounds for generalisability in 3.8. The section then proceeds to outline the results of the pilot, presented in relation to the suitability of the chosen methods and approach, and the suitability and the direction of further development of a model created as a result of immersion in the literature on CALL, MFL and TEL.

3.4.1 The selection and description of the pilot site

In order to research CALL in the primary context there needs to be MFL provision in place and the technology that is integrated into the subject. The pilot was conducted prior to the mandatory implementation of MFL hence, as Board and Tinsley's (2014) report indicates, the provision was not in place in every school. Therefore the main criterion for the selection of the school for the pilot and the main study was the presence of regular MFL teaching. At the time of the pilot, I did not have any preference as to who was responsible for teaching languages, how many languages were taught and what model was adopted; the

mere presence of regular teaching was sufficient. This, in the chosen school, was realised through the presence of the specialist teacher as defined by Sharpe (2001). The data in relation to ICT penetration in primary schools in England provided by Collie and Lewis (2011), BESA (2013) and Whyte *et al.* (2014), indicated that a lack of the presence of any form of ICT equipment did not present itself as a major issue. However, I gave preference to schools which had an IWB, and equipment that would allow one-to-one interaction, *i.e.* IWB and a suite, a set of laptops or iPads. This was done to gain a better understanding of teacher's choices for technology use for MFL.

The school was approached to participate *via* one of the governors, *i.e.* my work colleague, who offered to help with negotiating access. I sent an email with detailed explanation of the purpose of the study, as well as the description of the school's involvement to the headteacher. My email address was passed on to the specialist teacher responsible for language provision, who expressed her willingness to participate. The date for the visit was agreed upon with the teacher and confirmed with the headteacher *via* email.

The school was a primary school in the South East of England, at the time graded by Ofsted as good. It had 216 pupils on roll, with around twenty percent of children being EAL learners. There were 7 teachers employed in the delivery of the curriculum, and 7 TAs who supported that delivery. At the time of the visit, a specialist teacher was employed to deliver lessons across the Key Stages, extending the provision outside of the KS2 MFL entitlement. Lessons took place on Fridays when the specialist teacher came in to deliver a whole day of lessons. The only language that was taught officially was French. As Board and Tinsley (2015) indicate, giving priority to French is common in the South East England due to the area's proximity to France. Generalist teachers were not obliged to continue language provision, but were strongly encouraged by the headteacher to do so. Some teachers, in addition to the provision of formal French teaching, either continued practising what was covered in the official lesson with the children, or worked in cooperation with the specialist to finish any work that was not completed due to other factors (for example issues with behaviour) which

impacted the duration of the session and achievement of objectives. Additionally teachers with some knowledge of other languages incorporated short informal language lessons into the curriculum. Those sessions were more of what Moya (2014) describes as of sensitisation nature - there were no formal goals set in place and no formal syllabus to follow. There was a keen interest in moving away from the specialist model towards CLIL delivery that would involve delivering regular parts of the day in a foreign language, for example greetings, registers or even teaching PE through the medium of French (Hood and Tobutt, 2007).

All of the lessons delivered throughout one day were of different durations, as presented in the observation table (Table 3.5, p.110). The duration of the session was not dependant on language needs, but adapted to fit the school's timetable. Friday was an exceptional day, when general teachers were relieved for planning and that time was filled with lessons delivered by specialists, be it MFL or music. To ensure smooth transition between one session and the other, in KS2 the children changed classrooms instead of the teachers, while with KS1 the situation was reversed. Those arrangements seemed to work best as time was used most efficiently.

The school was well equipped in relation to ICT. There was enough equipment for every teacher to be able to use it regularly and IWB, present in every classroom, was used on a daily basis. Additionally there was a set of laptops available for teachers, some PCs for classroom use, and a PC suite with a set of computers for one class. The timetabling for the ICT suite was arranged in advance - each year group was assigned one slot per week when the suite was available for their use. For additional days, booking had to be made in advance. Having recognised the importance of ICT for their pupils' education, the headteacher also decided to invest in a set of iPads that were meant to be piloted the following school year.

The pilot took place on 18th May 2012 and lasted the entire school day with additional time for a formal interview with the headteacher. The description of,

and the rationale behind the methods that were piloted are discussed throughout section 3.3. While the pilot focused specifically on MFL teaching, during breaks between the lessons and while waiting for the MFL session, I had a chance to observe the delivery of other curricular areas. Hence I had a chance to observe small parts of how technology was utilised for literacy and numeracy. Those observations influenced the addition of another area of focus when progressing to the main study as explained in 3.4.3.

3.4.2 Pilot results

The pilot had two aims related to the methodology and the model. Firstly, the pilot aimed to test the suitability of the chosen approach and methods to answer the research questions. Following my philosophical position (3.1), as a result of immersion into the literature, and the resulting inability to detach myself from what I already know and present myself as a passive tool of data collection, I approached the pilot with some ideas in mind. Those ideas started to form an initial model, or ‘foreshadowed problems’ in 3.2, including the findings from the literature on technology integration in primary schools, language learning literature, as well as CALL findings. Hence another aim of the pilot was to analyse the collected data using thematic analysis described in 3.4 and then to compare it with the thinking that was presented in the form of the model to inform its further development. The results of the pilot are therefore discussed in relation to those two aspects.

3.4.2.1 Suitability of the approach and the methods

The ethnographic case study generated sufficient data to suggest that the approach and methods would be successful in answering the research questions, if a larger sample were collected. Interviews, both formal and informal, were a rich source of data and allowed for cross-comparisons of behaviours in formal and informal situations. The observations also provided that comparison between what the teachers and the management say they do, and what is actually observed in action, helping therefore in establishing pragmatic validity. The breaks between the sessions and the availability of a computer, allowed for

different opportunities to take notes and record my feelings and emotions that may have guided my understanding of the context. The reflective diary used after the data collection further guarded against any bias, and ensured robustness through me openly stating any perceptions.

3.4.2.2 The discussion of the suitability of the model in light of the collected data

The pyramid model below (Figure 3.3) was created out of engagement in the literature, as outlined throughout Chapter 2. Using AT as a framework I looked in the literature for possible tensions between the components of the activity system. Those were identified in the literature from the field of TEL as discussed throughout 2.2 and issues identified in relation to primary MFL provision discussed throughout 2.3. I also referred to CALL normalisation research literature outlined in Table 2.3 (p.28).

Figure 3.3 below presents the model that I created out of her engagement with the literature. I thought that such a depiction might lead toward an accurate representation of the route to normalisation. This sketch of a model served as a comparison tool once the data analysis had been completed.

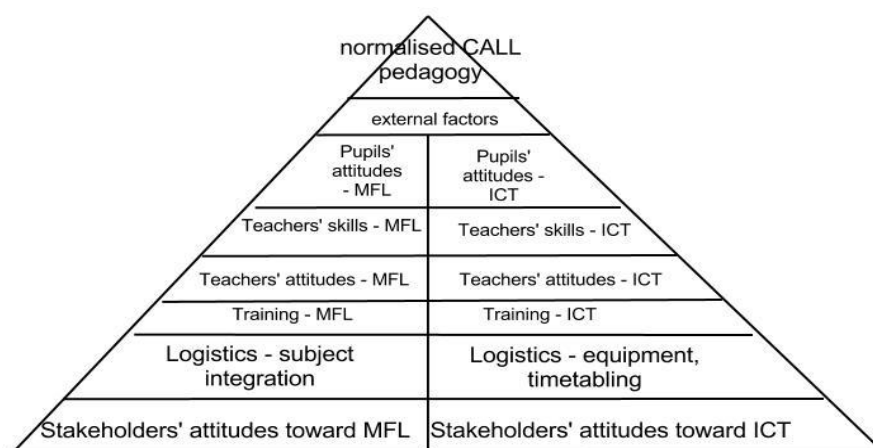


Figure 3.3 Initial pyramid model of normalisation of primary CALL

The analysed data revealed the following themes: stakeholders' attitudes, logistics, teachers' attitudes, pupils' attitudes, training, skills, and pedagogy. Those themes were also reported in the literature (Chambers and Bax, 2006; Ward, 2007; Mahdi, 2013) as factors causing obstacles to normalisation in general, and reflected some aspects of obstacles toward primary MFL teaching (Driscoll, 1999; Sharpe, 2001; Hunt, *et al.*, 2005; Tinsely and Board, 2012).

The importance of considering MFL and ICT independently represented in the model (Figure 3.3) was reflected in the pilot data. Following Buckingham (2007), the foundation of the model was thought to be stakeholders' attitudes as the driving force behind an implementation of language provision and ICT integration. This is expanded further on in 4.1 along with the bigger main study sample and greater immersion. The headteacher's support for both MFL and ICT resulted in regular MFL provision across the Key Stages, and a sufficient amount and range of available equipment. Logistical solutions implemented by the headteacher allowed for regular MFL teaching and availability of equipment. Each classroom was equipped with an IWB, which was used for every lesson by non-specialist teachers. Such technology as PCs or cameras was used when the pedagogical need for their integration emerged.

The theme of training also reoccurred across the data sets, and proved to be an important factor impeding integration. Lack of technological proficiency impeded integration for the specialist and a lack of linguistic fluency created obstacles to MFL teaching to non-specialists.

Teachers' and pupils' attitudes were also identified within the data set. Despite having the specialist responsible for provision, teachers' attitudes were still relevant in relation to continuation of teaching in the form of revision or completion of activities that were unfinished during official slots. The non-specialist teachers only continued the provision outside of allocated slots in a few cases. This discontinuation was due to a lack of confidence to teach the

subject, and a lack of time in the curriculum, especially for higher years of Key Stage 2. Similar reasons for ‘scattered’ provision were mentioned by Field (2001) and discussed in 2.3.3.

Pupils’ attitudes toward MFL were identified as important for normalisation. In the pilot school, the children were positively predisposed to languages, however, had mixed feelings about ICT integration into MFL. This is further elaborated on and explored in 6.4 using the larger main study sample.

While the themes are mirrored in the model, the order of the issues as represented in 3.4 could not always be predicted. While stakeholders’ attitudes could be identified as the starting point of integration, triggering the change, other categories were more problematic. It was not clear from the data or the available sources at what point pupils’ attitudes, or teachers’ attitudes, would influence normalisation. The data revealed several pressure points, each different depending on the occurrence of other factors within the school context. Also there were reciprocal relationships between the categories that were inadequately represented in the pyramid model. Most importantly, putting the factors in an order of relevance toward achieving normalisation would contradict the interpretive nature of the research by suggesting a more positivistic paradigm that relied on a survey. For those reasons I rejected the pyramid model as it was inadequate for the chosen methodology, and I had to create and apply an alternative from the more in-depth data collected in the main study, which better reflected the complexities of a sociocultural perspective on CALL normalisation.

The discussion of the results above is brief, as the presentation of the data had the aim of highlighting the aspects included in the model and how they relate to the model. The limitations of one-day immersion in the context left me asking more questions that needed to be explored in the main study. This is especially in relation to generalists whose experiences needed greater attention. This also reinforced the need for a change in methodological design and focus. The data

from the pilot are referred to in the main study, as there is an overlap between the findings from the pilot and the main study.

3.4.3 Summary of the changes made to the main study

The pilot focused primarily on shadowing the specialist teacher who was employed by the headteacher to deliver the lessons across the Key Stages. Informal conversations with non-specialists, peripherally involved in MFL teaching, revealed issues that this particular group faces. Hence for the purpose of the main study, to accurately reflect the complexities of MFL teaching, the focus needed to be shifted more heavily towards the non-specialists from the specialist. Hence as explained in 3.5.1, the choice of the sample for the main study should include one more criterion, *i.e.* non-specialist involvement in MFL delivery. With the curriculum changes and financial restraints placed on schools, in many cases this particular group has been responsible for the delivery since September 2014. As Board and Tinsley (2015) point out, currently over seventy percent of schools leave MFL provision in the hands of generalists.

While the focus of the study remains the same, *i.e.* normalisation of primary CALL, the ‘incidental’ opportunity to experience a glimpse of non-specialists delivering the core curriculum opened a new area that needed to be explored further. The non-specialists’ level of confidence with ICT made me interested in the effect Content Knowledge (CK) (Koehler and Mishra, 2009) may have on how technology is utilised. This exploration of areas outside of the focus is referred to in the ethnographic literature as ‘accidental ethnography’ (Rodgers, 2007; Fuji, 2014) and defined by Fuji (2014, p.1) as

“...paying systematic attention to the unplanned moments that take place outside an interview, survey, or other structured methods. In these moments the researcher might hear a surprising story or notice an everyday scene she had previously overlooked.”

Following this interesting finding in relation to specialist and non-specialist technology use observed in the pilot, I needed to explore and compare how non-specialists use technology for subjects they were qualified to teach, and for those

where the subject is outside of their comfort zone, namely MFL. This shift adds to the uniqueness of the study. While there are studies, such as Whyte *et al.* (2014), that look into how novice and experienced teachers integrate technology, or how specialist and non-specialists teach languages (conducted by Driscoll (1999) and Hunt *et al.* (2005)), there appears to be a lack of research - particularly in the field of CALL - that considers specialists and non-specialists and ICT integration. Hence examining how those two groups approach technology integration for MFL is of interest for the research, and crucial to fully understanding obstacles to normalisation of primary CALL.

3.5 The main study

This section focuses on providing information in relation to the main study. Hence it outlines the choice of the sample and provides a detailed description of the research school. The detailed description of the school is provided for the purposes of generalisability. This is following Pring's (2005) advice that a careful description of the school's characteristics allows for comparisons between schools and the generalisability of results. The aspects of generalisability are discussed separately in 3.8.

3.5.1 The choice and description of research sample

The process of choosing the sample for the main study was similar to the pilot, *i.e.* purposive sampling with instances of convenience sampling (Dorneyi, 2007). The research sample was chosen according to two main criteria - regular MFL provision being in place, and non-specialists' involvement in the delivery. Due to the planned intensity of the study, and the effect it might have on my working cycle and economic wellbeing, there was a preference to contact schools close to my area of residence. Hence those schools in the area that had MFL provision in place were contacted in the first instance, spreading the search results onto the wider area. Careful analysis of prospectuses of schools in the county (South-East England) available on the local authority website, allowed the identification of schools which had regular KS2 MFL provision. I contacted those schools via email. Additional emails were sent to several schools, which did not mention

KS2 languages in their prospectuses, to check whether the information supplied was correct; however, the replies indicated that in fact no provision was in place. It was assumed then that was the case in other instances, and for that reason I focused only on those schools which explicitly stated MFL in any documentation available online.

I sent an introductory email in the first instance to ten schools in the closest proximity to my home address, briefly explaining the purpose of the research and the nature of school's participation. The email was addressed either directly to the headteacher or sent to the general school administrator with a request for it to be passed over for the headteacher's consideration. I received a reply from the specialist teacher from the chosen school within a week expressing interest in participation; hence there was an element of sample self-selection (Dorneyi, 2007). A short meeting was set with the teacher responsible for language provision to determine whether sufficient data could be collected using this particular school as a research site, and the course of the research, *i.e.* the number and the schedule of visits agreed (see 3.5.2). Following the results from the pilot it was necessary to include a school which had non-specialist teachers delivering languages. The specialist clarified during the first meeting that there were other teachers involved in languages who fit into the non-specialist category as defined by Sharpe (2001), and explained in 2.3.3.

The school is located in the South East of England with 228 students on roll (seven year groups), with an above average percentage of English as an Additional Language (EAL) learners (over thirty percent). Board and Tinsley's (2015) survey shows that EAL children are still excluded from languages, as developing their communication skills takes priority and the focus on another language is thought to impede that progress. This was, however, not the case in the researched school. Due to its multinational nature, the school committed itself to celebrating different cultures through strategies including, but going beyond, taught languages; for this the school received an International School Award. The school was rated by Ofsted as good at the time of the research.

The school employed a specialist teacher, who was concurrently a part-time staff member. The specialist's main responsibility was coordinating and delivering language lessons to both KS1 and KS2 learners, and also providing cover to a teacher in Year 3 during 'preparation, planning and assessment' time, which comprised half a day per week. Due to her minimal engagement in other subjects, the teacher is still considered to be a specialist in this thesis as per Sharpe's (2001) definition. Having a specialist MFL teacher responsible for provision is not common in England. Board and Tinsley (2015) report that over seventy percent of schools leave the provision in the hands of the non-specialists, however, over twenty percent of those schools offer specialist support to generalists. What ought to be pointed out however, is that while Board and Tinsley's (2014, 2015) reports offer statistical data, the sample is still relatively low (twenty six percent of respondents), and largely focused on the South East.

The specialist teacher's sessions took place during one day per week when the lessons were delivered across the Key Stages. The duration of the lessons is presented in Table 3.6. This introduction of MFL outside of statutory provision is becoming more common and, according to the recent *Language Trends survey* (Board and Tinsley, 2015), is practised by forty nine percent of surveyed schools. The school introduced two languages - Spanish (Reception to Year 5) and French in Year 6. The reason for the late addition of French was linked to secondary school arrangements where French (along with German) was mainly taught. The provision model adopted for both languages was the competence model as defined in 2.3.3. Other teachers were not obliged to teach MFL, however they were encouraged to do so. There was regular language teaching in Year 6 delivered by a non-specialist teacher, either as part of team teaching with the specialist or as an extension of practice during the week to make the KS2/KS3 transition easier. This is a step toward cooperation between primary and secondary schools in relation to smooth transition, noted in the latest *Language Trends survey* (Board and Tinsley, 2015) as an area that is increasingly being addressed by the schools. Outside of Year 6, additional

language sessions were not a common occurrence in KS2 in the researched school. There were more instances of language provision, especially in lower year groups, which was mostly encouraged by the TAs using materials provided by the specialist.

Year	4	3	6	5	1	2	R
Lesson duration	20 min	35 min	45 min	40 min	25 min	25 min	25 min

Table 3.7 Duration of specialist lessons in the research school.

Apart from regular teaching, the children in Year 6 had the opportunity to visit France. From my experience this is frequent practice in the South East area due to the geographical proximity to France, which was also the case with the pilot school. This happened once a year with each Year 6 group and served as an opportunity to use the language skills attained for real communication. Part of the Year 6 MFL syllabus aimed to prepare children for this, and was centred on communicative tasks that mirrored interactions students would have abroad, mirroring therefore CLT principles described by Larsen-Freeman and Anderson (2013) and elaborated on in 2.3.6.

The school had ‘standard’ equipment available to support teaching and learning, namely an IWB in every classroom and an additional one in the ICT suite. The equipment is referred to as standard due to the statistics implying that 100% of primary schools in England have at least one IWB (Whyte *et al.*, 2014). As indicated by Ofsted (2011b), there was a tendency for schools to move away from suites toward more integrated teaching with ICT, realised through investment in laptops or handheld devices. This, however, had not yet taken place in the research school. The ICT suite was equipped with 20 PCs; there were also additional PCs in some of the classrooms. Laptops were mostly used by the teachers for administrative purposes and in conjunction with the IWB, and were not available for the children. Additionally, the teachers used visualisers, OHP projectors and cameras.

3.5.2 The duration of the research

The research started on 1st March 2013 and finished on 15th July 2013. The initial meeting with the specialist teacher clarified that the majority of MFL teaching takes place on Thursdays, with some follow up work done by individual teachers. Hence initially the visits focused on observing and getting to know the specialist teacher across the year groups, with visits predominantly on Thursdays. Later on, I focused mainly on observations of three year groups: Year 1, Year R (Reception) and Year 6, with some observations of Year 5 for non-MFL lessons, while visits were shortened to half days (as presented in Table 3.8). The purpose of introducing more half-day visits was to move closer to the ethnographic approach as understood by Hammerlsey and Atkinson (2007), *i.e.* prolonged immersion in a culture and the establishment of closer relationships with the teachers and the children, so as to be perceived as part of their culture but with reduced disruption to my professional life.

As explained above I started the observations with the specialist, with an intention to follow non-specialists later on in the project. As the specialist was responsible for the provision of MFL, I wanted to understand her attitudes and practice first, only later on comparing it with the non-specialists' experiences of CALL. Hence the observations of non-specialists took place half way through the research. This shift to focusing on non-specialists was also necessitated by school circumstances. Soon after the commencement of the summer term the specialist teacher became seriously ill and had to be hospitalised. As a result of the specialist's hospitalisation, she was no longer able to teach until the next school year. To an extent, this put the responsibility for provision on the non-specialists, who received the support of the specialist through advice on suitable resources. While some support was there, the majority of teachers decided to opt out of MFL until the end of the year. The Year 6 teacher continued with more formal teaching, and some sporadic provision was present in Year R and Year 1. Those year groups were the focus of the observations toward the end of the research.

Date	Duration	Purpose of the visit
1.03.2013	half a day	informal interview with the specialist teacher, discussion of the research, discussion about MFL and CALL, introduction to the school, other teachers and administrators, initial non-participant observations
8.03.2013	1.5 hours	A meeting with the headteacher and the staff, discussion of the consent form, presentation of the documents to the headteacher, agreeing on the access with the head, informal conversations with the staff
14.03.2013	full day	informal interviews with the specialist and other teachers, MFL observations across the year groups (participant and non participant + instances of main curriculum lessons) - 7 MFL lessons
25.04.2013	full day	informal interviews with the specialist and non-specialist teachers MFL observations of 5 year groups (participant and non-participant), observations of main curriculum lessons (1 lesson)
2.05.2013	full day	informal interviews with the non specialist teachers observations (participant and non-participant) of 4 MFL lessons observations of 1 non MFL lesson
9.05.2013	1 hour	Conversation with the headteacher and other teachers to discuss the visits during the specialist's hospitalisation
22.05.2013	1 hour	Conversations with non-specialist teachers agreeing on dates for observations
10.06.2013	half a day	formal interview with the head non-participant MFL observations of 2 year groups
20.06.2013	half a day	formal interview with a non-specialist teacher non-participant observations of 2 year groups - 1 MFL (1 MFL and other lesson)
1.07.2013	half a day	informal interviews with other teachers formal interview with the specialist observations of non-specialists (1 MFL and 1 other lesson) 2 year groups
10.07.2013	half a day	observations and interviews with the children - 4 year groups instances of observations of other lessons
15.07.2013	1 hour	Final visit – a thank you and goodbye to all the teachers and the headteacher

Table 3.8 Summary of school visits.

Overall there were eight visits that focused on the collection of lesson observation data, alongside the interviews, as outlined in Table 3.3 (p.106). Such prolonged immersion could eliminate the issues related to the Hawthorn effect (Cohen *et al.*, 2005), as well as the consequences of being an outsider. Initially I was perceived by the children as an Ofsted inspector, as they openly asked about this, and reassured me they felt safe at school. After three visits, I started to be perceived by the children as a staff member and participant of their culture. Children started to recognise my ‘language teaching role’ at school, as exemplified by the diary entry below:

“I parked the car on the street close to the school and started walking towards the gate. Many children around, I actually recognise some of them now. One of the girls from the nightmare Year 3 shouts as I’m passing by: “She’s teaching us again?!”

Similarly, toward the end of the immersion period I felt better integrated with the teaching team. At the stage of signing the consent forms, it was emphasised to the teachers that I wanted to understand how they use technology for languages, but was also there to help to assist with lessons. Initially that offer was rarely taken up, however, this changed toward the end of the research, as my involvement in assisting with teaching was greater.

Apart from visits where I observed and/or participated in lessons, there were four administrative visits, as indicated in Table 3.8. Those visits were made mostly to negotiate further access, but were also treated as opportunities for data collection and to reinforce my position as the member of the culture.

3.6 Method of data analysis

The method of analysing qualitative data, and the decisions that went into choosing the appropriate method, is an important part of showing the cohesion and reliability of an interpretive study. As Braun and Clarke (2006) point out, this aspect is often omitted – inadvertently or otherwise - by qualitative

researchers. According to Murphy and Rodrigues-Manzanares (2008) the most common way of analysing data from research that applies Activity Theory (AT) as a lens, is through relating to Engeström's (2001) framework and discussing the data in relation to different components of the activity system as exemplified by Hu and Webb (2009). However, researchers such as Barab *et al.* (2002) or Basharina (2007) leaned toward thematic coding. Boyatzis (1998), Attride-Stirling (2001) and Roulston (2001) imply that thematic analysis is the most popular method of analysis used in qualitative research. Widely used as the method is, it is also criticised on the grounds of validity, lacking sophistication, belonging to a descriptive or positivist tradition hence lacking interpretive analysis (Braun and Clarke, 2014) and being unstructured. It is especially because of the lack of structure that TA is associated with early career researchers, who are not proficient or comfortable enough with other methods. Braun and Clarke (2014) and Braun, Clarke and Terry (2014) explain that this criticism stems from lack of understanding of TA and how it developed. Tuckett (2005) associates this lack of acknowledgement of the value of TA with lack of agreement on what thematic analysis actually is, and what procedures should be present when conducting it. Braun and Clarke (2006, p.5, citing Antaki *et al.*, 2002) explain that because of an absence of guidelines, thematic analysis is treated in a similar way to how qualitative research might be perceived by positivists – "...anything goes".

TA has many advantages. Clarke and Braun (2013) consider flexibility to be the main advantage of TA – flexibility with the question type, type of data, size of the data sets and theory. Additionally, TA is suitable for more applied research. As Braun and Clarke (2014: NA) explain it "...offers a toolkit for researchers who want to do robust and even sophisticated analyses of qualitative data, but yet focus and present them in a way which is readily accessible to those who aren't part of academic communities". Since the findings of this research have practical implications for practitioners, this aspect of TA is very attractive.

While flexibility, especially theoretical flexibility (Braun, Clarke and Terry, 2014) is treated here as an advantage, lack of clear guidelines can be considered a flaw. In order for that flexibility not to be mixed with ‘sloppiness’, there are certain decisions that need to be made before and during the process of analysis. Braun and Clarke (2006) took the task of outlining the decisions that a researcher needs to make and through that created a robust, systematic framework for data analysis. They concern:

1. the definition of a theme
2. the focus of description
3. the type of analysis
4. the type of themes (the level of analysis)

Braun, Clarke and Terry (2014) emphasise that this decision making process allows the researcher to determine their own version of TA and draws attention to the researcher’s active role in the analysis. I explore those options and outline my decisions below.

The first decision relates to what actually constitutes a theme. While Fereday and Muir-Cochrane (2006) seem to emphasise recognition of a pattern as an important characteristic of a theme, Braun and Clarke (2006, p.82) define it as capturing “...something important about the data in relation to the research question, and representing some level of patterned response or meaning within the data set”. Hence, frequency of occurrence is not the main indicator of a theme or a code, as in the case of content analysis. In the present thesis, a theme was a pattern reappearing within and across the data sets relevant to the research questions, hence I considered the aspect of frequency. Additionally, a theme provided a good link to the research questions, explained the relationships between other themes and served as an overarching umbrella description that incorporated the relevant codes. I developed the codes as a result of a six-stage process, outlined in Braun and Clarke (2006) and presented in Table 3.9. A worked example of the process of theme development is presented in Chapter 4.

Phase	Description
Familiarizing oneself with the data	Takes place at the stage of analysis through reading and re-reading the data sets
Generating initial codes	Noting down initial codes, items reoccurring within the sets and across the sets relating to the research question(s). The process of data reduction or data simplification takes place.
Searching for themes	Looking for broader patterns, looking at the relationships between the codes and the theme and between the themes.
Reviewing themes	The researcher refines the existing themes, focusing on interesting aspects of a theme and relationships. This stage covers two aspects: checking for cohesion of patterns and validity of themes and their connection to the data set.
Defining and naming themes	By naming the themes the researcher analyses the data within a theme. Each theme should be described in one sentence and the name should reflect its content and its importance.
Producing the report	Those themes which contribute to answering research questions are included in the main report. The thick description of the themes and how they relate to the data forms to tell a coherent story.

Table 3.9 Summary of phases of thematic analysis adapted from Braun and Clarke (2006).

Another decision I had to make relates to point 2, *i.e.* focus of the description. Braun and Clarke (2006) advise that the researcher needs to make a choice between a ‘rich description’ of the data set, or a ‘detailed account’ of one particular aspect. A rich description of the data set provides the reader with an overall understanding of what the entire data set represents; an approach often used in cases where little is known about the participants’ views. Detailed description on the other hand, is particularly useful when some participants’ views might be known, or the themes might relate to a specific research question. The purpose of the thesis is linked to Research Question 2 (p.8) – identifying factors impeding normalisation. While little is known about primary CALL specifically, the evidence that relates to issues with MFL (discussed in 2.3) and TEL (2.2) is there, and as Chapter 4 illustrates, relates to the field of

primary CALL. For those two reasons I decided to focus on ‘detailed description’.

As indicated in point 3, the third choice refers to the type of analysis. Braun and Clarke (2006) claim that themes within the data can be identified in either an inductive or a theoretical way. An inductive coding process, contrary to the theoretical, refers to coding that is not linked to any pre-existing framework that might guide the researcher. However such sources as Fereday and Muir-Cochrane (2006) and Blackstone, (2012) advocate the use of both, inductive and theoretical coding. I approached the data with what Hammersley and Atkinson (2007) refer to as ‘foreshadowed problems’ (presented in Figure 3.3, p.117). Hence, I had a set of possible codes identified from past normalisation research in mind (Table 2.8). However, at the same time I did not neglect unanticipated codes arising from the data that did not fit the framework. The process of coding was therefore an amalgam of theoretical and inductive coding. According to Blackstone (2012, section 2.3) combining both approaches offers “...a more complete understanding of the topic that a researcher is studying”.

Boyatzis (1998, quoted in Braun and Clarke, 2006) suggests that the final choice has to be made in relation to the level of analysis between a semantic or latent approach. Braun and Clarke (2006, p.84) explain that in the semantic approach:

“...the themes are identified within the explicit or surface meanings of the data, and the analyst is not looking for anything beyond what a participant has said or what has been written”.

In the latent approach the situation is to the contrary, as the researcher:

“...starts to identify or examine the underlying ideas, assumptions and conceptualisations – and ideologies – that are theorised as shaping or informing the semantic content of the data”

(Braun and Clarke, 2006, p.84)

Since the ethnographic researcher's task is to develop empathy towards the participants to be able to interpret how they understand their experience, emotions, feelings and motives that drive them, the analysis should include latent themes. This level of analysis also tends to be associated with constructionist epistemology, which underlies the philosophical stance I adopted (3.1), and hence is better suited for the analysis of the data collected for this thesis. The summary of choices made and applied in the present study is provided in Table 3.10.

I made a choice to not use technology to help with the analysis of collected data. Researchers such as Basit (2003) and Jones (2007) point out that qualitative analysis is a long, laborious and demanding process. While there are benefits to digital intervention, *i.e.* the speed with which it can take place, better data management and greater flexibility, Jones (2007, p.8) points out it can lead to "...methodological impurities... and distance the researcher from their research by providing a buffer between the person and their data". As Jones (2007) argues, technology is more suited for counting instances of text as it appears in the data, which makes it more suited for content analysis. Thematic analysis demands the data to be interpreted through the researcher, her knowledge and experience. There is a danger for some of that meaning to remain undiscovered if software was used.

Decision to be made	Description	Researcher's choice
Epistemology	<p>Essentialist/ realist – theorising motivations and meaning in a straightforward way because of the direct relationship between meaning/ experience and language</p> <p>Constructionist – meaning and experience does not come from individuals but is socially produced; analysis does not focus on individual motivations but sociocultural contexts (Braun and Clarke, 2006)</p>	Constructionist
Description	<p>Rich description of the data set – identified themes need be an accurate representation of the entire data set, focus on predominant themes; loss of depth and complexity in exchange of overall richness of description; useful when looking at new area of research where general attitudes are not known</p> <p>Detailed account of particular aspect – looking closely at specific themes within the data (for example particular question or area of interest within the data) (Braun and Clarke, 2006)</p>	Detailed account of particular aspects
Type of analysis	<p>Inductive – themes linked to the data; data not driven by researcher’s interest in the topic, data is not coded to fit predetermined theoretical frame</p> <p>Theoretical - driven by the researcher’s interest, analysis is more focused on specific part of the data rather than providing overall rich description (Braun and Clarke, 2006)</p>	Theoretical (+inductive)
Level of analysis	<p>Semantic themes – aims at description (to interpretation); themes “identified within the explicit or surface meanings (Braun and Clarke, 2006, p.13)</p> <p>Latent themes - goes beyond the semantic meanings and looks at underlying attitudes and reasons that informed semantic themes</p>	Latent

Table 3.10 Summary of choices to consider in thematic analysis adopted from Braun and Clarke (2006).

3.7 Justifying truth produced in interpretive paradigm

As interpretive researchers reject the positivistic idea of one objective truth and believe in the existence of multiple truths and multiple realities, this presents qualitative researchers with a dilemma summarised by Sandberg (2005, p.45-46) as:

“At the same time as advocates of interpretive research deny the possibility of producing objective knowledge, they want to claim that the knowledge they generate is true in some way or another. But how can they justify their knowledge as true if they deny the idea of objective truth?”

The dilemma then raises the epistemological issue of suitable criteria that can be used in order to justify the knowledge produced in interpretive research (Altheide and Johnson, 1994). As Sandberg (2005) points out, there is a tendency to apply phenomenological principles when legitimising research as interpretive, but when it comes to justifying the results as true, a shift towards a positivistic research tradition occurs. This might cause issues as the positivistic criteria do not align with the ontology and epistemology underlying qualitative research. This especially refers to the use of such terms as ‘validity’ and ‘reliability’ as Lincoln and Guba (1985) and Seale (1999) link those terms to positivism and consider them to be inaccurate for interpretive research. Hence criticism of the term ‘validity’ and ‘reliability’ triggered the emergence of new criteria such as credibility, neutrality, consistency or transferability mentioned by Lincoln and Guba (1985), trustworthiness advocated by Seale (1999) or Finlay’s (2006) concept of artistry. However, the majority of those terms seem to be adapted from the positivistic paradigm, thus they might appear to serve as a substitute that can be dismissed by positivists as not being a reliable and valid one. Guba and Lincoln (quoted in Sandberg, 2005, p.59) point out that even if adjustments are made to current positivist assumptions so as to fit interpretive principles “...there remains a feeling of constraint, a feeling of continuing to play ‘in the friendly confines’ of the opposition’s home court”. Wachtenhouser (2002) (cited in Sandberg, 2005) dismisses the idea that it is in fact the rejection of objective truth that raises problems for interpretivists in relation to producing valid and reliable knowledge, but rather that it poses important questions in relation to the meaning (as opposed to naming) behind previously mentioned criteria. According to Sandberg (2005, p.47) an objective positivistic idea of truth cannot be achieved in qualitative research, however, since what seems to unify many interpretive approaches is their phenomenological base, “...truth

claims are feasible using criteria consistent with the basic assumptions underlying a research approach”. Hence rather than rename, adopt and adjust, there is a need to develop validity and reliability criteria that are in line with the philosophical reasoning behind the tradition. Sandberg’s (2005) redefined criteria discussed in 3.7.1 and 3.7.2 are applied in this thesis.

While Sandberg (2005) developed the criteria from a study that adopted a phenomenological approach, phenomenological philosophy underlies all interpretive research. As Crotty (1998, p.67) points out, “...interpretivism, looks for culturally derived and historically situated interpretations of the social life-world”. Hence even though the present study uses an ethnographic case study as an approach, phenomenological principles apply, and therefore Sandberg’s (2005) criteria and justification for them are valid in this thesis.

3.7.1 Theory behind Sandberg’s validity and reliability criteria: the definitions of truth in interpretive research

Sandberg (2005, p.47) sees “...truth as relative to the ontological and epistemological assumptions underlying the interpretive research tradition”. In order to redefine validity and reliability, a discussion of phenomenological assumptions of ‘life-world’ and ‘intentionality’, as basic criteria underlying interpretive tradition, needs to follow. The discussion of basic phenomenological assumptions merges into the discussion of theories of truth that relate to those assumptions, serving as the theoretical background to validity and reliability in this study.

The Husserlian concept of ‘life-world’ (*Lebenswelt*) can be explained as the subject’s direct experience and perception of reality experienced in subjective everyday life, *i.e.* the “...locus of interaction between ourselves and our perceptual environments and the world of experienced horizons within which we meaningfully dwell together” (von Eckartsberg, 1998, quoted in Finlay, 2008, p.1), or a world “...that appears meaningfully to consciousness in its qualitative, flowing given-ness; not an objective world ‘out there’, but a humanly relational world” (Todres *et al.*, 2006, quoted in Finlay, 2008, p.1). As Sandberg (2005) argues, the concept itself is objective as it relates to the intersubjective world,

which is shared with others and constantly redefined through negotiations of meaning. The agreed meaning is the intersubjective reality, which is thought to be objective as not coming from the self, but being negotiated with others. Hence it is not completely tied to perceptions, but mixed with the meaning that comes from the object in question.

Sandberg (2005, p.48) defines the concept of 'intentionality' as the idea of 'consciousness being intentional' and "...always directed towards something other than itself"; as Finlay (2008, p.2) explains, it is "...consciousness of something". Therefore the meaning of what one experiences does not come solely from the subject, neither does it come from the object but rather:

"... the qualities of the object transcend the subject (...) Thus the intentional character of consciousness has a constitutive power. It constitutes the meaning of reality, that is, the meaning of reality that appears to us in our experience."

(Sandberg, 2005, p.48)

Accepting the principles of 'life-world' and 'consciousness as intentional' as underlying the interpretive tradition, in order to identify criteria that justify truth produced in the interpretive paradigm, I need to examine the theories of truth that are in accordance with those principles. In the positivistic tradition the notion of correspondence of theory to truth is accepted as the only way of knowledge justification. That correspondence refers to the extent to which an issue under investigation corresponds to objective reality that is being investigated. Lyotard (1991, quoted in Sandberg, 2005, p.49) defines truth in the interpretive tradition as "...lived experience of truth - this is evidence". In the interpretive tradition then, truth is dependent on the subjects' experiences of the phenomenon; hence truth is achieved in terms of intentional fulfilment.

Truth as intentional fulfilment is achieved when the researcher's initial interpretation of the phenomenon in question agrees with the meaning that is being given to it in 'lived experience'. As Sandberg (2005) points out, this interpretation might appear to be similar to positivistic idea of correspondence of theory and truth. However, the difference between the two concepts lies in how

the correspondence is achieved. In the positivist tradition the researcher's statement and the objective reality are being matched. With truth as intentional fulfilment, the matching process places the researcher between the initial interpretation and the actual experience, hence it does not represent positivistic epistemology.

While various phenomenological philosophers such as Husserl, Heidegger or Derrida agree on the idea of truth as intentional fulfilment, as Sandberg (2005) points out, the way it is achieved is a source of disputes. According to Husserl, truth is accomplished through perceived fulfilment; Heidegger - fulfilment in practice and Derrida - indeterminate fulfilment. Perceived fulfilment is achieved through observing a phenomenon in a variety of situations. Fulfilment in practice adds to the observation a first-hand experience. For Derrida the meaning of reality is indeterminate, hence treating the reality as a text the researcher must deconstruct in any possible way to experience indeterminate fulfilment of its meaning (Sandberg, 2005).

Sandberg (2005), Guba and Lincoln (1989) and Smith and Deemer (2000) propose using those three ideas of truth in relation to one another. According to Sandberg (2005) the 'truth constellation' that emerges allows for correction of knowledge claims, and as a result gives a more accurate picture of the issue, ridding the researcher of the problem that Schrag (1992) describes as multiple truth claims. Hence in this thesis Sandberg's (2005) three theories of truth are seen as complementing each other and creating a 'truth constellation'. Based on those theories further discussion of validity and reliability of the current research takes place, as it directly corresponds to aspects of the 'truth constellation'.

While numerous researchers rejected the use of the terms 'validity' and 'reliability,' as they may indicate a belonging to the positivistic tradition, I agree with Sandberg (2005) that it is not the naming itself that causes issues, but rather the concept behind the term that is derived from the quantitative paradigm. Hence I use the terms validity and reliability; however, what they denote, and the theoretical principles behind them are re-examined in 3.7.2 and 3.7.3.

3.7.2 Validity

Before I explain how I established validity, the meaning of validity in interpretive research needs to be discussed. For the purpose of this research Sandberg's (2005, p.58) definition of validity as "...how we as researchers, can justify that our interpretations are truthful to the lived experience within the theoretical and methodological perspectives taken" is adopted. The three theories of truth described above, namely truth as intentional fulfilment, truth as fulfilment in practice and truth from deconstruction, refer to the three types of validity adopted in this research. What is proposed then by Sandberg (2005), is that there are three types of validity corresponding to each truth theory - communicative validity corresponding to the Husserlian perspective, pragmatic validity linked to Heidegger, and transgressive validity linked to Derrida. The discussion in this section focuses on the elaboration of each type and practical strategies adopted in the present study that ensured each type of validity was established, both at research level, and at the stage of data analysis. While Sandberg (2005) enumerated more opportunities to establish each type at each stage, I only focused on those I was capable of achieving given the circumstances.

Communicative validity allows the researcher to get to know the truth by observing and listening to people's experiences (Sandberg, 2005). One of its strengths is that it allows the researcher to check the coherence of accounts. Its weakness on the other hand is its focus on consistencies, omitting therefore possible discrepancies between different accounts. Communicative validity was achieved at the research level using two techniques. First of all, following Apel's (1972, cited in Sandberg, 2005) advice, I established a 'community of interpretation' where there is a mutual understanding about the purpose of the research and the scope of participants' involvement. This is an ethical requirement and took place before the commencement of the study. What needs to be mentioned in relation to establishing the 'community of interpretation' and the explanation of the purpose of the study is the language that I used to

communicate the aims of the research. While the research deals with such concepts as 'CALL' and 'normalisation,' those concepts were foreign to the participants. Having recognised that, when referring to CALL I referred to 'ICT for MFL' or technology integration for MFL, which are terms widely used in the context of primary MFL in England, used by such researchers as Sharpe (2001), Macrory *et al.* (2012). The concept of normalisation was discussed in terms of effective use of technology and part of regular practice. The replacement of the terms with descriptive explanations created common ground for understanding the purpose of my visits and the role of the participants. Secondly, the interview dialogue commenced with open-ended questions, allowing for better opportunities to listen about participant's experience and analyse accordingly. At the analysis level I looked for coherence within and between the data sets, as well as discussing the findings with other specialists in the field. This was done through contact with the communities of practice of which I am a member, and at specialist conferences.

Sandberg (2005) links pragmatic validity to achieving truth according to Heidegger's notion of 'fulfilment in practice'. It adds an aspect of participation to the observations carried out to establish communicative validity; as Kvale (1996) and Tse *et al.* (2004) explain, it allows the researcher to test the knowledge in action. Hence it not only refers to listening to people's accounts, but also to having a first-hand experience of the phenomenon in question. Similarly to communicative validity, pragmatic validity looks at coherence. However, the comparison takes place between what the participants say they do and what they actually do in practice, complimenting therefore communicative validity. The weakness again is focus on identifying consistent interpretations, omitting possible discrepancies that are significant. Pragmatic validity was achieved in the present study through adopting two strategies: first of all, through the choice of participant observations I had an opportunity to actively participate in the studied culture; and secondly, I adopted Freudian techniques of observing participant's reaction to a particular misinterpretation of their statements, and asking follow up questions in an interview situation to allow for

better comparisons, as recommended by Kvale (1996), and used by Tse *et al.* (2004) and Sandberg (2005). At the stage of data analysis, pragmatic validity was established through the comparison of available interview and observation data in relation to the subjects' views and how those views translated into practice.

Researchers such as Tse *et al.* (2004) focus solely on achieving communicative and pragmatic validity. This, however, leads to a problem that Cohen *et al.* (2003) describe as common for ethnographic research, which tends to focus on familiarity. The problems arising from focusing purely on communicative validity and pragmatic validity, which both strive for coherence of interpretations, can be overcome through considering those two in conjunction with the last type, *i.e.* transgressive validity. Transgressive validity, in line with Derrida's notion of deconstruction, focuses on ambiguities and discrepancies in the studied text, omitting the aspect of coherence. 6 and Bellamy (2012, p.261) explain that transgressive validity is achieved when "...our constructs are found to be robust against alternative ones, or if they can be synthesised from constructs developed by means of rival approaches". At the stage of the analysis, transgressive validity was achieved when I looked for contradictions in the accounts. Those contradictions were openly stated, and to some extent associated with observer bias (Chapter 4).

Sandberg's (2005) three validity types present a coherent 'truth constellation' that can serve as a basis for justifying knowledge produced in the interpretive paradigm as true and valid. The truth constellation allows the elimination of the weaknesses of one validity type and reinforces the strengths of the other. It allows exploration of a phenomenon from different angles, providing a better picture of the experienced culture. The table below (Table 3.11) provides a summary of the discussion of practical implications of those theoretical concepts on the present research.

Type	Establishing at research level	Establishing at the analysis level
Communicative validity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> the participants were briefed about the purpose of the study a dialogue was used as interviewing technique 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> the findings were discussed with other specialists in the field when analysing transcripts of interviews and field notes, the researcher was looking for coherence
Pragmatic validity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> act as participant observer not just an observer test the findings in a different context observe the participant's reaction to misunderstandings (purposeful misinterpretation of a statement) ask follow up questions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> analysis of interview data of what the teachers and students say is happening and compare it with observation data - what is actually happening
transgressive validity		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> looking for discrepancies and contradictions in the text, alternative interpretations (6 and Bellamy, 2012)

Table 3.11 Summary of steps taken to achieve validity at research and analysis level.

3.7.3 Reliability

As in the case of validity, reliability should be defined to correspond to the phenomenological stance adopted in this thesis. As Saljlo (1998, quoted in Cope, 2006, p.104) explains, ‘interjudge reliability’ is a mean of “...measuring the communicability of categories” by comparing the codes developed by the lead researcher with classifications applied to the transcript by others. It appears therefore to be a concept borrowed from positivistic research as “...designed to measure the degree to which the categories of description are stable and correspond accurately to the objective reality under investigation” (Sandberg 1997, p.207 quoted in Cope, 2006, p.105). The concept is hence inappropriate in the given context as not aligned with the principles underlying the interpretive tradition, which reject the existence of objective reality. As Sandberg (2005, p.59) explains, for interpretive research to be reliable:

“...researchers must demonstrate how they have dealt with their intentional relation to the lived experience studied. That is, researchers must demonstrate how they have controlled and checked their interpretations throughout the research process: from formulating the research question, selecting individuals to be studied, obtaining data from those individuals, analyzing the data obtained, and reporting the results.”

Since I cannot detach myself from my interpretations, my ‘interpretive awareness’ is the reliability criterion that is adopted in this thesis. 6 and Bellamy (2012, p. 261) define interpretive awareness as:

“The extent to which the researchers demonstrate that they have identified, and taken account of, any tendencies in their practice for inconsistency of, or bias in, interpretation.”

Hence establishing interpretive awareness in practice necessitates clearly and openly stating my subjectivity throughout the research and analysis process. This is linked to the issue of reflexivity and achieved throughout this work through the statement of self sections (Chapter 2, p.11-13 and Chapter 3, p.95-97) that aims to outline my relationship with the field and the data, and what guided me in my decision making process at every stage of the research.

3.8 Generalisability

One of the aims of the present research is to use qualitative data to produce a model for normalised CALL. An attempt to produce a model points toward an intention to generalise, as the model aims to refer to contexts outside of the research one. While positivistic research incorporates principles allowing for generalisations, this issue tends to be more problematic within the interpretive tradition. Hence initially I considered testing the model presented in Chapter 5 through conducting a series of short ethnographic case studies, as adopted by Chambers and Bax (2006) and Ward (2007) in contexts reflecting the diversity of MFL and ICT applications, to see whether similar results would be obtained.

Such a solution regarding generalisability problems was recommended to me at the stage of transferring from MPhil to PhD. It was believed that such testing would make the generalisability claims stronger, as it would extend the usefulness of the data to a wider audience. This, however, seemed to me, similarly to adopting positivistic validity and reliability categories as explained in 3.7 as playing "...in the friendly confines' of the opposition's home court" (Lincoln ad Guba, quoted in Sandberg, 2005, p.59). Hence, below, I use the evidence from the qualitative literature to justify the grounds for generalisations for interpretive research, which I use for this study.

Pring (2005, p.108-109) summarises the generalisability issues in qualitative, and especially in ethnographic, research as follows:

"...the social reality under investigation is not the same as other social realities since each is constituted by the distinctive interactions, perceptions and interpretations of the members of the social group. Each group will be defined in terms of its own negotiated meaning. What can be said of one group cannot be applied to another."

While the criticism often pointed out in relation to ethnographies holds some truth, there is a major fallacy in this line of reasoning. Researchers such as Dey (1993), Spindler and Spindler (1992) and Cohen *et al.* (2011), argue for the generalisability of interpretive research and by extension ethnographic research. Those positions will be briefly explored.

According to Cohen *et al.* (2011, p.139):

"...the task of the ethnographer is to balance a commitment to catch the diversity, variability, creativity, individuality, uniqueness and spontaneity of social interactions with a commitment to the task of social science to seek regularities, order and patterns within such diversity"

If looking for regularities is one of the characteristics of ethnographic research, generalisability then is in fact possible. Spindler and Spindler (1992) indirectly mention generalisability as one of the hallmarks of effective ethnographic research by stating that ethnographic observations should be relevant in the research setting but also outside of it. LeCompte *et al.* (1992) understand

generalisability of interpretive research in terms of comparability and translatability. The former can be achieved through clearly stating the characteristics of the studied group so that comparisons can be made with other contexts. According to Cohen *et al.* (2011, p.139), the latter can be achieved by making "...the analytic categories used in the research as well as the characteristics of the groups" explicit, to allow comparisons with other disciplines as well as groups. This is done in 3.4.1 and 3.5.1 This idea of providing detailed description of the studied context to allow for comparisons is also emphasised by Pring (2005). Pring (2005, p.109) points out that while the focus of the naturalistic enquiry is on the individual, and in fact many contexts have unique characteristics, the assumption that every context is unique in every respect is erroneous and referred to as 'uniqueness fallacy'. Similar views are expressed by Lincoln and Guba (1985), who claim that while each context has its unique elements, some elements are often shared among many individuals or cultures. Raiker (2009) points out that this is especially true of educational institutions. Primary schools in the UK do share some common characteristics, hence a careful description of the site will allow for comparisons and generalisability of results. The availability of quantitative studies in the fields contributing to primary CALL such as Buabeng-Andoh (2012), Badia *et al.* (2014) and Board and Tinsley (2014, 2015) make those generalisability claims stronger.

3.9 Ethics

The research gained university ethical clearance and a number of steps were taken to ensure that it adheres to British Educational Research Association's (BERA) ethical clearance guidelines.

At the first meeting with the participants I clearly explained the aims and purpose of the study (Bell, 2005), the lead teacher's involvement, and negotiated the number and time of visits. Closer to the commencement of the immersion period, a meeting with the headteacher was arranged during which she received an information pack (Appendix F) outlining the scope and methodology of the

research. During that meeting the degree of her and the school's participation was clearly explained and the consent was signed. The headteacher also requested a letter produced by the university confirming my identity and the purpose of the visits. That letter was produced by my supervisor and forwarded to the school. Additionally I presented the school administration office with original Criminal Record Bureau clearance documents and my student Identity Document, of which copies were made and placed in school files. The headteacher talked to other teachers involved and explained the nature of the study, which was later on reiterated by me in informal conversations. Following ethical practice, as recommended by amongst others Bell (2005) all the participants were informed that their participation was voluntary and it could be withdrawn at any time if they wished to do so.

While all the teachers were informed about my presence and the purpose of the visit by the headteacher, individual teachers were approached to ensure that their participation was voluntary. Those teachers whose involvement was greater, *i.e.* they participated in observations and formal interviews, were also asked to sign the formal consent form. An example of a signed consent can be found in Appendix G. The request to audio record the sessions was negotiated with individual teachers at the time of signing the consent. All non-specialists teachers expressed their reservations and decided to opt out, hence no recording took place during non-specialist lessons.

The parents were informed about the research *via* a school newsletter. Closer to the interview date a short note was put in the weekly newsletter containing information about the purpose of the research and the nature of children's involvement, asking parents to inform the school should they wish to withdraw their child from the study (Appendix H). Since there was no direct one-to-one contact with the children without any supervision, as suggested by the headteacher, there was no need to seek individual consent from the parents. The children expressed their intention to participate in a discussion through raising their hands. If they did not want to participate in the interview, they could easily disengage from the conversation.

Also it was emphasised to the participants at various stages - at the stage of the research presentation, when seeking consent - but also later on during informal conversations, that their engagement in participation was confidential and anonymous. Anonymity is defined by Cohen *et al.* (2000, p.61) as a process during which:

“...information provided by participants should in no way reveal their identity... a participant or subject should therefore be considered anonymous when a researcher or another person cannot identify the participant or subject from the information provided.”

To follow ethical guidance of anonymity and protect the participants' identities, their real names are not mentioned (Cohen *et al.*, 2011). The teachers are referred to as 'the specialist' (or 'ST') and the 'non-specialists' (or 'NST') or 'generalists,' and the children associated with a number and a year group, for example 'S1 Y6', meaning Student 1, Year 6. Any names referred to in the quotations from the participants have been changed or replaced with an 'X'. The institution itself also cannot be identified as only its geographical location is revealed, which may refer to a number of schools in the area.

Linked to anonymity is the aspect of confidentiality, which also aims to protect the participant's privacy. Cohen *et al.* (2011, p.92) define confidentiality as:

“...not disclosing information from the participant in any way that might identify that individual or that might enable the individual to be traced” and/ or “not discussing an individual with anybody else.”

Hence as Cohen *et al.* (2011) point out it is important to reassure the participants that public connection to the participants will not be made and the information they disclose will not be linked to them. This was done at the stage of making the research purpose clear to the participants and the signing of the consent forms. The nature of the research was not invasive, hence uncertainty or apprehension in relation to anonymity and confidentiality was not expressed by the participants.

The use of audio recording was approved by the headteacher and negotiated with the teachers. The audio files were kept in a password protected folder and removed from the recording device. The voices on the recording could not be identified. Also the formal interviews with the teachers and the headteacher were recorded after gaining the participants' consent and similar procedure followed. Once the thesis has been defended the files will be destroyed.

3.10 Possible bias

Qualitative research design poses some issues in relation to validity, reliability and generalisability. The bias related to all three aspects, and how the present research aimed at eliminating them, was discussed in the previous sections of this chapter. However, there are further issues stemming from using the chosen paradigm, methods and approach. Those refer to observer bias, the focus on familiarity and the closeness of the researcher to the research. The discussion of those follows.

Dorneyi (2007) refers to the Hawthorn effect as one of the issues that relate to the chosen approach, and participant observation as a method. There are different views on how to approach observer bias. Such researchers as Patton (2002) claim that those should be documented and incorporated into field work. Others, such as Monahan and Fisher (2010) see the bias as a meaningful source of data. As Emerson *et al.* (1995, quoted in Monahan and Fisher 2010, p.363) explain:

“The task of the ethnographer is not to determine ‘the truth’ but to reveal the multiple truths apparent in others’ lives ... Relationships between the field researcher and people in the setting do not so much disrupt or alter ongoing patterns of social interaction as reveal the terms and bases on which people form social ties in the first place ... Through participation, the field researcher sees first-hand and up close how people grapple with uncertainty and confusion, how meanings emerge through talk and collective action, how understandings and interpretations change over time. In all

these ways, the fieldworker's closeness to others' daily lives and activities heightens sensitivity to social life as process."

While I agree with the revealing nature of observer bias, I put some mechanisms in place to minimise the effects of it as it could potentially disturb the reality I was depicting, as it was in the case of the pilot. Hence, as Stoddart (1986) argues, longer immersion in the research context helps to eliminate the initial façade that accompanied the participants in the early stage of the research. Additionally, pragmatic validity checks applied in the present research, also advocated by Monahan and Fisher (2010), helped to highlight and diminish the effect of observer bias from the present research.

Cohen *et al.* (2011, p.157) also point out the focus on the familiarity being an issue with ethnographic research as "...participants (and maybe researchers too) being so close to the situation that they neglect certain, often tacit, aspects of it". Delamont (2004) suggests ways of overcoming this attachment to what is known by looking into unusual examples within the case studied, for example, looking into other cultures and how they perceive similar issue, or considering other institutions or situations within the same culture. This issue relates to what Hammersley and Atkinson (1995) describe as the problem of overemphasising contextual differences and the wider discussion on generalisation of qualitative research (see 3.8). The present study tried to overcome them by adopting the technique of looking into other institutions by examining evidence from the literature.

The issue of the inability to detach oneself from the study, criticised by the positivists, needs attention as well. Lincoln and Guba (1985, p.155) point out that in ethnographic naturalistic studies, the researcher acts as 'human instrument' and hence sees reality through the prism of personal experience. However, as Cohen *et al.* (2011, p.141) explain:

"...reflexivity suggests that researchers should acknowledge and disclose their own selves in research; they should hold themselves up to the light echoing Cooley's (1902) notion of the looking glass self".

Reflexivity demands that the researchers monitor and document their own perceptions and interactions that might bias the research. The present thesis addresses that through ‘statement of self’ subchapters where I clearly state my relation to the field, and document my perceptions and my position, which might influence my interpretation of the subject matter, the research and the results.

SUMMARY

Chapter 3 outlined methodological choices I made in relation to the research design, as well as provided background information in relation to the samples, grounds for generalisability, method of analysis, ethical considerations and defined validity and reliability for interpretive research. To summarise the discussion above, for the purpose of this research, I placed myself on the interpretive side of the quantitative-qualitative debate. This decision was influenced by the ontological and epistemological principles underpinning the interpretive tradition, as there was greater alignment with how I perceived the area under research. In addition to that, the qualitative focus on individual perceptions, the potential to generate in-depth insight into a phenomenon, and the ability to reflect the diversity present in social contexts, made it more suited for the present research. In reviewing the research methods literature, I analysed a number of sources, which gave different typologies of available methodological choices. Crotty’s (1998) framework of knowledge offered a clear classification of the choices, which I used to present the decisions made in relation to this study. Hence following Crotty’s (1998) classification I followed constructionist epistemology, interpretive (phenomenological) theoretical perspective, ethnographic approach and formal and informal interviews, observations, audio recordings, diary and field notes as methods. The phenomenological theoretical perspective influenced my choice of thematic analysis to analyse the data and the understanding of validity and reliability in this thesis. Next chapter, Chapter 4, reports on the data gathered at the main research site (and supplements it with the relevant pilot data) organised around five predominant themes.

CHAPTER 4

Painting the picture of primary CALL – the discussion and analysis of data

INTRODUCTION

Burnard *et al.* (2008) suggest that the analysis and presentation of qualitative data is “...one of the most bewildering aspects of qualitative research”. In deciding how to present the data, I considered two choices outlined by Burnard (2004) and Burnard *et al.* (2008): the traditional style, which separates the presentation from the analysis into two subsequent chapters, and the non-traditional style of combining the presentation and the analysis. As Cohen *et al.* (2007) imply, it is common in qualitative research for analysis to commence at the stage of data collection due to the large amount of data generated, and my role in the process as a tool through which the analysis takes place (Cohen *et al.*, 2007). By choosing which aspects of the data to present I am already analysing the evidence, which - to my mind - means that what I report on is already a combination of the presentation and the analysis. This is a common way of reporting on qualitative studies and is used by Chambers and Bax (2006) and PhD projects which use thematic analysis or the ethnographic approach, for example Hunt (2001) and Jimmy-Gama (2009). Hence I decided to follow that structure and combine the presentation and the analysis around themes identified

through the process of thematic analysis (Table 3.9, p.130). The themes revolve around the following areas:

- 1) attitudes (section 4.1),
- 2) logistics (4.2),
- 3) training and support (4.3),
- 4) pedagogy (4.4)
- 5) the relationship between MFL, ICT and CALL (4.5)

What I consider to be a theme was defined in 3.4 and is linked to the aspects of frequency of occurrence within and across the data sets, and/or relevance to the research questions. I deliberately avoid referring to the themes as ‘emerging’ throughout the thesis. The semantic choice of language such as ‘emerging themes,’ when discussing the results of a qualitative study, has been criticised by Ely *et al.* (1997, quoted in Braun and Clarke, 2006, p.80), who claim that such language:

“...can be misinterpreted to mean that themes ‘reside’ in the data, and if we just look hard enough they will ‘emerge’. If themes ‘reside’ anywhere, they reside in our heads from our thinking about our data and creating links as we understand them”.

As stated in 2.1.6.2, this research focuses on the principle of contradictions and tensions between different components of an activity system and identifies them as those factors which are crucial for (and impede) the achievement of the ‘object’, *i.e.* normalisation of primary CALL. Such researchers as Hu and Webb (2009), who also apply Activity Theory (AT) as a theoretical framework to investigate relationships between elements of the system and their effect on pedagogical change, organise their discussion around the points of tension within the activity system. I considered such a structure, however decided that the complexity of the relationships within the activity system would impede understanding of the depiction of the primary CALL context. The discussion below highlights several pressure points where the tension between the ‘subject’ and the ‘object,’ the ‘subject’ and the ‘tool,’ or the ‘subject’ and the ‘community’ arises. These point of tensions are linked to, different aspects of the four identified areas. Hence for better clarity, cohesion and representation of

the research culture, I discuss the data through the ‘layer’ of AT through references to the components of the system. The components of the activity system are referred to as identified in Table 2.4 (p.40).

DEVELOPMENT OF THEMES

The themes were developed using the six-stage approach outlined in Table 3.9. Hence using Theme 1 as an example, after familiarizing myself with the data I moved on to stage two – coding the data. I generated initial codes and marked them on the scripts of all of the data sources presented in Table 3.1. As no software was used, I coded the transcripts by hand as presented in Appendix A. To ensure “...thoroughness and consistency” (Braun *et al.*, 2014, p.102), I repeated the process of coding twice with a two month break between each round. Once all the data have been coded I started to consider how the codes might combine into themes. In order to do that, I created a visual representation of the codes in the form of mindmaps. Hence I moved from a very detailed mindmap encompassing a wide range of codes (Fig 4.1) toward a more focused map containing overarching themes and subthemes (Fig 4.2).

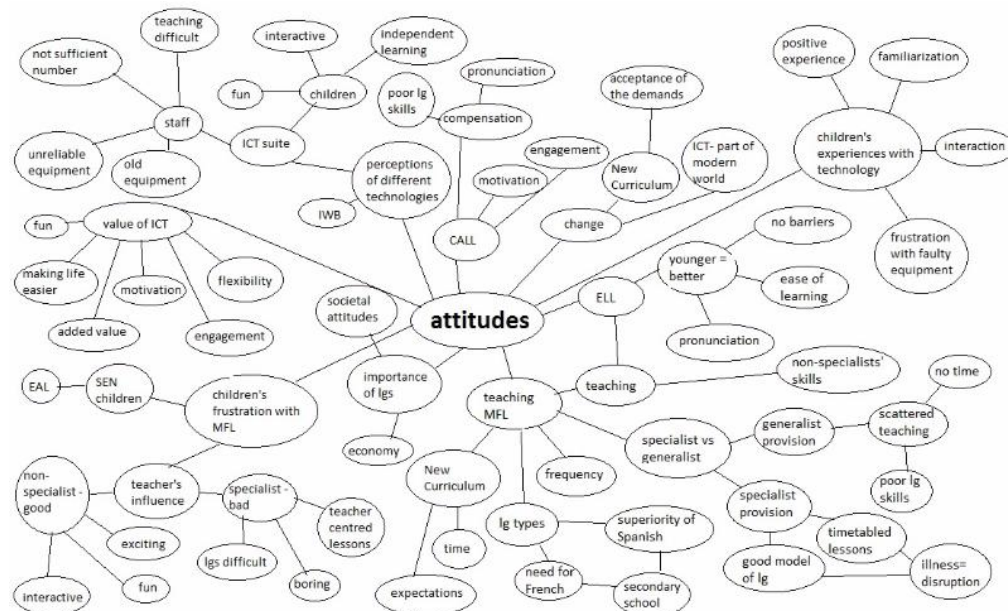


Figure 4.1 Initial map showing the relevant codes and initial themes.

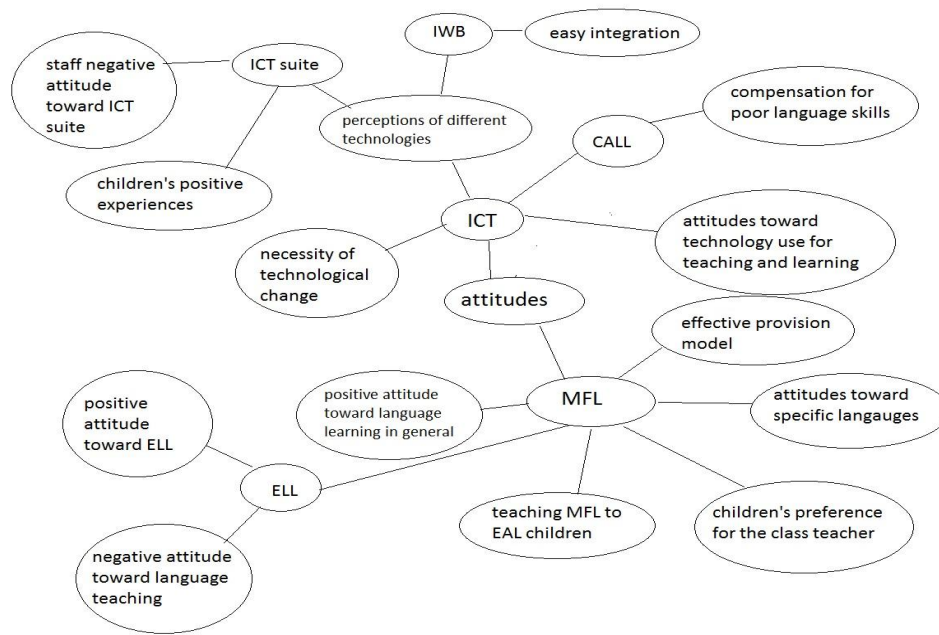


Figure 4.2 Developed thematic map, showing formation of main themes.

Once I devised a set of potential themes and subthemes I moved to the stage of reviewing the themes. This meant that I read the data abstracts for each theme to check whether they fit a pattern and whether “...the candidate thematic map accurately reflects the meanings evident in the data set as a whole” (Braun and Clarke, 2006, p.91); or as Tuckett (2005) explains, whether the identified themes and subthemes fit the story. This resulted in refining the map and merging some subthemes that initially were presented as separate ones (Fig 4.3).

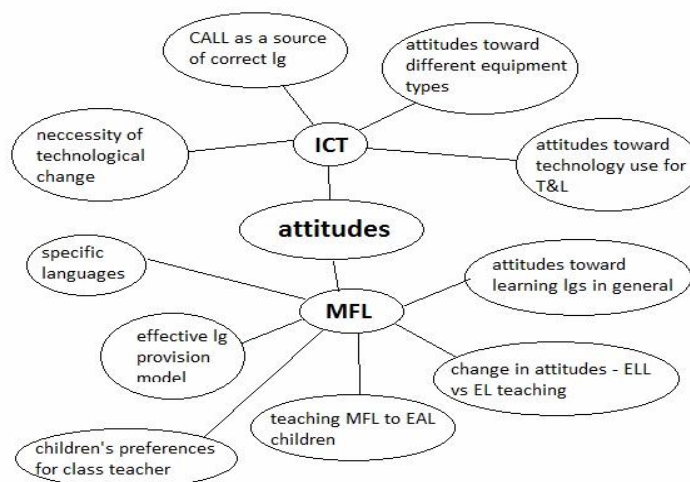


Figure 4.3 Final, refined thematic map for the theme of attitudes.

Once I had a satisfactory mind map I moved to stage five, *i.e.* defining and naming themes. The final set of themes and subthemes is presented in Table 4.1. The same process was repeated for each theme discussed throughout chapter 4.

Attitudes – the starting point of normalization	
Attitudes toward MFL	The role of technology - attitudes toward ICT
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Attitudes toward learning languages. • Attitudes toward teaching MFL to English as an Additional Language (EAL) children • Attitudes toward curricular MFL change - The value of Early Language Learning (ELL) and the burden of early language teaching • Preference for specific languages • Preference for the class teacher • Attitudes toward effective language provision 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ICT for MFL – technology as a source of correct language • Variety of equipment, variety of attitudes • The awareness of the necessity of technological change

Table 4.1 The final set of subthemes for the theme of attitudes.

4.1 Theme 1: Attitudes – the starting point of normalisation

The theme of attitudes was prevalent in all of the data sets in Table 3.1. The importance of attitudinal factors for adoption of an innovation is echoed in the literature on technology adoption (Davis, 1993; Buckingham, 2007) and curricular changes in relation to MFL (McLachlan, 2009; Maynard, 2012). Those attitudinal factors are likely to create a tension between the ‘subjects’ and the ‘outcome,’ or the ‘subjects’ and the ‘tool’. This was reflected in research in relation to ICT (2.2), MFL (2.3), and normalisation of CALL (2.1).

Within the general theme of attitudes several subthemes were identified; for example the importance of supporting MFL teaching and learning, as well as ICT integration, independently of CALL. Hence the theme deals with narrower attitudinal aspects related to the teaching of the content across the participating

groups, and the attitudes toward technology integration into that content separately, and then in relation to CALL. The points of tension and contradiction in relation to attitudes identified in the research school are mapped out in the summary to this chapter, and presented in Figure 4.7 (p.249).

4.1.1 Attitudes toward MFL

As indicated above, the discussion of attitudes takes place within the two realms - of MFL and ICT. The presentation and analysis of data commences with outlining the subtheme of MFL discussed in relation to: the value of languages and value of primary MFL, the general value of MFL for children with different language backgrounds; the attitude to teaching MFL, curricular changes and MFL provision.

4.1.1.1 Attitudes toward learning languages

The subtheme of attitudes to languages in general refers to the appreciation of the ability to communicate in a foreign language, and does not take into account the age at which those skills are to be developed. In the school the ‘teacher’ subset of the ‘subjects’ understood the growing importance of speaking languages other than English as exemplified by a conversational abstract below:

“...looking at the English, I think we are very rude, we need to learn, we expect everybody to speak our language.

Me: The French are the same, aren't they? They expect everybody to speak French.

But they all speak English.”

(formal interview with Year 6 teacher, 27.06.2013)

They welcomed the need to improve the provision to increase the number of foreign language speakers in the country, and condemned the societal attitudes of the superiority of the English language reported on in past research by Watts (2003). Hunt *et al.* (2008) and Board and Tinsley (2014) suggest that the absence of overall support for languages has the potential to create an obstacle toward the achievement of the ‘object,’ as learning a language is embedded with CALL and normalisation. This was, in the past, reflected in the lack of support of the wider

community, such as government support for languages and a lack of establishment of rules and regulations, *i.e.* the inclusion of MFL in the *National Curriculum* (DfES, 2013a).

There appeared to be a contradiction within the pupil's 'subjects' attitudes to learning languages. Ofsted's (2011a) findings, reporting pupils' overwhelmingly positive attitudes to MFL, were mirrored in the younger children's attitudes to MFL at school. KS1 children recognised language learning as being useful for their future:

- S2: "You get to learn new words."
(formal interview with children, Year 2, 19.07.2013)
- S3: "And if you go to other countries you can talk Spanish, it's useful."
(formal interview with children, Year 1, 19.07.2013)

While the children would not immediately identify engagement in MFL as their favourite learning activity at school², when asked directly, they were happy to discuss their experiences, and the majority actively participated in lessons. Those positive attitudes can be reinforced and/or influenced by the wider community, as reported in Bartram's (2005) research, and by the children's outside of school experience with the language. There is an indication that parental encouragement could contribute to children's positive outlook on MFL. While no data from the parents, as the members of the community, were collected, the fact that the children were able to say single words in languages that were not covered at school might suggest that active support for languages was given at home.

Supportive as younger pupils were, their enthusiasm for languages was not shared by their older peers. The opinions of KS2 year groups were divided, and there was a general feeling of languages being difficult as expressed by the upper KS2 children:

² The children were not asked directly whether they enjoy MFL but rather asked about their favourite subject/ learning activity at school and only then the discussion focused around MFL (Appendix A).

S1: “Coz I think it’s a bit hard, coz sometimes it could get, like sometimes it gets really confusing with words you don’t know, it gets really confusing.”

(formal interview with children, Year 5, 19.07.2013)

S2: “Sometimes I get confused as well.”

(formal interview with children, Year 4, 19.07.2013)

S1: “French can be difficult.”

(formal interview with children, Year 6, 19.07.2013)

However, what could be noticed is that their support for languages was dependent on their attitudes toward the teacher who was delivering the lessons. This is exemplified by the data presented and discussed in 4.1.1.5 and was also noticed in research by Sharpe (1999) and Driscoll (1999, 2000), where the children seemed to prefer their class teachers to deliver MFL, and were reluctant toward the subject if that preference was not satisfied. Therefore a tension arises between the ‘subjects’ and ‘the division of labour’ components of Engstrom’s (1999) activity system, which impacts on children’s perceptions of the ‘object’.

Within the discussion of children’s attitudes toward languages there is a visible clash between the headteacher’s and the specialist teacher’s perceptions of what children think, contrasted with what the generalist teachers say. According to the headteacher and the specialist (as the group who is passionate about languages), children are very positive about languages and enjoy learning them:

“They are hugely positive, they love it, G***** [the specialist] makes it so much fun (...) and they love it, the songs, the actions, and that opportunity for Year 6 children to learn French means they can use the skills when they go on a French trip, they go shopping in the market and they’ve got a few words to use.”

(formal interview with the headteacher, 19.06.2013)

(Specialist) “[they react] Really positively because we try to make it fun, it’s never you know a sit down and write thing, and KS1 especially.”

(formal interview with the specialist, 15.07.2013)

The generalists on the other hand see both sides and admit that while some children find learning languages exciting, others, especially those with special needs, struggle:

“...some of them [children] embrace them, some of them hate them.”

(informal interview with Year 3 teacher reported on in the diary, 23.05.2013)

(Y6 teacher) “Some children find languages very difficult, especially those children who find focussing very difficult. It’s the lower end, the lower ability children that really find languages difficult and they just can’t keep...take on anything else.”

(formal interview with Year 6 teacher, 27.06.2013)

I observed and noted down some examples of special needs children’s active resistance to languages, which reflects the non-specialists’ interpretation of their attitudes to MFL. This reluctance to engage in lessons was especially transparent in Years 3 and 5 and is represented by the following abstracts from the diary:

“I can see straight away this is going to be a difficult class, the children seem very demotivated and bored, like teenagers; one of the boys is already sitting alone by the table back to the others and I sure know what that means in primary language. T asks the SS what they did the last time and one boy answers “a big poo” - he is asked to stand by the door.”

(Diary entry, 14.03.2013)

“The special needs student was causing problems as always but was ignored most of the time. He said shut up I want to go on a break and refused to listen/ cut.”

(Diary entry, 25.04.2013)

“As we walk into the classroom one of the boys shuts out: “not f***ing Spanish again! I wanna go outside’ And starts crying. He is sat at the naughty table.”

(Diary entry, 23.05.2013)

Hence the landscape that was painted by those two supporters of languages was optimistic, and presented an idyllic picture of school practice. This failure to acknowledge the reality might be due to the appreciation of the struggle that

languages have faced in the UK over the years. As Sharpe (2001) indicates, prior to the 1970s the view of MFL being suitable for ‘more talented’ learners was reinforced around the time of the *Burstall Report* (Burstall, 1974), and contributed to the initial demise of languages. The comparison of the current situation with the past reinforces those positive views and overlooks a degree of negativity. From my professional experience and academic engagement, this is a tendency that can be observed in professional primary MFL circles, where any criticism of current provision is met with a lot of dissatisfaction, and a resistance to acknowledge the source that the information comes from as reliable.

4.1.1.2 The attitudes toward teaching MFL to English as an Additional Language (EAL) children

Griffiths and Driscoll (2010) report a thirty five percent increase in the number of English as an Additional Language (EAL) children in English schools since 1997. Having such a high percentage of students who need support in English may create obstacles to MFL delivery. This was reflected in the data, as I observed two points of tension: the first one being the clash between the generalists’ and specialists’ perceptions of EAL children’s attitudes to MFL; and the clash between the school’s official position in relation to EAL learners and MFL, and actual practice.

The specialist and the headteacher did not see any obstacles to introducing a third language:

“I suppose some people might say that children already working in two languages or maybe three languages at a time but actually I think they are fantastically tuned to language that another language is an advantage, it’s not, it’s not a hindrance at all.”
(formal interview with the headteacher, 19.06.2013)

This view echoes findings from Baker (2000, cited in Griffiths and Driscoll, 2010) about the natural predisposition of EAL children to acquire or learn languages. The generalists’ perceptions differed:

“I think there’s gonna be some children where obviously English as their own language is an issue for them like special education children, children with special needs, that might be an issue. I don’t know how that’s gonna be tackled but trying to teach children who already have speech and language difficulties and teach them to speak in another language might be difficult. And if they are struggling to record in their own language, how are they going to record in another language.”

(formal interview with Year 6 teacher, 27.06.2013)

This view was based on their own experience and is linked to the issues and resistance they observed during the specialist’s lessons. I also observed this, as exemplified with the diary excerpts in 4.1.1 (p.152). It is important to note that when the link between the lesson and real purpose of language learning was made explicitly clear, as in the case of the French trip, even those children who were likely to respond negatively to MFL, were engaged. This is further commented on when discussing pedagogy (4.4).

The aspect of attitudes toward EAL children is an important one. In the past, nationally, as Driscoll *et al.* (2004) explain, the schools with larger percentages of EAL pupils tended to omit MFL from their curriculum and focus on the development of English over other languages. This was also reflected in Board and Tinsley’s (2014) report, where a lack of MFL was justified with an abnormal percentage of EAL learners and overall low standards of English at school. The interviews with the headteacher and the specialist point to the overall support for EAL children to learn a third language, however, attitudes toward bilingualism or multilingualism were not reflected in school practice. It is common in the county to support EAL students with additional language lessons, either through one-to-one in-class assistance or through small group sessions delivered during the school day. While the school acknowledged the importance and advantage of bilingual children to participate in MFL lessons, as expressed by the headteacher, additional EAL provision was organised during official MFL teaching time. In the majority of observed lessons bilingual children were not able to participate. Hence there is a discrepancy between attitudes as expressed in the interview, and actual practice.

4.1.1.3 Attitudes toward curricular MFL change - The value of Early Language Learning (ELL) and the burden of early language teaching

Attitudes toward Early Language Learning (ELL) in particular were recognised as a separate subtheme, as opposed to the general importance of being able to communicate in a foreign language. They are linked to the curricular changes of September 2014 (DfE, 2013). The headteacher's positive attitudes to MFL, described in 4.1.1.1, were also mirrored in relation to ELL and early language teaching as illustrated below:

“I just think the younger the children are, the easier it is for them to learn. Even by the time when they're 8, there are already barriers which make it difficult.”

“At this stage it's very natural for them, they're learning so much language anyway at that stage, they are increasing their vocabulary so much that I think it's just the perfect time.”

(formal interview with the headteacher, 19.06.2013)

She justified her views with children's innate willingness to learn and try, reported by Sharpe (2001) and Jones and Coffey (2012), as an advantage of the early start. The headteacher's support for ELL translated into the introduction of teaching at a stage when the existence of provision was not officially mandated by the government, namely at KS1. This was also the case at the pilot site, where it was the headteacher's attitude that ensured regular teaching of languages at the time when mandatory status was not yet in force. Similarly, the positive attitudes to ELL were linked to the benefits of ELL related to openness to languages, and a trial and error approach to pronunciation, as illustrated by the following quotation:

“Coz I think the sooner children learn languages the better .I think the biggest problems with languages in this country is that children don't learn officially in a formalised way until they go to secondary school and children of 12 and 13 are very inhibited and when they're young they don't have a problem with that, getting things wrong and are more willing to take things on board.”

(formal interview with the headteacher, 19.06.2013)

The reasons for early start with languages referred to by both headteachers therefore mirror the results of research by Singleton (1989), Tierney and Gallastegi (2005), Cook (2008) and Lightbown and Spada (2013) linked to the Critical Period Hypothesis (CPH) discussed in 2.3.1.

The role the headteacher's attitudes played in both schools in the implementation of MFL seems to suggest that the management's attitudes toward ELL might be a trigger for change. This is also referred to by Buckingham (2007), who describes educational change as a process administered top down. Hence the decision to implement change comes from the management and is dependent on their perceptions. Buckingham's (2007) observation is even more so important at the national level, as the government's recognition of the importance of primary MFL resulted in its mandatory status from September 2014 (DfE, 2013). This decision of the wider community had an immediate impact on schools across the country. This idea was represented in the initial model (Figure 3.3, p.117), where the management's attitudes served as a base for normalisation.

Similar feelings in relation to the value of ELL were expressed by the specialist, who also considered the government's decision to start with KS2 as a missed opportunity for learning:

“...I've always felt that in England, in Britain, children should learn a language from beginning.... I just think it's far too late to be leaving it to Key Stage 2, definitely too late to be leaving it to Key Stage 3 [laughs]”

“... and I think if they have an opportunity to learn languages from a really young age, 4 years old, I mean personally I think it should be even younger, I just think it's so much easier for them and they will just absorb it more quickly.”

(formal interview with Year 6 teacher, 27.06.2013)

Hence, the tension between the immediate school 'community and the 'rules' established by the government is visible, and results in the alteration of the 'rules' within the activity system. In the present case the modifications result in positive amendments and longer exposure to the language. This, however, is not

always the case with other schools, as in the past rejection of the entitlement resulted in lack of provision in schools, as reflected in Driscoll's *et al.* (2004) and Board and Tinsley's (2014, 2015) surveys. As *Language Trends* survey (Board and Tinsley, 2015) indicates, even now, disagreement with the government's decision contributes to a small percentage of schools still not offering MFL as a core curriculum subject, despite official requirements.

The contradiction between the positive attitudes toward being able to speak another language in general, and support for children to start learning at primary school, was visible amongst the generalists. This was reflected in antagonistic comments toward Michael Gove's³ directives in relation to languages - expressed particularly by the Year 6 teacher as the one most affected by the changes - as well as the doubts some harboured about primary schools being the right place to commence MFL education:

“You don't want that on tape what I would like to say about Mr Gove [laughs]

Me: No, come say it [we both laugh] say it!

The man is a pompous middle class...well middle to upper class Etonian snob who doesn't understand what goes on in normal schools.”

(formal interview with Year 6 teacher, 27.06.2013)

“I don't know, well, there's never enough time for anything. It depends how you incorporate it, if you incorporate it as everyday but then the teachers will have to become literate in some sort of language, aren't they? How is that going to happen?”

(formal interview with Year 5 teacher, 27.06.2013)

While, as argued above, there is an awareness of the need to improve the language landscape in England, introducing MFL in primary schools is seen by the non-specialists at the research school as a drastic and unrealistic change. This points to tensions in the activity system between the 'community' and the

³ Secretary of State for Education at the time of the research

‘subject,’ as well as the ‘subject’ and the ‘rules’. The differences in attitudes toward ELL seem to be related to the issue of responsibility for provision. Those teachers who expressed their support for ELL based it on the premise that delivery was the responsibility of the specialist. However, when asked about delivering the lessons themselves, with or without the specialist support, non-specialists expressed scepticism, justified by the alleged lack of time in the curriculum. A lack of time and a lack of language skills has been a reoccurring issue for MFL provision in the UK, as reported on by Sharpe (2001), Hunt *et al.* (2005, 2008), Muijs *et al.* (2005), Cable *et al.* (2010) and Board and Tinsley (2014). In particular, Board and Tinsley (2014) link the theme of attitudes to the theme of and training and skills (4.3). Hence the non-specialists’ support for ELL is rather theoretical, and predicated on the traditional ‘division of labour’, *i.e.* specialists teaching languages and generalists teaching the remaining subjects, or offering minimal support as defined by the headteacher. Any shift in the pre-prescribed roles seems to contribute to tensions within the activity system. Therefore the issue at hand here is not so much the case of scepticism about ELL, but rather early language teaching. Hence in the research school a shift in perceptions can be noticed from languages being an advantage, expressed when discussing the value of languages in general, to being a burden.

Hunt *et al.* (2005) suggest that having a primary specialist eliminates the issues with teachers’ skills and confidence, and the allocation of time, as it places the responsibility for provision in the hands of an expert. This was, however, not the case in the research school. The difficulties that the school faced in relation to the specialist’s illness (see 3.5.1) shifted the ‘division of labour’ and placed more responsibility on the class teachers, whose MFL duties were minimal prior to the events. This resulted in scattered teaching, associated with schools without an expert’s involvement (Sharpe, 2001). Hence given the specialists’ health condition, and therefore the risk of a lack of her support being available in the future, there is an air of dissatisfaction, uncertainty and passive resistance as illustrated by the quotations above. If changes are to be made there is an acceptance amongst the non-specialists - as the Year 5 teacher explained “I

guess it just becomes a part of what we do” - with a big ‘but’ of “how is that going to happen,” linked to the lack of confidence underlying the conversation, as reported by Board and Tinsley (2014, 2015).

However, even during the time when the specialist’s health was intact, a contradiction between the attitudes expressed in interviews and actual practice could be noticed. This was visible in the amount of lessons that were cancelled due to her attendance at conferences and meetings that took place on a Thursday (throughout which MFL delivery took place). Hence there were occasions when MFL lessons were only delivered once a month as priority was given to administrative and training duties. Hence in the present school, the issues with timing remained.

While generally the attitudes toward ELL were positive, there were some sporadic instances of resistance to the specialist delivering the lessons. This manifested itself with only one teacher, who was sceptical about the place of MFL in the primary school regardless of who was responsible for teaching; in one lesson delivered to her class, while the specialist was attempting to teach, the children were being pulled away from the group activity to put their books away, or choose their reading books for next week. Based on my experience in primary schools, this part of a weekly routine is usually organised during lessons that are thought to be of lesser importance than literacy and numeracy. This created disruption and resulted in a limited number of children actively participating in learning. The teacher herself appeared to be positive toward the generalist delivering language provision, but very sceptical about the early years scheme. This scepticism was reflected in her behaviour during the lesson, which led to ‘sabotage’ of MFL. Hence the tension between the ‘subjects’ and the ‘object’ can be noticed as well. This, however, was just one incident throughout the duration of the research, hence creating visible obstacles to the specialist delivery or openly expressing dissatisfaction with the presence of any provision, as reported by Driscoll (1999) was not observed on a larger scale.

4.1.1.4 Preference for specific languages

While the specialist's attitudes toward language learning and ELL were positive, she had strong opinions on which languages should be taught. Having a connection to Spanish, she perceived Spanish to be the most useful language for children to experience and develop. This contradicted the practice within the LA, where there was a preference for French and German. This was reflected in Driscoll's *et al.* (2004) report, and while there is no more current statistical evidence in relation to primary schools to support that observation, the recent *Language Trends* survey (Board and Tinsley, 2015) (stating the number of GCSE French entries) seems to emphasise the status of French in the area. Additionally the background research conducted at the stage of selecting a sample also indicated that the most commonly taught language within the school's immediate area was French. While the specialist understood the geographical and historical importance of French, she was not that understanding in relation to German:

“... yeah we've been doing French and German at school since I was a child. ...Why do we learn French? Because it's across the water. Ok, why do we learn German? I've no idea. As a form of academic exercise. You know, and it's great for certain children, but if you are learning a language to use it, which I think is the number one reason to learn a language....get off my high horse, yeah Spanish should be there.”

(formal interview with the specialist, 15.07.2013)

The specialist's preference for Spanish is understandable outside of her personal experience, however, she underestimated the value of German for the British economy. The British Council's (2013) report indicates that Spanish is the second most widely spoken language in the world, however, German (and French) are rated higher than Spanish in terms of economic importance.

Hence tensions can be noticed between the attributes of the 'subject' (in this case the specialist teacher's superior attitude to Spanish) the wider community's preferences, and the 'rules' established based on those preferences to prioritise German and French. The specialist's attitudes to particular languages heavily

influenced the ‘rules’ within the school, as traditionally taught French was postponed to Year 6 and was seemingly only included as ‘a gesture of willingness’ toward the secondary school. However, if the specialist could, she would influence the secondary school choices and introduce Spanish over the already established study of German:

“I did suggest it would be much more useful to bring back Spanish with a little bit of German but that didn’t go down very well because they have 3 German experts. I did suggest that maybe people don’t use German near as much as they use Spanish nowadays and it would be much more useful to do Spanish but they haven’t got anybody who does Spanish.”

(formal interview with the specialist, 15.07.2013)

This, however, would not take place as the researched school needed to adhere to the ‘rules’ established by the secondary school representing the wider ‘community’, not the other way round.

4.1.1.5 Preference for the class teacher

As was indicated in 4.1.1.1, the children’s attitudes toward MFL, and by extension CALL, changed according to who was delivering the lessons. Even though the instances of class teachers delivering languages outside of the specialist’s illness were rare, children’s attitudes toward generalists’ MFL teaching were overwhelmingly positive:

S1: [children talking about their preferences] “...when Mrs F [generalist] makes things really exciting that are normally really boring, like we would be drawing a map or something, then she would add something really awesome”

S2: “I like it when Mrs F becomes the most awesome teacher in Spanish.”

(formal interview with children, Year 5, 19.07.2013)

The specialist was not welcome to the same extent. This tendency became very apparent and dominated the interview session with Year 5, who openly expressed their dissatisfaction with the specialist teaching:

S1: “I like Spanish but when we finally get to do it it’s annoying.”

S2: “I think Spanish can get quite boring, we just sit there and she would just show us things on there and we wouldn’t do much, we are just sat there and then she speaks and we ask questions and she replies but replies in Spanish and we don’t understand.”

S3: “It’s really difficult and she doesn’t do much”
(formal interview with children, Year 5, 19.07.2013)

While the quotations above illustrate mostly the attitudes of one year group, the tendency to prefer the class teacher as a language teacher was also visible during the observations. This was reflected in children's behaviour during the lesson, especially with groups who were thought to be more challenging. Children’s attitudes seemed to be linked to their pedagogical experience, *i.e.* whether or not the lessons delivered by the specialist appealed to their ‘taste,’ especially when compared to their class teacher’s practice. As reported by Driscoll (1999), Morgan and Neil (2001) and Hunt *et al.* (2005), children’s preference for the class teachers was linked to the generalists’ ability to build a rapport with their pupils. The pupils’ frustration, expressed in the quotation above, was linked to the specialist’s lack of understanding of their needs as individuals, and setting high expectations to all of the students as opposed to differentiation. The ability to recognise the children’s needs is referred to in Table 2.6 (p.73) as a pedagogical skill, and is standard practice when generalists are teaching (see 4.4.2). This preference for one teacher over the other at the research school points toward the tension within the activity system between the ‘subjects’ (children) and the ‘division of labour,’ and how it influences their perceptions of the ‘object.’

4.1.1.6 Attitudes toward effective language provision

As indicated in 4.1.3, the management's positive attitudes trigger change and start the implementation. This was done at the national level by the government's directives introduced in the *New Curriculum* (DfE, 2014), and at the school level by the headteacher's choice to implement MFL throughout the key stages. Since the *New Curriculum* (DfE, 2014) does not specify how MFL is to be taught in relation to the choices discussed in 2.3.3, the headteacher's attitudes to what constitutes effective delivery play an important role in determining the model of provision.

In the research school, the headteacher's experience with MFL teacher training helped her understand the conditions for what she thought to be successful provision:

“I think with language, I think it's quite a lot of pressure on the teachers even if they have some knowledge, mistakes can be reinforced if you're not sure what you're doing”

“...if you have a teacher who is a real expert, the children are not going to learn wrong pronunciation, you can answer their questions ...”

(formal interview with the headteacher, 19.06.2013)

The headteacher's worries related to reinforcement of mistakes were echoed by Ofsted (2011a), who reported on teachers' lack of skills affecting children's development of correct pronunciation. Although she acknowledged the benefits of the CLIL model (see 2.3.3), and the ability to spend short amounts of time daily on reinforcing the language, she wanted the school to aim at helping students develop communicative competence and contribute to real language gains, as reflected in the competence model adopted (Table 2.5, p.69). In order to achieve such goals, she believed that only a teacher with specialist language knowledge could guarantee such results. Her attitudes contributed to the establishment of the local 'rules' that the 'subjects' were expected to follow. The belief about the superiority of the specialist is common in England as Sharpe (2001), Morgan and Neil (2001), Driscoll *et al.*, (2004), Mackinlay (2014) and

Board and Tinsley (2015) indicate, and is linked to the priority given to linguistic skills. Hence, funds were allocated within the school budget, to hire a specialist who would also act as a language coordinator. This links the theme of attitudes to the theme of logistics (4.2). The involvement of other teachers was encouraged under the supervision of the specialist but not mandated. This gave a clear ‘division of labour,’ as the generalists could decide on the degree of their involvement. This also helped distinguish those teachers who genuinely and actively valued languages, from those who offered (to some extent) passive support, but were not willing to put the effort to actually deliver lessons.

Contradictions in accounts need to be pointed out here, as a clash of opinions could be noticed in relation the decisions about the ‘division of labour’. The generalists, recognising their linguistic shortcomings, actively supported the specialist’s role and responsibility for the provision. A similar view was shared by the headteacher who, having had an opportunity to train to teach MFL, understood the problems they face and the ineffectiveness of the training offered. However, the specialist’s attitudes about who should be responsible for language delivery contradicted the headteacher’s view on the superiority of an expert. The specialist thought it would be preferable for the class teachers to deliver languages due to opportunities for CLIL that such arrangements would lean toward (*i.e.* cross-curricular integration of MFL). This support for bilingual teaching was confirmed as early as 2000 in *The Nuffield Languages Inquiry* and reiterated at the time of *The Language Review* (Rose, 2007). However, the headteacher’s attitudes, as the decision maker in the school, determined the establishment of the local ‘rules’ and the course of actions taken. While the recommendations of the wider community were ignored, this, however, did not have a detrimental effect on the achievement of the ‘object.’

4.1.2 The role of technology - attitudes toward ICT

In the research context the attitudes toward technology use for education were positive across the subject groups and within the ‘community.’ The headteacher understood the importance of technology for learning:

“Because I think it’s a valid learning medium for children and children learn so quickly to/ through the use ICT as compared to older people.”

(formal interview with the headteacher, 19.06.2013)

It is those positive attitudes that, similarly to MFL (4.1.1), seemed to trigger the introduction of the equipment through allocation of funding. At the national level this was addressed through New Opportunities Funds, the ‘Internet in every school’ campaign, and the Primary Whiteboard Expansion project. Hence also in the case of ICT, the management’s attitudes seem to trigger the process of change.

The teachers recognised the value of ICT and commented on advantages in relation to motivation, catering to different learning styles, engagement and flexibility:

“I think it’s very important...children can’t just learn auditorily, there are kinaesthetic learners, they need to be touching, feeling, it’s a good way of remembering what they’ve done. I think it’s really important and we’re in ICT age really, aren’t we? Things are moving very quickly.”

(formal interview with Year 6 teacher, 27.06.2013)

With that comes the awareness that technology is a part of children’s everyday lives and will be a part of their future career, hence incorporating it is crucial even at this early stage. This view mirrors societal and governmental attitudes, which triggered the investment (2.2.2) reflected in the literature in the discourse around digital natives (Prensky, 2001). Hence the apprehension and lack of ability to translate the technology into pedagogy that creates tension in the activity system, observed internationally by Oldfield (2010), is not considered an issue.

Pupils' attitudes to technology were positive, as communicated in the whole class interviews and informal conversations, as well as being observed during the lessons:

S5: "...it's like I'm doing something on my iPad and it's like everything is good and then when I finish playing that game it's like oh I didn't realise I was there"

(formal interview with children, Year 5, 19.07.2013)

S7: "...it's better to write coz we don't have to use our hands, easier to change."

(formal interview with children, Year 6, 19.07.2013)

The quotes above illustrate children's positive attitudes toward technology use, both at home and in school. In our discussion they mentioned their home use of technology in their leisure time, but they also referred to the advantages of using technology at school (as in the quotation above in relation to their writing skills). While generally the children enjoyed working with the IWB and using computers in the suite, issues with the quality of the equipment were noticed and commented on by Year 1 children who were immediately affected by the faulty IWB. This creates a link between the theme of attitudes and the theme of logistics (4.2).

Children's attitudes toward the tool are important, however the motivational aspect of the tool should not be overemphasised. As Passey *et al.* (2004) suggest, it is not the tool itself that children perceive positively or negatively, but what is actually done with the tool and through the tool; hence the attitudes are toward CALL and TEL pedagogy, and not technology as such. This need to move away from technological determinism has been emphasised in the literature by Bijker (1997), Bax (2003, 2011) and Hammond (2014), and throughout this thesis. The relationship between the children and pedagogy is explored further in 4.4.4.

4.1.2.1 ICT for MFL – technology as a source of correct language

Since ICT for MFL, *i.e.* CALL, is central for this research, the role of technology for language education was commented on broadly. The prevalent value of technology according to the participants lies in its ability to model the correct language, especially in relation to pronunciation. This was seen as the main benefit of CALL:

“I think it’s a great opportunity to meet native speakers, you know you play a CD and you have somebody from France or somebody from Spain and the children have a chance to hear native speakers which is brilliant.”

(formal interview with the headteacher, 19.06.2013)

“I find it backs up the language and the pronunciation and it backs things up. I’m only very basic so it’s nice, and X [the specialist] gives me sites.”

(formal interview with Year 6 teacher, 27.06.2013)

“I think it’s a read added bonus. They hear accents as well, which is important, especially with my Spanish accent, which is Latin American not Castellano. So that’s very important, same with French. So accent is very important, they hear different people, it gives them an added interest.”

(formal interview with the specialist, 15.07.2013)

This emphasis on the value of CALL for pronunciation was also reiterated in the pilot school, in relation to both the specialist and the headteacher, but also in the MFL sector. Ofsted (2011a) speak of the value of, and good practice with, CALL in terms of modelling the pronunciation and the language for the children. Seeing technology’s potential for languages in terms of modelling pronunciation is not as prominent in the EFL context. The majority of studies within the EFL field relate to benefits in terms of writing, reading and vocabulary as *per* Macaro’s *et al.* (2012) review of primary CALL research. This association of advantages of CALL with modelled language is directly pertinent to skills, and translates into the pedagogy of technology teaching the children. This reflects the early stages of CALL, and to some extent mirrors behaviouristic use (2.1.2), which Warschauer and Healey (1998) refer to as ‘computer acting as a tutor’. This presents a clash

between the ‘subject’ and the ‘object,’ as well as the ‘tool’ and the ‘object.’ Since normalisation is understood in terms of effective teaching mirroring socio-constructivist and Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) principles, this overreliance on technology to model the language can lead to teacher-centred and technology-centred applications. Pedagogical practice with technology is expanded upon in 4.4.

4.1.2.2 Variety of equipment, variety of attitudes

While teachers understood and valued the importance of technology in children’s education, and for language education in particular, the attitudes to some types of equipment were more positive than to other. While the IWB was used on a daily basis and seen as a valuable teaching tool, the same perceptions did not apply to the ICT suite:

“I think they’ve done their times.”
(formal interview with Year 6 teacher, 27.06.2013)

It would be better to have them in the classrooms and things failing - printing failing, children having to share, programmes not loading properly, things being very slow, having up to date programmes.
(informal interview with Year 4 teacher recorded in the field notes, 14.03.2013)

Those attitudes confirm the issues related to primary schools having higher student-to-machine ratios than secondary schools (Becta, 2007, 2010), and reflect the rationale behind the move away from dedicated suites toward mobile learning which is visible in the educational sector (Ofsted, 2011b). In the research school, those perceptions were linked to problems experienced in the ICT suite, and therefore feed into the theme of logistics (4.2). As explained in Davis’ (1993) TAM model (Figure 2.5, p.45), Perceived Ease of Use (PEOU) is a major contributor to integration and technology acceptance and, as Maftoon and Shahini (2012) indicate, normalisation of CALL. In this case, for most of the teachers the suite was associated with equipment issues captured under the broader term of logistical issues. These were also associated with the difficulty

of use and as a result the suite was avoided. Hence the tension between the 'subjects' and particular 'tools' could be noticed. The IWB was more enthusiastically accepted as it was associated with fewer problems and easy integration, however, the value of individual interaction with technology that PCs or tablets allow was recognised. All of the teachers expressed positive attitudes toward using tablet devices and would welcome them in their classrooms as a substitute for the suite, hence the ease of use - understood as the ease of pedagogical integration and organisation of task, rather than technological proficiency - plays a role here.

Tensions could be noticed within the 'subjects,' as the opinions about the value of the ICT suite clashed with children's preferences. The children were enthusiastic about using the ICT suite, commenting on the benefits of autonomy and flexibility:

S4: "She [the class teacher] would give us websites and we could sort of go on the websites and explore them and explore the whole Internet."

(formal interview with children, Year 5, 19.07.2013)

S2: "You're learning new skills and you can add pictures and stuff and make it more exciting."

(formal interview with children, Year 4, 19.07.2013)

S6: "You can write it epicly [*sic*] and make it really epic instead of writing with your hand."

(formal interview with children, Year 6, 19.07.2013)

I have to note that the comments about the ICT suite related to subjects outside of MFL, since the suite was never used for languages. This appreciation for the ICT suite is linked to pedagogical experience of technology and the autonomy that it offers. Hence Passey's *et al.* (2014) observations in relation to the motivational effects of one-to-one interaction with the IWB extend to other equipment types.

4.1.2.3 The awareness of the necessity of technological change

As explained in 3.4, I made a choice for thematic analysis to focus on the identification and examination of latent themes, looking deeper into underlying beliefs and philosophies that are hidden behind what is explicitly said (Braun and Clarke, 2005). Adoption of an innovation forces teachers to change their habits and absorb, or to a greater extent embrace, the change. Rogers (1995) and Hu and Webb (2009) suggest that willingness to adapt, or a lack thereof, influences the pace of adoption at the institution, and also the general pace of educational change at the national level. Hence attitudes to change, in the present case educational change, need to be addressed. I touched upon this in relation to curricular changes in relation to MFL in 4.1.1.3, and I focus here on the attitudes toward fast-paced technological change, its effect on everyday lives, and also how it translates to the educational world.

The awareness of the growing importance of technology in everyday and working life, and realisation of ‘teaching the children of today for the skills and jobs of tomorrow,’ made teachers feel positive toward technology integration and the changes presented in the *National Curriculum* (DfE, 2013) in relation to ICT. There was an understanding that technology is a part of the modern world and a part of students’ everyday interactions. The need for technology integration as part of educating children for the world of tomorrow was apparent, as illustrated by the comments below:

“I think it’s really important and we’re in ICT age really, aren’t we?”

(formal interview with Year 6 teacher, 27.06.2013)

“...it’s the modern world”

(formal interview with the headteacher, 19.06.2013)

“They started discussing the relevance of technology for the school and there was a sort of understanding that it needs to happen. They mentioned that there will always be something new and there will always have to be money (with a lot of

rolling of the eyes *etc*) yet the conclusion was that it is the modern world (repeated a couple of times by different teachers with a lot of nodding) and they need to get on with it.”

(Diary abstract, 2.05.2013)

Hence the societal attitudes of the wider community were accepted as true and echoed in ‘subjects’ attitudes. The teachers did not comment extensively on specific changes made to the *National Curriculum* (DfE, 2013) about the new subject, ‘Computing,’ as the conversation centred around technology as an educational tool. While they were aware of the changes, there was that understanding of it being part of the modern world, as illustrated above, hence no negative comments, regardless of the reportedly challenging nature of the new IT teaching (Association of Teachers and Lecturers, 2013), were expressed.

Hence there seems to be contrast between the acceptance of curricular change resulting in the introduction of Computing associated with new challenges and the reluctance toward similar changes in relation to MFL. Those changes in perceptions might be linked to general attitudes where technological change is perceived as a priority, and the improvement of the language landscape might not be.

SUMMARY

As highlighted in the discussion above the theme of attitudes is an important yet a complex one, referring to aspects of language provision as well as technological applications. Throughout 4.1 I identified themes and sub-themes relating to aspects important for normalisation. I discussed them in relation to different participants of the activity system and different aspects of attitudes toward MFL and ICT. In relation to the management, areas which might affect normalisation include their attitudes toward: the general usefulness of languages, effective provision, the importance of ELL, early language teaching, teaching languages to EAL children, general attitudes to change, and the role of technology and its value for languages. Those aspects are mirrored in the

discussion of teachers' attitudes. The attitudinal aspects in relation to the pupils, relate to attitudes toward: languages, the teacher delivering the languages, integration of technology into lessons including MFL, and different types of equipment used in teaching. I propose that those factors, in relation to those three groups, need to be considered as important for normalisation. Those factors are reflected in the model for assessing and supporting normalisation, discussed in Chapter 5.

Chambers and Bax (2006) describe their findings in relation to the issues that are necessary for normalisation to be achieved. I find this way of presenting results useful as it shows clearly what conditions need to be met to achieve normalisation. For that reason, I summarise my findings in a similar way. I present the findings as the 'main condition,' and elaborate on it through 'sub-conditions,' which outline specific aspects relating to the main condition. Hence the examination of the data related to the overarching theme of attitudes, presented and discussed in this section, indicates that:

Main condition	Normalisation will have been achieved when staff, stakeholder's and pupils' attitudes towards language learning with technology are positive.
Sub-conditions	Normalisation will have been achieved when staff and stakeholders are positively predisposed towards language learning in general and early language learning in particular.
	Normalisation will have been achieved when similar attitudes are shared by the pupils in relation to both, technology, language learning, and technology use for language learning.
	Staff and stakeholder's attitudes toward change (technological and curricular) have to be positive for normalisation to take place.
	Staff and stakeholders have to see value in technology integration in general, and for languages in particular.
	Stakeholder's attitudes towards successful language provision have to be directed towards integration, continuation, and greater language gains.

Table 4.2 Summary of attitudinal conditions necessary for normalisation.

The importance of attitudinal factors for achieving normalisation was a reoccurring theme in earlier normalisation research (see Table 2.3, p.28). Chambers and Bax (2006) and Field (2010), drawing on the aforementioned

source, reported on the importance of ‘stakeholder’s conceptions’ for achieving normalisation. Rahmany *et al.* (2014) refer to teachers’, learners’ and administrators’ attitudes. Maftoon and Shahini (2012) address the issue of attitudes through references to the components of Davis’s (1985) TAM, *i.e.* PEOU and PU (Figure 2.5, p.45). PEOU is also inexplicitly referred to by Ward (2007) through the references to teacher’s extra effort. Finally Mahdi (2013) discusses attitudes through the acknowledgment of personal issues. The issues reported by the aforementioned sources focus on the technological side of normalisation, hence the references to obstacles to subject delivery identified in this thesis are absent from the literature on normalisation.

As the discussion above indicates, some of those factors have been satisfied by the research school. Yet there were tensions relating to both language teaching (pupils’ preferences for their class teacher delivering MFL created a tension between the ‘subjects’ and the ‘division of labour’; non-specialist teachers’ skepticism toward the early language scheme pointed to the tension between the ‘subject’ and the ‘object,’ the ‘subject’ and the ‘rules,’ and the ‘subject and the ‘community’ that established the rules), and technology integration (specialist and non-specialist attitudes toward ICT for MFL (CALL) as a substitute for language skills created a tension between the ‘subject’ and the ‘object’; varied opinions on the value of the suite created a tension between the ‘subjects’ and the ‘tool,’). I present a visual representation of these tensions in the summary to this chapter in Figure 4.7 (p.249). The discussion throughout this section suggests that the attitudes toward technology do not seem to pose as many tensions as the language aspect of CALL, which is predominant here. Technology adoption is welcome, and tensions within the activity system are not prevalent. MFL is not valued to the same extent. Because of those apprehensions further adjustments need to be made to minimise the tensions between components of the activity system. The next section examines the theme of logistics, already referred to in this chapter, and identifies further conditions and tensions on the route toward normalisation.

4.2 Theme 2: Balancing logistical issues - funding, equipment and teaching arrangements

Similarly to the theme of attitudes, the theme of logistics is discussed within two realms – the MFL side of the debate and the TEL aspects, as both affect implementation of CALL and the object of the activity system, *i.e.* normalisation. The subthemes identified under the umbrella theme of logistics focused on the issue of funding, organisational matters (in relation to both language provision and the sharing of the equipment), and characteristics of the equipment discussed in relation to quality, quantity and variety. Finally the aspect of secondary school support was prevalent in the data, especially in relation to the current changes in the *New Curriculum* (DfE, 2013a), the complexities of successful transition (Richardson, 2012, 2013), and the research school's circumstances that reflect those national difficulties. The data used to make and evidence the claims comes from all of the data sets presented in Table 3.1.

4.2.1 The financial aspect - Funding

Introduction of an innovation relies heavily on the presence of available monetary resources. This is true as much in terms of ensuring that necessary technical infrastructure is available as it is in relation to funding for effective delivery, as highlighted in Board and Tinsley (2015). Those two aspects are discussed separately below.

4.2.1.1 The impact of funding on ICT integration

The headteacher explained that the funding for ICT suite came from the Local Authority (LA):

“Originally the school had what was known as a cluster, an ICT cluster which was a small area in the area in the old library which would take computers and it really wasn't sufficient, you couldn't take a whole class in there, it wasn't a decent size room so we applied for ...I'm trying to think where the money came from [smiles] I think it came from East Sussex County Council originally, so have some help with increasing number of

computers and then we had building money which was used to build the ICT suite and that's how we sort of did it, that's a few years ago now but they agreed that we need to have this aspect of the curriculum improved because really a cluster of 8 computers completely inadequate in the modern world so the suite has been a fantastic addition really."

(formal interview with the headteacher, 19.06.2013)

The first IWBs was initially supplied as a part of the Whiteboard Expansion Project in smaller numbers. However, once its usefulness and value for teaching and learning had been confirmed at a school level, and enthusiasm was expressed nationally (Somekh *et al.*, 2007), they were gradually bought from the money secured within the school budget to ensure that every teacher had one, as explained by the headteacher:

"...originally we may have been but we just gradually bought them over the years, so that all classes would have an IWB, so everyone's got one. And we're getting to the point when some of the things need replacing /difficult to hear/ and obviously that's what we have to do."

(formal interview with the headteacher, 19.06.2013)

This investment made integration possible and allowed for technology to be embedded into teacher's everyday practice. According to Curtim Schmid (2008) this widespread availability of IWB within the teachers' regular teaching space is that factor that contributes to achievement of normalisation. This is partially true in relation to the research school as the degree of integration was high, however, pedagogy was limited as discussed throughout 4.4.

Lack of funding has been mentioned in past reports as the factor impeding ICT integration by such sources as Cox *et al.* (1999a, b). Similar issues were mirrored by Chambers and Bax (2006) and implicitly mentioned by Ward (2007). The issue here, as highlighted in the quotation above, relates to sustainability, which Becta (2004) considered to be an important factor for success. The headteacher mentioned in the quotation above the need to replace

the equipment. The funding for replacement also comes from the LA, who audit the school, decide on the most pressing matters and advise on the pricing:

“...the funding used to be roof fenced [*sic*] in the school budget for ICT but now it's as far as I'm aware it's just there and you need to use it, so it's we audit the ICT technician from county because we are part of the gold service from the county, they will do a very careful audit and see what we need to do and help us prioritise and cost out what we need to replace and they will, you know, guide us on that and guide us on pricing as well.”

“There are lots of grants available, I'm trying to think if we actually had a grant... for ICT, I think we have in the past, there are local charities that offer support, some of them will just give you money, some you have to match fund if you go above 3k they give you up to 3k, if you go beyond you need to match fund it which we have done actually, we have done both. So there are ways of finding money for ICT if you need it, some of the local charities are very generous.”

(formal interview with the headteacher, 19.06.2013)

The headteacher's explanation of different ways of obtaining funding indicated that 'when there is a will, there is a way.' The involvement of the LA, and the role of charities, suggests an important role of the 'community' when it comes to decisions about the 'tools.' Hence any worries in relation to obtaining funding that would create long term obstacles to integration did not seem to be present. However, while the funding is there, it might not be available immediately. This is precisely why the Year 1 teacher was not able to use her board for over two terms, as the funding for a replacement was only allocated for September term. This had an effect on the degree of integration and pedagogical practice. Since the IWB became integrated into her teaching some amendments had to be made:

It's really difficult, I'm so used to having it so I would have to change my way of teaching which I really don't want to. So I use the IWB in the suite whenever I can.

(informal interview with Year 1 teacher recorded in field notes,
25.04.2013)

This more sporadic use also had a negative effect on the children as expressed in their comments in 4.1.2. Issues with ICT funding represented in the activity system by the ‘rules’ established by the community, impede the achievement of the ‘object’ and contribute to tension between the ‘object’ and the ‘subjects.’ This is due to the fact that both staff and children’s attitudes toward CALL are affected and changes in pedagogical practice need to be made.

4.2.1.2 The impact of funding on language provision

As indicated in 4.1, the headteacher’s positive attitudes to Early language Learning (ELL), and her attitude toward the superiority of the specialist, were the driving force behind securing the funding for MFL from within the school budget. This was a big step, which as Board and Tinsley (2014, 2015) report, the majority of schools in England are reluctant to take. What was secured from the school budget was enough to fund specialist teaching, which established a clear ‘division of labour,’ but did not allow for changes that the headteacher would like to make:

“I’d be really pleased to have 2 lessons timetabled per week right way through if we could do that, that would be brilliant to do that, but we’re only a small school and the budget won’t allow it.”
(formal interview with the headteacher, 19.06.2013)

Lack of funds therefore did not cause obstacles to provision in this school, but to some extent limited the headteacher’s vision. As was pointed out by Driscoll *et al.* (2004) and Hunt *et al.* (2005), lack of long term planning for funding was the factor that, to a large extent, hampered language learning (Driscoll *et al.*, 2004). While the funding for ICT might be available, specialist language provision (or in fact any sort of language provision up to now) was dependant on attitudes, be they the headteacher’s or the LA’s which, after the withdrawal of governmental funding for MFL (Driscoll, 2014), drove allocation of funds.

4.2.2 Preparing the tools – the equipment

As highlighted in the introduction, the theme of logistics also covers issues that relate to the equipment itself. This is to a large extent linked to funding. While

the aim of this thesis is to move away from the focus on technology as a factor determining success or failure, what is considered here is how technological issues impact on integration, pedagogy and by extension normalisation (Bijker, 1997; Tudor, 2003). Outside of technological dimensions, an organisational dimension is also discussed that relates to the physical space within which the technology is embedded. This aligns with the debate in HE around collaborative learning spaces (Brooks, 2012; Fisher and Newton, 2014), and refers to Beauchamp's (2011) discussion on interaction.

4.2.2.1 The location of the equipment

In the research school, access to technology is straightforward due to the presence of the IWB and the close proximity of ICT suites. As Becta (2010) and Whyte *et al.* (2014) indicate, this is reflected nationally. This physical integration of IWBs within the teaching space allows teachers to embed technology at any stage of the lessons, without disruption, and to the same extent as blackboards were utilised before the introduction of the IWB. This echoes Curtim Schmid's (2008) references to the IWB as the technology that is most likely to be normalised. Hence the location of the technology (IWB) encourages frequent use, and helps with achieving normalisation. I use the word 'help' deliberately to emphasise that mere presence and use does not guarantee normalisation associated in the present work with effective teaching (2.1.3). Hence location is helpful in achieving normalisation, but does not ensure it.

Chambers and Bax (2006) report on the tension between the 'tools' and the 'object' that not having the equipment integrated within the usual teaching space causes. This might be a problem with ICT suites in HE settings, which, due to the size of the institutions, are spread over a large area. Hence once the space is obtained the lesson tends to be technology-centred, as the move from ICT to non-ICT activities is not easy to administer. This is something that I experienced learning German at my university, where the change of venue put technology at the centre of the lesson. Because the suite was placed within the school building, an improvement in the ease of access could be noticed compared with what was reported by Chambers and Bax (2006). Yet the aspect of an easy move from ICT

to non-ICT activities, which Chambers and Bax (2006) refer to in relation to easy access, was commented on. There was a general feeling amongst teachers that integration could be even easier, if the equipment was available within the regular teaching space as *per* quote below:

“The suites are not conducive to learning, it would be so much easier if the equipment was in the classroom.”
(formal interview with Year 6 teacher, 27.06.2013)

“She said: iPads! I’d love to have them in the classroom, we could just dip in and out of the tech, or even laptops.”
(Informal interview with Year 1 teacher recorded in the diary,
Diary entry, 14.03.2013)

Hence, the move toward mobile technologies observed in the sector (British Educational Suppliers Association ((BESA), 2013) - and considered by Motteram and Stanley (2011) as the approach that will help in achieving normalisation - is welcomed by the teachers in the research school.

The convenience of the presence of the IWB encouraged integration, however, in some cases the position of the board inside the classroom was a cause of frustration and an obstacle to use. Therefore it was creating tension between the ‘tool’ and the ‘object,’ and the ‘tool’ and the ‘subject.’ This was due to two reasons: the obstruction that the placement caused to visibility, and secondly the obstruction to physical interactivity.

For instance, visibility was often impeded by the sun, so at certain times of the day the IWB display was so bright it was difficult for children to see what was on it. This was a source of annoyance for the children who reported on that issue in the interviews:

S1: “You can hardly see anything.”
(formal interview with children, Year 4, 19.07.2013)

S3: “I like the smartboards but sometimes it’s really difficult to see coz of the sun.”

(formal interview with children, Year 3, 19.07.2013)

Figure 4.4 (p.188) presents the organisation of the physical space of each classroom. Beauchamp and Kennewell (2010) suggest that placing an IWB in a central location in the classroom might cause the teacher to lean toward authoritative, didactic use (see Figure 2.7, p.57), or teacher-centred use; as Lewin *et al.* (2008) point out, this may especially be the case with teachers who did not have an opportunity to develop pedagogical skills around this technology. As stated in the literature, regardless of what technology is being integrated, the aim is to move from ‘substitution’ toward student-centred ‘redefinition’ of the task (Puentedura, 2014), to encourage interactivity and interaction (Beauchamp, 2011; Whyte *et al.*, 2014); hence the integration of technology resonates with socio-constructivist learning and teaching (2.4.1). As Passey *et al.* (2004) point out, it is the opportunities for physical interactivity with the equipment that contribute to the motivational impact the IWB has on the children. There was an awareness of this amongst the teachers, who recognised the need to involve children as observed in the lessons. This is elaborated on in greater detail in 4.4, however, at the point of discussing logistics it is important to point out that it was difficult to encourage physical interaction with the board and explore its interactive features in some classrooms, due to lack of space. This was especially visible in three classrooms - Year 5, Year 3 and Year 4. The classrooms lacked space to allow students to move around, or movement was impeded by the furniture. The competitive activities that were introduced with the board led to the children’s frustration (4.4). Those three year groups were also causing most problems in relation to behaviour management and attitudes to learning languages, and described MFL as being boring:

S1: “I like Spanish but when we finally get to do it it’s annoying.”

(formal interview with children, Year 4, 19.07.2013)

S4: "I think Spanish can get quite boring, we just sit there and she would just show us things on there and we wouldn't do much, we are just sat there and then she speaks and we ask questions and she replies but replies in Spanish and we don't understand."

(formal interview with children, Year 5, 19.07.2013)

Hence there seems to be evidence that children (in these environments) perceive IWB use for languages as didactic and teacher-centred, which contributes to their negative attitudes and creates a tension between the 'subject' and the 'object.'

The discussion above suggests that the tensions between the 'subject' and the 'object,' and the 'tool' and the 'subject,' that were triggered by general issues with logistics (as reported by Chambers and Bax (2006) and Ward (2007)) are not prevalent, however other logistical issues emerge. In relation to the IWB, there needs to be strategic thinking about where it is best to place the boards, to maximise visibility and encourage physical movement around it. With ICT suites, the preference is for equipment that would allow socio-constructivist learning with technology - hence mobile devices are desirable.

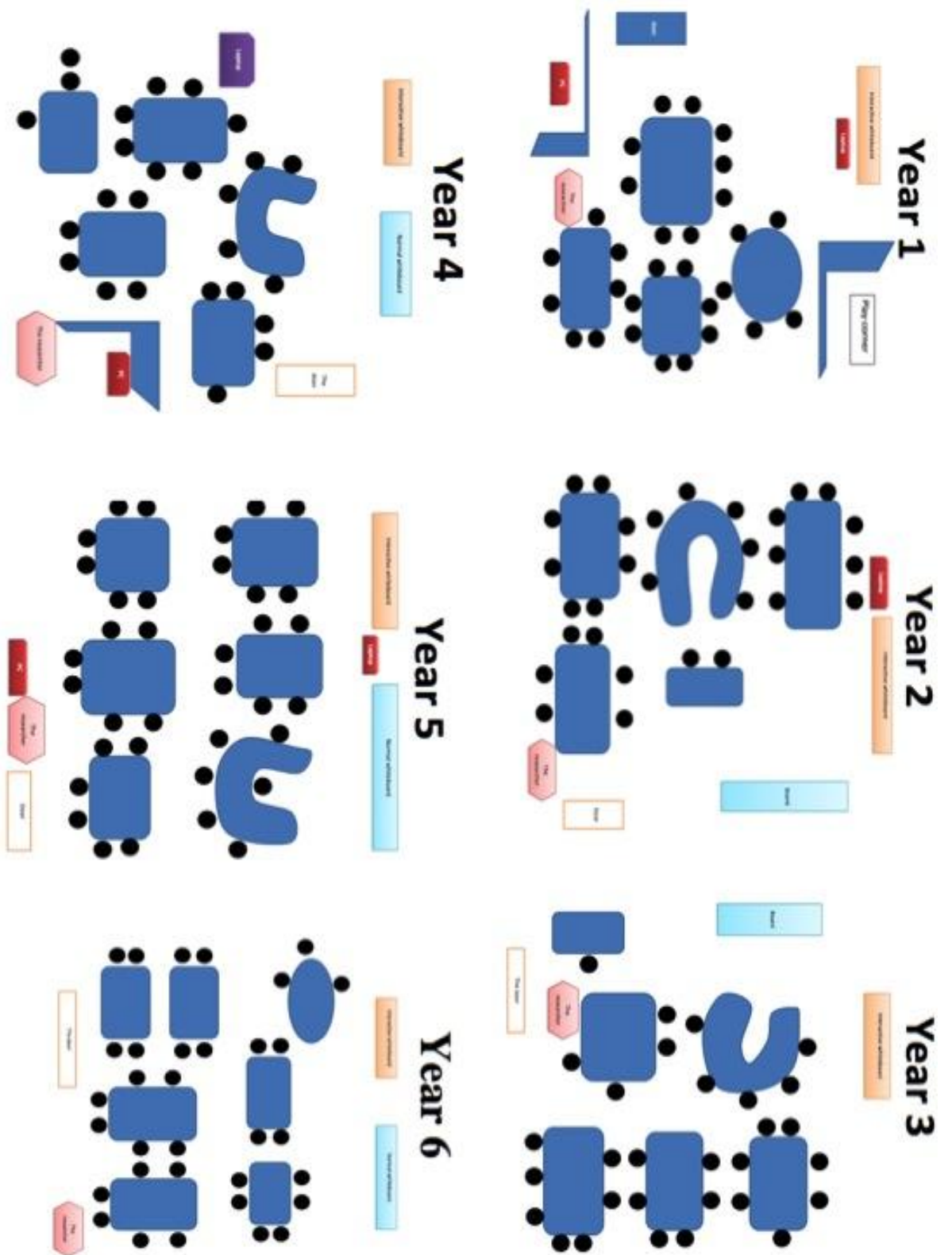


Figure 4.4 Classroom layout.

4.2.2.2 Beyond quantity - the importance of quality, variety and reliability of the equipment

Although the thinking about logistics and the availability of the equipment in relation to primary schools moves away from the discussion of quantity as technology becomes widely available and accessible (BESA, 2013; Whyte *et al.*, 2014), those aspects still need to be considered. Quantity of equipment is an important factor which ensures regular integration. The provision of a sufficient number of IWBs made it possible for every teacher to have an ICT component in their lesson throughout the day. This, as Curtim Schmid (2008) suggests, is a step toward normalisation, as every teacher has an opportunity for regular integration. This was the case in the present school, as the IWB was embedded into every teacher's daily practice; however, insufficient equipment in the suite presented itself as an impediment toward integration:

“And here we are trying to work in this environment [shows the ICT suite] and it's not conducive to learning. We've got 3 children to a machine and it's hard in a whole class situation. When I divide them into smaller groups, there is always a problem with the equipment.”

(formal interview with Year 6 teacher, 27.06.2013)

This, in the research school, presents issues for the general teaching of ICT as a subject, and while it does not impede MFL delivery as such, it does limit CALL to the IWB as a predominant technology, as the integration of PCs into MFL is considered to be a problem.

While the quantity of IWBs might be the factor contributing to normalisation in the school, the quality is now becoming an issue. Having the majority of IWBs installed at the time of the Whiteboard Expansion Project or soon afterwards, the school will have to start thinking of replacing them with newer models; an issue mentioned as a common problem with technology by BECTA (2004) and BESA (2012) and commented on by the specialist:

“But one of the problems we have with ICT is whether our IWB are working so we always have to have a plan B because it's quite difficult sometimes to either see a particular lesson we are looking at on the IWB.”

(formal interview with the specialist, 15.07.2013)

“It would make my life so much easier [if the equipment was replaced] if I knew that the lesson I prepared I could actually show, share with the class.”

(informal interview with the specialist recorded in field notes,
25.04.2013)

This awareness or caution of the possibility of technology failing, linked to the perception of the ease of use (PEOU) represented in Davis’ (1993) TAM model (see Figure 2.5, p.45), is common, and in some contexts is considered the factor which reinforces old pedagogies. According to Maftoon and Shanini (2012), it is one of the aspects that obstructs normalisation. Taking the research school as an example, where there is an ICT culture and ICT is embedded within teacher’s daily repertoire, the quality of the equipment does not seem to impede normalisation in terms of use or non-use, but affects pedagogy and teachers’ confidence to deliver what they planned creatively. Therefore it creates a tension between the ‘subjects,’ the ‘tools’ and the ‘object.’ This fear of failure, expressed in the quotations above, is more prevalent with the specialist. The generalists, having worked with the equipment more regularly, are flexible and act quickly in situations when something fails without the ‘panic’ that would accompany a less (technologically) experienced teacher. Generalists in fact did not comment on the quality being an obstacle and the need for having a ‘plan B’. The specialist on the other hand had a tendency to create a feeling of horror around the equipment breaking down and the necessity for additional planning; however, she never planned two options for the same lesson herself. Similar worries were expressed by the specialist teacher in the pilot, who mentioned accounts of technical failures and how those failures affected Ofsted as per the diary entry below:

“She said that she heard a story of a friend of a friend who prepared a lesson and was inspected by Ofsted. And the either there was a power cut or the board wasn’t working and the inspectors did not care. She was expected to carry out a lesson and they expected no excuses. I actually asked her how often it happened in her career that something wasn’t working at all and she had to change everything. She said never.”

(Diary entry, pilot, 18.05.2012)

The source of the stories though is difficult to trace, and while it was a direct issue reported in the past literature by Cox *et al.* (1999a) and Becta (2004), it does not seem to dominate the current literature in relation to factors discouraging integration. Hence it was more the teacher's fear of what might happen (based on what had happened in the early days of technology introduction), rather than what actually happens or has been experienced recently, that impacted on her view of technology. This was confirmed by the headteacher in the pilot school:

“We have ICT technician who comes on a Friday so he deals with problems that members of staff can't deal with. I have 3 members of staff who are very versed with ICT so they tend to deal with smaller problems during the week. So generally there aren't major issues with that.

Me: So it never happened that someone prepared a lesson and the equipment wasn't working?

I wouldn't say it's never happened but it doesn't usually happen and if that is the situation what staff would do is swap classrooms.”

(formal interview with the headteacher from the pilot school,
18.05.2012)

The only real failure of equipment the specialist experienced, that I noted down in the field notes, was the failure of the touch screen features of the IWB. When this happened the children automatically used the laptop and the keyboard to finish the activity. Because of this immediate reaction I interpreted this as a natural process of dealing with technical problems that did not disturb the pace of the lesson or the activity, and did not affect the children's experience, as the physical interactivity was still there.

As was mentioned in 4.1.2, the problems with equipment that Year 1 experienced caused frustrations to the children. They enjoyed working with technology and were disappointed when it was not used to the same extent as it was at the beginning of their school year or in the previous years. The board breakdown affected not only Year 1, but also other children's experience, as some arrangements for access had to be made at the expense of other year

groups' time with the IWB. The headteacher was aware of the issues and dissatisfaction that the problems may cause:

“...if a bulb suddenly starts to go in projector or something like that, or the whiteboard itself. I know a couple of stuff have been faint, and that is a problem because obviously we sometimes have to wait till the next financial year to replace what needs replacing. So sometimes it's a real frustration for people when they have something really good they want to do, and the children can't quite see it, or because of technical reasons it's not working properly.”

(formal interview with the headteacher, 19.06.2013)

The issue of quality is therefore related to funding (4.2.1), which as the headteacher explained, may delay repairs. It affects pedagogy in the long term and, in cases where the equipment is out of use, hampers integration.

The technology available to teachers at the research school includes PCs in the PC suite, IWBs, cameras and visualisers. While no personal portable devices were available, the headteacher echoed the generalist teachers' recognition of the value of mobile learning. Similar attitudes were noticed in the pilot school, the difference being that the headteacher allocated funding to pilot the new approach. As Hennessy *et al.* (2005) indicate, variety of equipment plays an equally important role as quality or quantity, as it allows for integration without relying on only one technology. Hence, as indicated by Hennessy *et al.* (2005), integration of a wider variety of equipment contributes to the shift toward student-centred pedagogy and greater engagement in content creation, and thus reinforces the socio-constructivist view of collaborative meaning-making (2.4.1). Poor variety may therefore contribute to tension between the 'subject' and the 'object,' and the 'tool' and the 'object,' as was the case with the research school (4.4).

The preference for the use of a wider range of equipment was visible with generalists, while the specialist tended to focus solely on the IWB. This was linked to the teachers' perceptions of what educational technology is, as exemplified by the extract below:

“...technology is very useful, you can show things on the board, you can highlight and play the videos.

Me: Any other technology?

No, the boards.

Me: How about ICT suites?

Oh yes but I don't use them.”

(formal interview with the specialist, 15.07.2013)

The specialist seemed to understand technology in terms of what she knows and what she perceives as pedagogical tools in the classroom, not acknowledging other equipment that is available, *i.e.* cameras, visualisers, PCs in the suite. This was contrary to the generalists, who had a broader view of what pedagogical technology is, as they had wider experience of integrating it in the school life (4.4.2). They could therefore see the links between a piece of equipment that is ubiquitous in society (iPhones, mp3 players), and its educational application.

4.2.2.3 The dual perception of the ICT suite - the burden and the blessing

Contradictory views within the ‘subject’ component of the activity system emerged in relation to the suites. The generalist teachers understood the importance of incorporating of what John and Wheeler (2008) refer to as three levels of ICT integration: the subject matter, teaching with ICT, and teaching through ICT. Therefore they understood the value of one-to-one interaction with the tool. They also understood the difficulties that such use creates, especially in relation to the insufficient quantity of equipment to cater for the entire class, which resulted in the necessity for children to share the computers. One teacher in particular expressed her worries in relation to group work that is imposed on the children around a machine as a result of the issues with quantity. This worry is contradictory to the findings of the research, which reports on the positive aspects of group and pair work around a machine, related to cooperation and facilitated through talk (Mercer, 1995; Mercer and Fisher, 1997; Wegerif and Dawes, 2004; Dawes *et al.*, 2000; Mercer *et al.*, 2010; Hennessy, 2014).

The generalist teachers developed strategies to deal with the issues raised by an insufficient number of computers, as described in 4.4.2.2. Yet the issue of quantity, mingled with possible quality issues, imposes additional administrative and planning stress on the teacher. Problems caused by quality and quantity, in

relation to the suite, were also referred to by the specialist regardless of the fact that she would never attempt to use it for languages. In informal interviews she commented on how difficult it might be to have a whole class in the suite, and how other teachers might find it difficult. This illustrates how the perceptions of possible problems based on teachers' practical experience affect the attitudes of others represented in the TAM model by PEOU (Davis, 1993), and inhibit pedagogical experimentation. This is reflected in Bax's (2003a) adaptation of the 'diffusions of innovations' theory (Rogers, 2003) represented in the 'Try once' and 'Try again' step toward normalisation (see 2.2.1).

4.2.3 The pragmatics of implementing change – the arrangements

Central to the implementation of change are the arrangements that firstly allow for successful teaching of the content, and secondly, successful integration of technology that can support the teaching of the content. In the case of the research school, the mechanisms driving those implementations revolve around the decisions about MFL delivery, influenced by attitudes as discussed in 4.1.2, as well as arrangements in relation to technology. Those are linked to the overall theme of logistics, and are discussed below.

4.2.3.1 Language learning arrangements, the ideal versus the reality

As it was explained at several points in this thesis, the school employed a specialist MFL teacher, who although a part-time member of the staff, was primarily involved in language education. Because of that, in the present thesis she is thought of in terms of a peripheral specialist as identified in Sharpe (1999, 2001). She also thought of herself as first and foremost a language teacher, and secondly as a primary school educator, as her role outside of MFL teaching was very limited:

Me: "...you said you are a language teacher - are you a language teacher or a primary teacher? What do you think about yourself?"

I think from my personal point of view I'm a language teacher first and foremost because having taught English as a Foreign Language which is language teaching for ...how many years...over 20-25 years...I'm primarily that."

(formal interview with the specialist, 15.07.2013)

Hence the ‘community,’ represented by the headteacher, established a clear ‘division of labour’ where the specialist was responsible for MFL and other teachers could decide on their level of involvement. The reasons behind such arrangements were linked to the stakeholders’ attitude toward successful provision, as outlined in 4.1.1.6, and what followed, the language competence model (Table 2.5, p.69) adopted by the school:

“I’ve done quite a lot of MFL training myself for non specialists and there’s lots of ideas out there and lots of schemes, IWB and other things you can use which is great but I think it could end up being pushed aside a little bit, fit in half an hour Friday afternoon or something like that whereas when it’s timetabled properly you have a teacher who is a real expert...”

(formal interview with the headteacher, 19.06.2013)

The headteacher seems to see the main advantage in employing a specialist as ensuring regular provision and eliminating a problem with scattered teaching. This issue has been reported by Sharpe (2001) and Pinter (2010) and linked to generalists lacking confidence or undervaluing the importance of ELL. However, a contradiction emerges between attitudes and practice, as employing a specialist did not contribute to regular provision in the research school. As it was highlighted in 4.2 the specialist lessons were frequently cancelled. This is visible in the breaks between my visits (Table 3.8, p.126), and confirmed by the specialist:

“...because it’s me that does it [teaches languages] if I have to do anything else, if I have meetings or courses, it doesn’t get done so it’s a bit erratic. So basically I need to do the best I can within the context.”

(formal interview with the specialist, 15.07.2013)

This problem escalated to a much larger scale in May when the specialist became seriously ill and had to be hospitalised. She did not return to teach for the school year and while she believed that all of the teachers would continue provision with materials supplied by her, such practice was not common. Also, the way the

cover arrangements were discussed gave an impression that there was no structured planning, but rather informal recommendations of what could be done:

“X [the headteacher] asked me to send something so basically every teacher could have used Babelzone and they could review with the children what we’ve done so far and the children could lead it themselves so the children could be reviewing it in my absence.”

(formal interview with the specialist, 15.07.2013)

The use of ‘could do this’ or ‘could have done’ indicates a possibility rather than a rule. Also the body language, the intonation and the tone of voice of the specialist indicated a degree of doubt that the lessons took place. Hence language provision was an option during her absence. The specialist was aware of the issues that the teachers experience, less to do with lack of time (as the slots were already allocated) but more to do with the demands for preparation for a session that could not be delivered spontaneously due to lack of skills. The belief or hope that the children could lead a session and help the teacher with the delivery was naïve, as toward the end of school year the children could not remember what was covered. This testifies to the specialist’s enthusiasm and clouded judgement as to what the children really remember, and her attempt to create an aura of a very successful professional.

While the specialist had an awareness of a possible lack of continuation, the headteacher claimed there were no problems with the current arrangements, and was more convinced that the teachers followed through with the cover:

“What we’ve done when X [the specialist] hasn’t been well for several weeks is X [the specialist] has sent things for the classes to do and you can do that short term.”

(formal interview with the headteacher, 19.06.2013)

What happened in terms of real practice during the specialist’s absence was either no provision, or revision of what had previously been covered using the same resources, which were mostly ICT resources as initially introduced by the specialist. This revision happened only in Reception and Year 1. The revision in Year 1 seemed to be less successful, as the children’s recall proved to be limited

during the whole class interviews conducted in July. During the session, the TA was continuously attempting to convince me that they in fact did regular practice, and she was openly disappointed with the children's lack of acknowledgement and internalisation of that learning as exemplified in the quotation below:

“TA: now don't you remember when we did animals? Do you remember this? [making an action associated with a dog], what is this in Spanish?
[Children look at her in silence]
TA: It's perro, don't you remember that? The pictures on the board?
[Children look at her in silence]
TA: OK looks like I've learnt more than you did but we did it, I did it with them.”
(formal interview with children, Year 1, 19.07.2013)

There was also some teaching, again based on revision of previously covered material, however, with more time spent on learning French and better planned lessons in Year 6. This happened due to the pressure of secondary school transition, and it was the non-specialist teacher from whom the most observational data was collected.

The interview with the headteacher therefore presented an idealised scenario where everything goes according to the plan, which was contrary to what was observed. While the school indeed put in a lot of effort to ensure that minimal problems occurred, this was not the case in reality and could not have been predicted. However, the constant repetition that there were no issues clashes with the reality of the actual experience.

Interestingly, when I was looking for another primary school with a specialist involved, I came across a similar obstacle, namely the specialist was ill and would not return to teach until the following term. This happened in 2014, hence it was concurrent with the introduction of the *New Curriculum* (DfE, 2013a). This points to the fact that while employing a specialist is valuable, contrary to the research (Driscoll, 1999; Pinter, 2011) and popular perceptions, it does not always guarantee regular teaching and hence normalised MFL, and by extension

CALL. Hence in the research school there is a need to redefine the ‘division of labour’ to give the non-specialists greater responsibilities. This is recognised by the specialist.

4.2.3.2 The issues of sharing - ICT arrangements

The investment into the IWB reduced the necessity to share the equipment to the minimum, but did not eliminate the need for sharing completely. Hence a possible tension might arise between the ‘tool’ and the ‘object’ linked to the issues of sharing. In the present school the ICT coordinator was responsible for agreeing arrangements between teachers for the use of equipment that needed to be shared, *i.e.* cameras, visualisers, the suite. A timetable was produced, allocating weekly slots for each year group, with additional slots available upon request. Similar arrangements were in place in the pilot school. While they seemed to work well, the timetable was disrupted by the breakdown of the Year 1 teacher’s IWB. Because the IWB was part of the teacher’s regular practice, when the equipment broke down she looked for any way to return to ‘business as usual’ classroom practice, as opposed to reverting to pre-digital pedagogy. This meant that other teachers had to share their classrooms to allow her to teach, causing disruption to the sharing arrangements. This was also a solution to the problem outlined by the headteacher in the pilot school (see 4.2.2.2, p.186). Hence lack of funding, as outlined in 4.2.1, not only affected the issues related to the tools (quantity, quality and variety), but also impacted on organisation of work with ICT, not only for individual teachers but the entire school.

4.2.4 The influence of secondary school arrangements on primary provision

The importance of secondary school arrangements is considered here only from the language point of view since ICT is discussed in the thesis as a tool that is integrated into another subject area. As Richardson (2013) explains, the absence of statutory guidelines in the past created obstacles to assessment and attainment levels and therefore created difficulties for progression to secondary school. The mandatory status of MFL highlights the role of the secondary school, and the need to eliminate tensions between the ‘community’ and the ‘rules.’ Those

tensions, manifesting themselves in the form of varied exposure and varied level of pupils' skills, are referred to as 'a logistical nightmare' in the recent press and the literature (Hood and Tobutt, 2009; Richardson, 2013; The Guardian, 2014). Board and Tinsley (2015) indicate that this is due to the fact that cooperation with the secondary school in relation to MFL progression is only now starting to be seen as necessary.

Cable *et al.* (2010) and Board and Tinsley (2015) seem to suggest that in order to assure progression, the delivery of languages at KS3 should determine the delivery of languages at KS2. Hence the choice of languages offered at the primary school should coincide with what is offered as a continuation by the secondary school. This was an issue at the school, one only recently acknowledged by the specialist:

“...We have had no contact really, so I was really worried that the progression that we were gonna show, we gonna have to go and try and get the Level 4 in the language we have chosen to use mainly in the school, ours being Spanish and of course our secondary school doesn't do Spanish. So that was a little bit of a hiccup...”

(formal interview with the specialist, 15.07.2013)

As was mentioned in 4.1.1.4 the specialist, as a result of her attitudes to certain languages, would go as far as to suggest that the secondary school should change its arrangements to accommodate Spanish or substitute German with Spanish. That suggestion was not welcomed by the secondary school. Hence the secondary school is the institution that shapes the direction of language choices, since as indicated in AT the 'community' traditionally establishes the 'rules' (Engeström, 1999).

The continuation of provision, or rather assuring that the children reach an agreed level, is extremely important and this is where the roles are reversed, as the 'subject' appears to influence 'the community.' This is because KS2 provision influences KS3 decisions in relation to the level at which the languages are taught. Hence the cooperation and communication in terms of what the

children are able to do in the foreign language is seen as a positive outcome as expressed by the specialist:

“...one of my greatest fears is that in the past, this was actually not just with languages, this is also English, Maths and other subjects, because secondary schools tend to really underestimate the level of our children and what we do with our children, quite often they like to bring them back to square one ... which kills enthusiasm, kills motivation.”

(formal interview with the specialist, 15.07.2013)

This fear is justified, as it was one of the reasons for the demise of language education after the *Burstall Report* (1974), and is the main aspect that contributed to the overall disengagement with secondary level teaching (Sharpe, 2001) and as a result the dropping numbers of GCSE entries (Tinsely and Board, 2012; DfE, 2013). While the introduction of primary languages will ensure that children reach a certain level by Year 6, I am inclined to claim that it will not be until 2018 that the practice between primary and secondary schools is aligned, as this is when the first cohort of mandatory provision will leave primary education. Until then procedures have to be put in place to ensure that the work done in primary schools will not go to waste. The secondary school that the research school feeds into is working to rectify that issue:

“...well, we’ve got a year to work on it together with secondary school and I think that finally we might get some consensus and they will see what we do and will have a better image of what they do, and we won’t have the situation which they say they often find themselves, which must be a nightmare, of children from different schools being of different levels when they arrive in Year 7. ...They’re gonna be grading them, putting them in different classes according to their abilities.”

(formal interview with the specialist, 15.07.2013)

The *New Curriculum* (DfE, 2013a) sets high expectations on the part of children and teachers. It also drives changes in the present school in relation to language arrangements, not just in terms of which languages should be given priority but also in terms of the length of the sessions, which might affect the level of attainment. This awareness of attainment levels was emphasised by the specialist teacher and triggered thinking about the current provision model:

“Now would that be a problem because we do Spanish up to year 5 and then French in Year 6 mainly thinking of this secondary school? Now she [secondary school MFL coordinator] seemed to indicate yesterday that I might have to get our kids in French from Level 1 to Level 4 in year 6 [laughs].”

“...she [secondary school coordinator] also said it was highly unlikely that...she doesn't expect any of her children in Year 7 to be a Level 4. ... So this thing about Level 4 is quite unrealistic.”

(formal interview with the specialist, 15.07.2013)

The aim of ambitious language gains is linked to the changes in the frequency, or rather length, of provision. Currently, as described in Table 3.8 (p.126), the lessons last between 20 and 40 minutes, depending on the age group, which according to Board and Tinsley's (2015) statistics is representative of national practice. There is a recommendation to change that by extending the lessons to one hour per week to allow for longer exposure and greater language gains at the end of Year 6. This poses problems even to schools that are passionate about languages, not to mention those that only introduced regular provision in September 2014.

The pressure to reach a certain level is visible, and with the current arrangements at the research school this task is becoming even more difficult. The specialist ambitiously claims that reaching Level 4 in one year of French, using the provision currently offered at the school, is achievable. I link this to her passion for Spanish and reluctance to substitute it with French. Taking into account the current problems that the school experiences in relation to the absence of teaching, if those also occur in the following years, those high expectations are not just ambitious but unrealistic. The specialist, however, planned for the best situation possible. The answer to the question of whether any changes will be made lies in the hand of the headteacher, who will be informed by the specialist about the possibilities and make decisions based on her perceptions of what is best, given the circumstances.

SUMMARY

As argued throughout this section logistical issues can impede the achievement of the ‘object,’ *i.e.* normalisation of CALL. I referred to such logistical aspects as language teaching arrangements, alignment with secondary school, funding, quality, variety, and the availability and location of the equipment, as important for CALL. Those aspects are reflected in the model in Chapter 5. As in the summary of the section 4.1, I present the findings in the form of recommendations, similarly to Chambers and Bax (2003). Hence from the logistical point of view the following have been identified:

Main condition	For normalisation to take place, logistical solutions have to be put in place to enable continuous language learning and easy, sustainable integration of technology to support that learning.
Sub-conditions	For normalisation to be achieved sufficient funding has to be allocated to support continuous language provision and introduction of new or replacement of old educational equipment.
	For normalisation to take places teachers and students have to have easy access to the equipment.
	For normalisation to occur language teaching arrangements have to allow for regular delivery aimed at developing language competence.
	Alignment of provision with the secondary school arrangements is crucial for normalisation.
	For CALL to be normalised, teachers have to have an opportunity to integrate a variety of equipment into their teaching repertoire.
	The equipment that is integrated has to be reliable and of good quality to ensure maximum benefits and smooth flow of the lesson.
	For CALL to be normalised learning spaces where integration occurs need to be redefined rethought and reorganized to allow for greater technology integration outside of IWB, or greater interactivity with the IWB.

Table 4.3 Logistical conditions necessary for normalisation.

The issues with logistics relating to the ICT side of the debate were reported in earlier normalisation research. These issues related to quality, quantity, and location, were echoed by Chambers and Bax (2006), Ward (2007), Field (2012), Mahdi (2013) and Rahmany *et al.* (2014). The issues related to the organisation of teaching of the subject were not commented on in the aforementioned sources due to the status of EFL as the subject. While in the previous section (4.1), the

majority of the tensions identified within the research school were linked to the MFL side of the debate, here that distinction was not so clear. While the availability of funding and the 'rules' established by the headteacher (as the representative of the 'community') showed clear 'division of labour,' - freeing non-specialists from the responsibility of teaching languages - some tensions were identified toward the end of the research, at the time of the specialists' hospitalisation. The tension between: the 'subject' and 'the tool,' *i.e.* the language obstructing the object, the 'subjects' and the 'division of labour', and the 'object' and the 'rules', created obstacles to successful non-specialist teaching. I also reported on the tension between the 'subject' and the 'community,' and the 'subject' and the 'rules,' in relation to aligning the provision with the secondary school. The issue of funding created more actual tensions in relation to ICT. Lack of immediate funds for replacement of the equipment created tensions between the 'subject' and 'tools,' and the 'tools' and the 'object.' The 'rules' established by the 'community,' in relation to the replacement of the faulty equipment, also affected the 'object.' Finally I link the issue of location of the equipment to the 'rules' established by the 'community,' which again obstructed the 'object.' A summary of those findings along with the tensions identified in other theme is presented in Figure 4.7 (p.249).

Throughout this section I highlighted the relationship between the theme of logistics and attitudes, and the logistics and pedagogy. Before proceeding to discuss pedagogical practice it is important to consider the underlying problem affecting all the three themes, *i.e.* training and skills, discussed in section 4.3.

4.3 Theme 3: The need for and importance of training and skills

The importance of training and the development of skills, is treated as an attribute of the subject as indicated in Table 2.4 (p.40), and is prevalent across the data sets presented in Table 3.1. In fact a lack of skills seems to be an underlying cause of the tensions within the activity system that affect the achievement of normalisation as the 'object.' The skills discussed in this chapter refer to different components of Mishra and Koehler's (2006) TPACK, and cover the need for language proficiency as illustrated by the content knowledge, the

need for technological skills, and the necessity of integrating those two aspects in pedagogy. Pedagogical skills that an effective language teacher needs to possess have been discussed in 2.3.4 (Table 2.6, p.73), and are based on such sources as Pachler and Field (2001), Driscoll *et al.* (2004), Ofsted (2009). The discussion below covers the three aforementioned areas and, in addition, examines the role of the secondary school in training as a relevant subtheme, given the school's recent contact with the secondary MFL coordinator commented on in 2.4.2. Table 4.4 presents a summary of teachers' skills and knowledge that I refer to in the discussion of the sections 4.3.1, 4.3.2 and 4.3.3. The table refers to the skills and expertise of the teachers I had an opportunity to develop a relationship with, and focused the observations on.

Teacher	Age	Language knowledge	MFL teaching experience	Years of primary teaching experience	Confidence with ICT
Specialist teacher	>50	BA in French, fluent in Spanish (married to a Mexican)	13 years	20 years	Confident
Year 6 teacher	40-50	GCSE German Basic French	Support and reinforcement of MFL	18 years	Very confident
Year 1 teacher	20-30	Basic Spanish	minimal	4 years	Very confident
Year R teacher	30-40	Basic Spanish	minimal	10 years	Very confident

Table 4.4 A summary of observed teachers' knowledge, skills and confidence.

4.3.1 Language training and skills

As illustrated in Table 4.4, the specialist responsible for the delivery is a speaker of two languages: French and Spanish. Even though she has a BA degree in French, she admitted that she does not feel as confident with French as she does with Spanish. Although she did not study Spanish and has no official degree in that language, having spent a substantial amount of time in Mexico and being married to a Mexican, Spanish skills took prevalence over French. This is precisely why there is emphasis on Spanish as opposed to French in the school.

Generalist teachers had very little training in relation to linguistic skills. Most of them encountered languages up to GCSE level, however not in the language that is taught. This is exemplified by the Year 6 teacher, who has a GCSE qualification in German (Table 4.4). Despite having the qualification, due to lack of regular contact with the language, her knowledge and skills subsided. Board and Tinsley (2015) see a lack of language qualifications, and - to a greater extent - skills, as a problem visible across the UK. Although, according to their statistics, this is not so apparent in the South East. Similarly to the Year 6 teacher, other teachers seemed to have some knowledge of other languages that were not officially offered at school (*i.e.* Italian). To avoid confusion, the teachers did not introduce them in a more official way. However, I noticed some traces of languages other than Spanish and French in one of the classrooms, where a poster with family members in a foreign language was displayed. The class teacher did not confirm that she delivered any other languages, and the poster was just a part of a cultural theme that was discussed some time ago.

The need for good language skills was apparent in Year 6 at the time of the specialist's hospitalisation. There was a pressure on the Year 6 teacher to ensure smooth transition to the secondary school. The teacher, however, had limited language skills and little confidence to proceed with covering the indicated material:

“I mean I support X [specialist] when she's there but to actually deliver something when she's not around...I try to back up the stuff, if she did something on a Thursday, then throughout the week, I would try and go over the things that she's done.”

(formal interview with Year 6 teacher, 27.06.2013)

“I'm trying to do bits and pieces but they're not like they were. We would only do little things like answering the register in French.”

(informal interview with Year 6 teacher recorded in field notes, 22.05.2013)

“We’re still keeping things up, like what’s the day like, what day is it, because she did days of the week and months of the year and that’s all to be honest with you.”

(formal interview with Year 6 teacher, 27.06.2013)

The generalist’s skills would therefore not allow for the introduction of new material and a continuation of the syllabus, but rather were used to repeat and reinforce what had already been covered. This reinforcement was also realised through the delivery of regular parts of the lesson like register, greetings or goodbyes in French. Such routines did not place high linguistic (and pedagogical) demands on the teacher.

The headteacher’s understanding of other teachers’ language skills was at variance with the reality of classroom practice. While she understood the difficulties the generalists faced (as reflected in her attitude toward successful provision (4.1.1.6)), she overestimated what the teachers were capable of delivering in terms of languages:

“Year 3 teacher speaks Spanish very well, myself and Mrs X and Y can speak a little bit of French...Year 2 teacher speaks a little bit of German and Year 5 teacher speaks a little bit of Italian. And Year 6 teacher speaks a little bit of German as well.”

(formal interview with the headteacher, 19.06.2013)

The ‘little bit’ is crucial here, as the teachers do not believe their skills are sufficient to model the languages to the children. The headteacher seemed to be under the impression that some delivery was possible with such limited knowledge. But the skills were not sufficient to achieve the aims she was hoping to achieve, *i.e.* developing language competence. This contradicted the generalists’ opinions, who were reluctant to deliver any content themselves without the specialist’s support. Even with the support offered, their confidence levels were too low to allow for any teaching outside of revision. The specialist had a better understanding of what the actual levels of knowledge and confidence were, since she was trying to work closely with the teachers and the TAs to reinforce provision during the week and to continue the provision during her prolonged absence.

Language skills, or more precisely the lack thereof, can create obstacles to the achievement of the ‘object.’ Linguistic training and skills are essentially the content and the subject matter within which technology is integrated; hence a lack of knowledge of the content removes the base into which technology can be integrated, which was an issue at the research school. While the ‘rules’ established by the headteacher, representing the community in relation to the ‘division of labour,’ diminished the effect of lack of language skills on the ‘object,’ the issues were more apparent toward the end of the school year due to the specialists’ absence. I suggest generalisation of this observation to the wider population as *per* the *Language Trends* survey (Board and Tinsley, 2015), which states boosting staff skills and language proficiency as the priority for the majority of surveyed schools. McLachlan (2009) suggests that the problem with teacher skills might deepen as a result of the decision to withdraw languages at KS4, which will diminish the number of teachers with minimal GCSE language qualifications.

4.3.2 Technological training and skills

A lack of technological skills can (as with a lack of linguistic skills) impede or at least restrict CALL, as issues with equipment prevent technology integration. Analysis of the data demonstrates that the headteacher was right to claim that the generalist teachers were competent and confident with the equipment that was available. As indicated in Table 4.4 (p.204) they all described their competence as ‘very confident and competent’. What I interpret as ‘competence’ is reflected in Becta’s (2005) and Morris’ (2012) reference to the term, combining ‘digital literacy’ with pedagogical skills of personalisation and innovation. This observation about teachers’ skills is aligned with the research that mentions the superiority of primary over secondary school teachers in relation to ‘e-confidence’ (Ofsted, 2011b).

The confidence with technology was visible with both older and younger teachers hence, similar to the findings from Becta (2005), Guo *et al.* (2008) and Morris (2012), age was not that factor that influenced ICT skills. The effects of experience, and its relationship to skills, were more apparent, as teachers reached working proficiency mostly through daily encounters and a ‘trial and error’

approach to exploration of the equipment. This is especially true of generalist teachers who have an opportunity for constant interaction and experimentation with the technical side of the equipment. As a result they became confident users and the worries expressed with languages, *i.e.* the insecurity (and the uncomfortable silence and shrugging that accompanied any language-skills related conversation I had with them), was not present in relation to technology. This finding confirms Lewin's *et al.* (2008) suggestion, that while initial training is important, it is the opportunity to experiment on a daily basis that is the main factor that contributes to mastery.

While sources such as Becta (2010), or more recently the Royal Society (2012), report on the need for teachers' professional development in relation to technology, because of that perceived and real confidence, there was no tension observed between the 'subject' (and its technological skills) and the 'tool.' Technological training was thought to be unnecessary. As the headteacher explained:

“I think in the past there's been loads (of ICT training) but nowadays everyone's got digital cameras, ipads iphones, everything else so in many ways the actual, any technical training has been very minor, it has been incidental to, you know, educational training we've had. Most of the training focuses on teaching and learning now, you know, things that you can access for teaching children, teaching resources, and making people aware of those, it would be much more that sort of training that we have rather than anything technical.”

(formal interview with the headteacher, 19.06.2013)

This sense of the redundancy of technical training was also prevalent amongst the generalists, and was reflected in their references to feeling very confident as technology users (Table 4.4, p.204).

I did notice a contradiction in the specialist's perception of her technological skills. When asked if she was competent with ICT she first replied her skills were basic, however, changed her opinion quickly:

“Me: What's your competence with ICT, are you quite good with it or....

Not particularly no, when I use ICT I use 2 things I use primarily BBC and Babelzone. But one of the big problems we have with ICT is whether our IWB are working so we always have to have a plan B because it's quite difficult sometimes to either see a particular lesson we are looking at on the IWB. I don't feel it's so much a question of my capabilities with ICT but it's more whether our equipment is working."

(formal interview with the specialist, 15.07.2013)

Therefore a shift could be noticed from her admitting to lack of skills in comparison to other teachers, to putting the blame on the quality of the equipment. While to some extent this justification may be true, the problems with the equipment she experienced were not detrimental to the lesson and would allow for more communicative, socio-constructivist learning through and with technology referred to as effective practice in 2.4.3. Therefore she had a tendency to justify her CALL pedagogy with the stability of technology.

My background, serving as a lens through which interpretation takes place, made me consider the discussion of technological skills also in relation to the children. While the debate surrounding 'digital natives' (Prensky, 2001) indicates children's technological superiority, Buckingham (2007) points out that this pre-eminence was not that apparent, especially in relation to technology that is purely educational. My observations during my professional engagement in primary education suggest that integration can be impeded due to children's lack of familiarity with the equipment. This was especially true of KS1, as the delivery of the content of the lessons with which I had assisted in the past was impeded by the need to offer technological assistance to every child. Technological tools referred to here are the PCs and laptops, used autonomously or for group work. This problem was less apparent with KS2; however, I felt it was a relevant route for exploration, especially in relation to normalisation (which I argue should be considered as pedagogical practice encouraging collaborative meaning-making through the 'tool' and redefinition of the task, to engage students in production (2.4)).

According to the headteacher and the teachers, children have sufficient ICT skills to participate in lessons. However, the discrepancies in children's skills

linked to a lack of facilities at home were identified as an issue, as the Year 6 teacher explains:

Me: “What’s students’ competence with ICT like?

The children, some of them are. My particular class at the moment are very mixed because some of them are quite poor. Some of them don’t have ICT facilities at home.”

(formal interview with Year 6 teacher, 27.06.2013)

As exemplified above, lack of contact with technology outside of school was mentioned by the staff members as depriving the pupils of valuable learning time, where they can explore the equipment and gain real proficiency with it. As Warschauer (2004) argues, this contributed to further differences between proficiency levels, as it deepens the digital divide. Hence the issue with children’s skills can potentially create tensions between the ‘subject’ and the ‘tool,’ and the ‘subject’ and the ‘object,’ especially within MFL where the short slot allocated for the lesson can be further shortened by technical problems.

4.3.3 Pedagogical training and skills

Pedagogical training and skills are discussed here in relation to both MFL and ICT and merged together into CALL. All of the generalists, being qualified teachers, had good understanding of primary pedagogy. None of them, however, specialised in MFL. Sharpe (2001) seems to indicate that this knowledge of primary pedagogy is sufficient to deliver a successful MFL lesson without having much insight into subject specialism. I agree with Sharpe (2001) partially, as there are certain aspects of good primary practice that translate to MFL as discussed in 2.4.2; however, the importance of MFL teaching methodology, training, and skills should not be overlooked as 4.4 explains. While the generalist teachers attempted to apply primary principles to MFL, they were only able to do it in a way that would not place linguistic demands on their teaching, *i.e.* integrating those skills and activities but without introducing any new language (see 4.4.2).

In the present school the only teacher with pedagogical language training was the specialist. She received it as part of her EFL training, mostly in relation to

teaching adults, which was then supplemented with primary school training specialising in MFL. This educational experience gave her knowledge of language teaching methodology and age appropriate teaching methods. Hence in relation to her educational background she could be described as the 'ideal' primary MFL teacher (Sharpe, 2001; Pazio, 2014).

Both, the teachers and the headteacher admitted that pedagogical training is necessary. This echoes Macrory's *et al.* (2012) and Board and Tinsley's (2015) findings, indicating the need for guidance on how to incorporate the available resources into their practice. This also relates the need for general TEL training, a lack of which, as Cox and Marshall (2007) and Becta (2007) explain, results in a limited range of applications, limiting teachers' creativity with technology.

In the research school, pedagogical training with ICT was organised as a sharing practice activity during staff training days and centred around resources, or was organised by the LA for all the schools in the area and covered other purely pedagogical aspects of good practice with technology. The specialist was predominantly responsible for MFL training. This meant she attended MFL conferences and training events and disseminated information in the form of material recommendations to other teachers. There was therefore an emphasis on newly available technological resources, hence, what was supplied was more of a software presentation event, with limited pedagogical content. This reinforces superficial application and the view of the computer as a teacher (4.4).

4.3.4 Perceptions of skills and their link to confidence

What emerges from the observation and the interviews about pedagogical, technological, and linguistic skills, is the possibility of a mismatch between the actual skills present, and the perception of skills linked to confidence. The generalists perceived their language skills as inadequate and therefore saw their role of contribution to MFL teaching as minimal, if not non-existent. This is exemplified by the Year 6 teacher. Although she possessed language qualifications, she referred to them, and her general language experience, in a derogatory way diminishing its value:

“My niece speaks French, she’s dual language so that’s about it.
Me: Did you learn French at school then?
Yes I did here in primary school and at secondary school I did French and German. I’ve got GCSE in German I don’t know how
[I laugh]
I went on German exchanges when I was 15, 16. But didn’t really keep it up. My French is only pidgin French and it’s because we go on holiday there and because of my sister in law and the baby.”

(formal interview with Year 6 teacher, 27.06.2013)

The teacher refers to her language skills as ‘pidgin French’ indicating that she does not perceive them to be sufficient to make any contribution outside of what is required. The specialist, however, thought that whatever skills the Year 6 teacher had were adequate and valuable for children’s learning. Also when observed teaching, while I comment on the limitations of her input in 4.4, the lack of confidence was not apparent in the lesson. The teacher, however, repeated on several occasion that her skill level and confidence with MFL is low.

The actual level of generalist teachers’ language skills, however, was difficult for me to assess for several reasons. The Year 6 teacher, whom I had an opportunity to observe, delivered a French lesson. French is the language that I was never formally taught: hence to what extent her pronunciation was accurate was difficult to determine. I had a good working knowledge of Spanish, and some teaching was attempted by generalists in Year 1 and Reception during the specialist’s absence. However, the teachers’ language input was so minimal that it was difficult to judge the actual level of their skills. While the specialist indicated that the teachers could deliver MFL, be it French or Spanish, that claim was based on the premise that the teaching would heavily rely on the resources the specialist teacher provided, and could be delivered with minimal input. Hence assessment of their actual language skills was not possible.

The case of the specialist teacher is revealing. While she felt she was a proficient Spanish speaker, she did not feel that confident about her French, in which she had achieved a BA. This was a result of lack of regular contact with the language and the dominant role of Spanish in her private life. This indicates that contrary

to government beliefs, the language qualification in itself does not guarantee confident, ready to teach teachers. Board and Tinsley (2015) report that the majority of generalist teachers responsible for provision in the UK have a qualification, more so at the GCSE than the A level. If regular contact with the target language is not maintained, the impact and value of initial training might diminish, and might impact on teachers' confidence. A lack of confidence impacts on provision as elaborated on in 4.4.

4.3.5 The role of secondary school in training

The new mandatory status of MFL, and the planning for longer term language gains that underlies the decision to include MFL into the core curriculum, places greater importance on cooperation between the 'subjects' and the 'community,' not only in terms of logistical arrangements of language teaching discussed in 4.2.4, but also in relation to training. As it was pointed out in 4.3.2, technical training is not the priority for schools - or for that matter, for generalist teachers - and is therefore perceived by the school as unnecessary at this stage. In the case of the present school, and many other schools in the UK, there is a need for MFL pedagogical training complimented with linguistic training. Griffiths and Driscoll (2010) explain that while during the period leading to entitlement ELL and CALL training was offered (and the number of teachers able to offer MFL provision increased), as result of the government cuts, the availability of that training is not as widespread as before. This lack of support is commented on by the wider primary community in the latest *Language Trends* survey (Board and Tinsley, 2015). While more recently £1.8 million was allocated in 2014 for primary teacher training projects (DfE, 2014), it is too early to judge the effectiveness and the impact of those projects. Hence other mechanisms need to be put in place that can support teachers in their new roles. The role of the secondary school is important here. Hence the lack of a link between the 'community' (represented by the secondary school) and the 'subject,' may impede the realisation of the 'object,' not just in relation to logistics as discussed in 4.2.4, but also in relation to skills.

The research school has only recently discovered the importance of having a link with the secondary school in relation to planning for provision (4.2.4), and the potential that such collaboration can have for training. As the specialist explains:

“...I think finally, yes we’re gonna form a cluster group and hallelujah!...I hope this will help us move forward as primary schools we can share our resources, our expertise. ...coz you know, she was saying that maybe a lot of schools with the case of class teachers feeling uncomfortable teaching because of their lack of expertise, maybe she would offer to help and do some training.”

(formal interview with the specialist, 15.07.2013)

The value of and the need for support networks or clusters was expressed as early as 2004 (Driscoll *et al.*, 2004), and was reiterated by Ofsted (2011a); however their practical implementation did not follow on a large scale. Forming a cluster can expand that support available to all the other primary schools in the catchment area and coordinate the work, contributing to the improvement of primary provision in the area. Hence secondary school intervention relates to the sociocultural framework broadly adopted in the present work, and in this case is narrowed down to Bax’s (2011) neo-Vygotskian perspective (2.1.6). Working in cooperation with secondary schools offers assistance in learning considered to be crucial for mental development (Vygotsky, 1987). Primary schools have a chance to participate in social interactions, negotiating the meaning of the new tool - in the present case, the language but also the technology. Expert intervention, realised according by Bax (2011) through scaffolding, modelling, challenge and contradiction, can contribute to the development of skills and confidence. This in turn impacts on CALL pedagogy, as growing confidence allows for more creativity and socio-constructivist application of technology for MFL, which the school lacked (4.4).

SUMMARY

The discussion above, based on the experience of the research school, indicates that training and skills are fundamental to the achievement of the ‘object.’ I discuss the aspect of training, skills and confidence in relation to components of

Koehler and Mishra’s (2009) TPACK, and refer to them in the model in Chapter 5 as pedagogical, technical and language training and skills. The summary of conditions that need to be fulfilled for normalisation to take place in relation to the theme of training and skills is provided in Table 4.5.

Main condition	In order to achieve normalisation necessary training and support has to be provided to the teachers, both in relation to language skills as well as technical skills and pedagogical skills in relation to both, language and technology.
Sub-conditions	For normalisation to occur especially non-specialist teachers need to have access to additional foreign language training to develop confidence and competence to teach the content.
	For normalisation to occur teachers (especially specialists) need to constantly develop technical skills especially with the type of equipment developed especially for educational context and not accessible for private use.
	There needs to be regular pedagogical training in relation to technology integration techniques, task design and available CALL resources to achieve normalisation as well as language teaching methodology.
	In order for normalisation to occur pupils need to develop sufficient technological skills to allow for smooth running of the session.
	Secondary schools can play an important role in offering support hence cooperation with a secondary school is desirable to move toward normalisation.

Table 4.5 Summary of conditions necessary for normalisation related to training and skills.

In the research school, the issues prevalent in the EFL context in relation to technological training, as reported by Chambers and Bax (2006), were not as prominent; however, the need for technological pedagogical training remained. In addition, the pressing issue is that of the linguistic training that is absent from EFL accounts (Chambers and Bax, 2006; Ward, 2007; Shahini, 2012; Mahdi, 2013) and needs to be addressed in the primary MFL context.

Hence the tensions within the activity system could be identified between the ‘subjects’ and the ‘object,’ and the ‘subject’ and the ‘community.’ The first tension referred to the teachers’ training, knowledge and skills, which are referred to in this thesis as the attributes of the ‘subject.’ This included pedagogical and content training and knowledge, and was not so evident in relation to technological training on its own. While the ‘rules’ established by the

community in relation to the ‘division of labour’ diminished the impact of the lack of training on the achievement of the ‘object,’ this lack of training and skills appeared as an issue toward the end of term, when the specialist could not return to work. The school circumstances led to a shift in the ‘division of labour’ and impeded regular provision. The latter tension refers to the need to establish cooperation with the secondary school that the present school is only now beginning to establish.

The discussion of the theme of training and skills was not as extensive as the themes covered in other chapters. This is because training, and more so the lack of skills, are the underlying problems that directly affect other themes, especially pedagogy. Hence, to avoid repetition, the immediate impact of lack of skills (linguistic, technological and pedagogical) on pedagogical practice is discussed in the next section - 4.4.

4.4 Theme 4: The impact of skills (or their lack) on pedagogy

As I explained in 3.4.3 the main research needed more focus on pedagogy (*i.e.* teaching practice with technology) in relation to both specialist and non-specialist teachers, the latter being the group of most interest, as they are responsible for MFL teaching in the majority of schools as *per* Board and Tinsley (2014, 2015). In the research school the specialist was responsible for provision, with some continuation or revision orchestrated by non-specialists. This, along with the unfortunate events surrounding the specialist’s absence, allowed for comparison of (CALL) pedagogy between those two groups. Hence the interest in the present section is the ‘division of labour’ component of the activity system, and its relationship to the ‘subjects’ (and their characteristics such as skills) and the achievement of the ‘object.’ The ‘object,’ associated with Bax’s (2003) initial view of normalisation, is understood as effective teaching (2.1.3), and linked to socio-constructivist learning theories. This section therefore covers predominant themes that were discovered in relation to pedagogy, and links those findings to the theme of training and skills, discussed in 4.3. Pedagogy and skills are discussed in relation to the specialist (4.4.1) and non-specialists (4.4.2), contrasted with the creativity of ICT use outside of CALL

(4.4.3), as well as the analysis of children's needs and expectations in relation to CALL and technology integration in general (4.4.4).

Before I commence the discussion of the subthemes, I want to explain the source of the data. The discussion of specialist and non-specialists teaching and CALL application is mostly based on the comparison of observational data coming from two sets of two lessons of the same content. Such comparisons are possible due to school circumstances linked to the specialist's absence. The first two lessons were taught in Year 6, the remaining two in Year 1. I organised the field notes and the transcripts of audio recordings into lesson plans to show how the lesson progressed. Detailed lesson plans of those sessions, to which I refer in this section, can be found in Appendix I for Year 1, and in Appendix J for Year 6. While the main discussion focuses on the four sessions, I make reference to other sessions delivered either by the specialist or non-specialist that illustrate a pattern or overall relevance to the theme.

While the focus of the present thesis is CALL, the discussion needs to take place within the realms of language teaching and its general principles. Technology should be considered in terms of the entirety of classroom situations in the research school, and relates to organisation of work proceeding and following technology integration. Hence I make references to aspects that may not necessary link directly to CALL, but nevertheless influence its integration, and by extension normalisation.

4.4.1 Specialist's application of CALL – restricted technology integration as a result of limited technological pedagogical skills

The discussion of the impact of skills on pedagogical practice commences with an examination of the specialist. Several subthemes emerged that related to her pedagogy that ought to be given attention. Those centred around the lack of transferability of her attitudes and skills to the CALL environment, the impact of her pedagogical skills on instruction, and her over-appreciation for technological resources. Those are discussed in the following sections.

4.4.1.1 Pedagogical skills and attitudes and lack of their reflection in CALL

Technology was embedded into the specialist's teaching practice and used regularly to support lesson delivery with a pedagogical purpose in mind. This meant that the lesson was not technology-centred, or planned around technology, but rather used to introduce or reinforce lexical items. In fact some lessons did not incorporate technology at all as illustrated in Table 4.6, which indicates careful decisions about the added value of ICT and reflects the headteacher's perceptions of TEL at school as:

“...there's a very good balance between use of ICT and use of other media and the process of teaching.”

Year	Topic	Duration	Resources	Technology used	Brief description of CALL activities	
R	Pets	25 min	Early Start Spanish interactive DVD – video	IWB	Whole class activity centred around the IWB. SS listen and watch the video and repeat some names of animals with the teacher	A
6	Food and ordering food	45 min	BBC website	IWB	IWB used to display different types of food- repetition of pronunciation IWB game – students drag and drop items to the shopping bag and have to show the correct amount to pay	B
4	Numbers	20 min	Babelzone	IWB	IWB used for practice, children come up to the board individually and match the number with its written form (drag and drop)	C
3	Numbers	35 min	Technology not used			D
1	Numbers	25 min	Babelzone	IWB	IWB – memory game, whole class with individual participation - children have to match the written with the numeric form and find two matching cards	E
2	Numbers	25 min	Technology not used			F
5	Numbers	40 min	Babelzone	IWB	A revision activity – whole class with individual participation – children come to the board and drag and drop the numeric and the written form	G
R	Pets	25 min	Early Start Spanish interactive DVD – video	IWB	Whole class activity centred around the IWB. SS listen and watch the video and repeat some names of animals with the teacher	H
4	Family	20 min	BB website video	IWB	Presentation - Children watch a video with a song, listen and try to sing along Word document displayed on the IWB – presentation of the text, the text is read aloud by the T, children listen	I
3	Family	35 min	Early Start	IWB	SS centre around the board and watch a video	J

					They listen and repeat Forms displayed on IWB for KAL teaching	
6	Food	45 min	BBC website Times Ed	IWB	PPT with different types of food displayed – presentation of new vocabulary –pronunciation from the board SS watch, listen, repeat and answer if they like this and that food Drag and drop activity – written and spoken form matching	M
4	Family	20 min	Website	IWB	Whole class Presentation of the material – children listen to an IWB resource introducing family members, they repeat Teacher led practice – SS say who is who in the family, the teacher drag an drops on the board Individual students are asked to connect a family member with the written form Song/ rap – students listen to the rap about family members and repeat	N
5	Days of the week	40 min	BBC website	IWB	Children listen to days of the week song and the breakdown of vocabulary that follows, they listen and repeat	O
4	Family	20 min	Technology not used			P

Table 4.6 Summary of specialist’s CALL applications across the observed lessons.

While the specialist admitted that she uses technology for motivational purposes, as Table 4.6 indicates, her applications in the majority of observed lessons served the need to introduce the topic, display the information or to practise or revise already known content. So in terms of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) (2.3.6), technology was used for presentation and practice, however, what was referred to as practice with technology was in many instances further vocabulary drilling, reinforcing therefore a behaviourist view of language as habit formation (2.4.1). Technology was not used for production, hence the instances of socio-constructivist learning and engagement in content creation, and interaction through technology facilitated by Web 2.0 tools (that, following Becta (2007), Terrell (2011) and Pim (2014), I define as effective teaching in the digital age), were absent. Introduction of the topic usually meant that audio-visual material was displayed on the IWB, the written form of the word was shown and correct pronunciation modelled and then repeated by the students, exemplified in the observed Y6 lesson (Appendix J). This was followed by practice reinforced by the integration of other, non-technological tools, such as mini Whiteboards in Year 4 and 5, handouts or games. At KS1, introduction and practice were blended together.

The specialist was an advocate of the socio-constructivist view of language learning, and believed that the real purpose of learning a language is communication. Hence her pedagogical attitudes aligned with CLT (2.3.6). While she understood the importance of repetition for learning, she was against the emphasis of a behaviouristic focus on drilling isolated vocabulary items. This belief about language learning for communication was reflected by her classroom practice, as the language she taught was always presented in a communicative context. She managed to do that successfully with Year 6, and their preparation for shopping at the French market (Appendix K). Supportive of communication as she was, her application of CALL did not mirror CLT principles. CALL elements resembled behaviouristic drilling of isolated lexical chunks, usually in the form of an ICT game. Hence the practice around the IWB exhibited the characteristics of what Whyte *et al.* (2014) (Table 2.9, p.90) describe as the drill and display stage,

i.e. a focus on repetition in the form of pre-planned language, with the teacher responsible for planning and execution of the task - however, this was undertaken with some authenticity and contextualisation. Hence, what Whyte *et al.* (2014) refer to as ‘communicative use of the IWB’ (*i.e.* authentic, socio-constructivist, student-centred learning), was not realised in classroom practice, despite being aligned with the specialist’s views on learning. However, once the lexis was displayed, and repetition activities were completed, the vocabulary was presented in sentences and used for communicative purpose in the follow up activities that did not incorporate technology. This was especially reinforced with Year 6 before their French trip. The preparation for the trip was a typical example of socio-constructivist teaching through CLT techniques, using dialogues and presenting relevant vocabulary in context. One of the attractions of the trip was visiting a French market, seen as the place where the children could most easily use their language skills. In preparation for this, first a series of lessons on food were introduced, then numbers and prices were covered, all of which was finally put into a dialogue which was modelled by the specialist and a trainee volunteer (a French graduate and who was present during my first visit). This allowed the children to practice language for authentic situations, which created a link between the lesson and the outside world. Hence the authenticity aspect was there, however, outside of CALL activities. An example of such a lesson can be found in Appendix K.

The specialists’ attitude toward language learning at KS1 mirrored cognitive/innatist perspectives (2.4.1). The teaching method adopted for KS1 had elements similar to Total Physical Response (TPR) (Asher, 1969), where gestures were used to create a link to vocabulary and aid memorisation. Also the children were encouraged to listen rather than speak, again mirroring the cognitive/innatist view of language learning, realised in the ‘Silent Way’ method. The sessions were teacher centred, and the software used rarely contained any interactivity features that would involve students physically interacting with technology. Even though CLT was not executed to the same extent as in Year 6 and other KS2 year groups, there were communicative elements applied. This was visible through

reinforcement of the vocabulary presented in the software video in context. Hence animals were taught in full sentences as “I have a...” rather than animal words on their own.

4.4.1.2 The dissonance between pedagogical and linguistic skills – the importance of understanding children’s capabilities

While the possession of suitable language skills is the characteristic that supports the case for hiring a teacher with an MFL specialism, it was usually outside of CALL that the linguistic superiority of the specialist was most apparent. At KS1 level, where the focus was solely on isolated lexis, the advantage of having a language specialist was not visible since the language was very limited. It was more apparent at KS2, however, not in the case of delivering the content of the session as that was based on pre-made resources available online, but in relation to emerging language. The specialist had linguistic flexibility to extend the learning beyond what was presented in the commercially made resources, respond to new situations and children’s questions about the language which corresponds to Ofsted’s (2011a) findings. This was the case especially in Year 6 before the French trip. Due to enthusiasm and genuine need to be able to communicate, the children were posing questions that the generalist could not address without the specialist’s input. Hence the generalist tended to direct children queries to the specialist.

The specialist’s linguistic skills and the use of target language, however, can also be considered as a disadvantage. The overuse of Spanish in the classroom resulted in lack of comprehension. The specialist’s language input exceeded the learners’ comprehension level beyond the recommended *i+1* in Krashen’s (1988) ‘input hypothesis’ (Table 2.7, p.78). This resulted in incomprehensible input, and lack of understanding, as opposed to creating optimal conditions for progress as Krashen’s ‘comprehensible input hypothesis’ suggests. This contributed to pupils’ dissatisfaction with languages and perceptions of MFL being difficult, as expressed in interviews (4.1.1.1). The comments concerned the level of difficulty of the lesson; this was related not so much to the content itself, as that was made

clear through the contextual cues, but to language used outside of the planned session content. The quotes below illustrate this point:

S4: "...and then she speaks and we ask questions and she replies but she replies in Spanish and we don't understand."
(formal interview with children, Year 4, 19.07.2013)

S5: "...I had my bag there and she started speaking Spanish to me and I didn't understand and she shouted at me..."
[says the boy clearly upset by the whole situation]
(formal interview with children, Year 5, 19.07.2013)

The comments above indicate that children were overwhelmed by the amount of emerging language, which did not facilitate co-construction but caused obstacles to understanding, and contributed to negative attitudes toward the person delivering the session, *i.e.* specialist teacher, and the subject, *i.e.* MFL. While such practice could be beneficial to challenge high achievers, it was a cause of dissatisfaction to lower ability children. There needed to be a balance and an individual approach to children that the specialist could not recognise as a peripheral teacher, an argument mentioned by Driscoll (1999) and Morgan and Neil (2001) as a disadvantage of the specialist. Hence the presence of linguistic skills and, at the same time, the absence of the pedagogical skill of understanding children's needs, created a tension within the 'subjects,' and between the 'subjects' and the 'object.'

The skill of recognising the capabilities and needs of children is important, not just in terms of the use of emerging language as exemplified above, but also in relation to differentiation of tasks for lower and higher level learners. This is true of general language pedagogy, and by extension reflected in CALL. The specialist's organisation of competitive, timed IWB games, demanded her selecting students to come and participate. It was a common re-occurrence that the children chosen by her could not cope with the task. This left them with a feeling of failure, fuelled by the frustration of others and their contribution to their group's failure. Hence being able to predict who can deal with more challenging

words, and who is better left with cognates which are similar to their native language and therefore considered to be easier (Lado, 1957, cited in Littlewood, 1981), is important, and eases the tension between the ‘subject’ and the ‘object.’

4.4.1.3 The impact of lack of technological and pedagogical skills on limited task design

Typically, IWB integration took place on a whole class basis. This meant that either: the information was displayed on the board and students were asked to relate to it and answer questions (lesson I and M, Table 4.6); video content was played (lesson A, H, J and N, Table 4.6) which, again, demanded concentration and repetition of either short sentences or isolated lexical items; or an IWB game was introduced to use interactive features (lesson B, C, E, G and N, Table 4.6). This whole-class introduction of games by the specialist was common across the key stages, and the idea of it was well received by the children. However, especially in age groups with higher numbers of children, such games were a cause of frustration for reasons other than the lack of differentiation discussed in the previous section; organisation of whole class tasks around the IWB meant that children had to wait for their turn to actively participate. This led to disruption and frustration, as the only way they were engaged was through raising their hand and waiting to be selected. Similarly, once they had a chance to participate, the awareness of not being able to repeat the activity led to disengagement. While the generalists could manage those children more skilfully (*c.f.* 4.4.4.2), the prolonged nature of the specialist’s game led to dissatisfaction and missed opportunities for further engagement.

The specialist’s IWB use was teacher-centred, in the sense that the instances of children coming up and interacting with the board were not as frequent as in the case of the Year 6 teacher’s and other non-specialist’s lessons. This was commented on by the children, and mentioned as the reason for negative attitudes toward MFL (see 4.1.1.1). The dominance of the specialist using the IWB was also visible in the interviews, as she described her IWB integration as “me showing things on the board”, indicating a didactic approach to IWB use (Beauchamp, 2004; Kennewell and Beauchamp, 2011), reinforcing the

behaviourist drilling Whyte *et al.* (2011) found to be typical of primary school teaching. The informal conversations I had with the specialist indicated her belief that the sheer presence and integration of technology will be motivational to the children without the need for interactivity with the equipment. This, however, as confirmed by the children's attitudes at the research school and Passey's *et al.* (2004) findings, was not the case.

As was indicated in 4.2.2.1, the lack of physical space was an impediment to greater physical interactivity in three year groups. The more detailed comparisons, however, are based on a classroom that possessed sufficient space to move around and interact. Hence the specialist's conscious decision not to involve the children to the extent that it is done in other curricular areas cannot be entirely linked to the inconvenience of the physical space.

As is clear from Table 4.6 (p.219-220), despite a wider variety of tools being available to teachers, the specialist's technology integration was limited to the use of the IWB. This, with the exception of one project, was also the case in the pilot school. The overreliance on the IWB at both schools stemmed from a lack of skills and confidence to incorporate a wider range of equipment into teaching. For the specialist at the research school, this might be a result of her narrow idea of what educational technology is, linked to her TEL experience. While she was able to use equipment such as the PC, camera or audio recorder, she could not translate this use into the educational MFL environment. Because her CALL experience was centred around the IWB, the only technology she could refer and relate to was the IWB and the commercially produced software that was displayed through the IWB. This led to a very restricted task design, as teaching and learning was purely focused on utilising the software, which did not include any of the socio-constructivist elements that she was advocating as important for ELL. Despite having linguistic flexibility to introduce tasks which use technology as a tool for communication, content creation and engagement - mirrored in examples reported by Pim (2014) - she did not seem to develop TPK (Koehler and Mishra, 2009) skills to integrate technology to reinforce learning. Her attitudes and perceptions

about ICT also reinforced that overreliance on the IWB, since her vision of possible difficulties discouraged her attempts at integration. As indicated below:

“I don’t do computer suite sessions but I mean the other teachers do so you can ask other teachers about that but I imagine it is extremely noisy and difficult to monitor if you got 30 kids in there.”

(formal interview with the specialist, 15.07.2013)

Hence IWB integration required the least technical and pedagogical prowess, whilst also fulfilling a requirement of using a stimulating and technological classroom aid.

Additionally, the inability to implement CALL that is more in line with current pedagogical thinking, *i.e.* socio-constructivist student-centred learning, focused on content creation, was due to the difficulties of being a part-time member of staff. While hired on a part-time basis, the specialist teacher’s involvement outside of MFL was minimal; hence she was perceived by the children as an outsider, as reported in Driscoll’s (1999) account. This was reflected in the way the KS2 children referred to the specialist in the interviews as “the other teacher” or “she”. Seeing children only once a week (and even less often for MFL) did not allow the specialist to establish a rapport and understand children’s individual needs to the same extent as a class teacher can. She did not refer to the children by name, and while she was able to identify some children with special needs, she could not engage them in a way that would not lead to frustration. Hence this obstacle relates to the pedagogical skill of being able to understand children as individuals, and her perceptions of what children expect and what they are capable of (4.4.1.2). She understood the role of technology in children’s lives and the impact that IWBs have on learning, however, neglected the pedagogical principles of interaction and interactivity (Kenewell and Beauchamp, 2010) that need to accompany integration. While children do appreciate the IWB, as research by Harrison *et al.* (2002) and Passey *et al.* (2004) indicates, they value it most when they are able to interact with it individually. In fact, interaction with any tool was

that aspect that the children wanted and expected from their teachers, as discussed in 4.4.4. This was also reflected in the interviews with the children from the pilot school, where the preference was for being able to interact, with or without the technology. Hence the motivational value of technology was overemphasised here, and the importance of the task and what the students actually did, as opposed to what was used to do this task, was omitted.

The specialist teacher mentioned a lack of time to incorporate anything else as the main reason for the IWB focus. While this may be valid with lower Key Stages, because the lessons that incorporate PC demand more time (as was with other curricular areas), lessons in Year 5 and Year 6 were long enough to introduce other technologies and focus on tasks that those technologies would support. This, however, would demand pedagogical adjustments, careful task implementation planning, and greater fluency with technology other than the IWB; this was a problem for the specialist, whose teaching habits and comfort zone centred on the IWB.

4.4.1.4 Overestimation of CALL resources – a good CALL resource as a substitute for linguistic and pedagogical skills

The specialist's choice of resources was based on three factors: potential engagement, good models of the language, and ease of use. Hence the resources used contained audio-visual add-ons and Flash applications, in the form of songs or games, with pronunciation modelled by the native speakers. The ease of use criterion was considered bearing in mind the specialists' role as a coordinator, and the non-specialists' option to continue or reinforce her teaching. Hence the ease of use did not refer to technological but to linguistic aspects, namely how much additional linguistic preparation was required for teachers with limited knowledge of the language to deliver the session. Hence the majority of what the specialist recommended was ready-made, commercially produced courses, that had the potential to deliver the session for the teachers. This reflected her belief that CALL resources of good quality are crucial for successful MFL delivery, especially if the provision lies in the hands of generalists. She would indicate in

our informal interviews that all that any generalist teacher with minimum expertise needs is a good MFL resource such as Early Start, as noted in my diary:

“I found it amazing today that X [the specialist] thinks that a CD can replace her as a teacher. I had to ask her 3 times to make sure this is what she meant. I even used this Freudian technique of misinterpreting what she really meant to see if she would correct me and she did.”

(Diary entry, 14.03.2013)

Hence the resources recommended by her focused on lexis, often not presented in context. It was her job outside of CALL to add communicative context that mirrored CLT principles (2.4.1.1). While she herself had sufficient linguistic skills to fill that gap, other teachers did not. However, this was not considered by her to be an issue. Contrary to her socio-constructivist view of language, in relation to generalist teaching she considered focus on lexis on its own, as presented in the software, as sufficient input for the pupils to develop skills. Hence the over-appreciation for what is commercially available and what the software can achieve on its own, led to diminishing of the importance of pedagogy around technology.

4.4.2 Non-specialists’ application of CALL – technology as a substitute for a language teacher

The following section addresses the relationship between skills and pedagogy identified through observations of non-specialist teachers, and allows for comparisons with the previous section. It focuses on common subthemes that revolve around the importance placed on technology to deliver the content (4.4.2.1) as well as the influence of primary pedagogy on MFL discussed in 4.2.2.2 and 4.4.2.3.

4.4.2.1 Overreliance on the technological resources as a result of poor linguistic skills– software as “job done”

As illustrated in Appendix I and J the content of the generalists’ lessons focused on lexis introduced and practiced *via* IWB resources. The vocabulary, for example days of the week, was taught in isolated chunks, focusing on pronunciation

modelled from the IWB. The practice stage mirrored the specialist's repertoire of skills and techniques, and focused on establishing the link between the written and the spoken form. Hence the communicative aspect reflected in the specialists' follow up activities (4.1.1.1) was ignored, and the main focus shifted to behaviouristic drills resembling the stage referred to by Bax (2003) as Restricted CALL and conducted on a whole class basis. Technology serves as a tool for modelling the language, hence the pronunciation aspect mentioned as an advantage and value of CALL in 4.1.2.1 was heavily applied. This was done to the extent that the teachers would not attempt pronouncing the words themselves, but would play them from the software and occasionally repeat it (Appendix I). Hence technology was given the status of an expert. Generalists' overreliance on resources was also noticed as early as 2000 by Martin, however, not specifically in reference to CALL resources. This view of the importance of a resource as a teacher seems to be reinforced by Ofsted (2011a), who refer to resources as a tool for providing the students with a good model of the language. This is also the intention behind the commercially produced software such as Tout Le Monde, Education City, or Early Start, that can be used to deliver the lesson through playing the units, which was confirmed by the specialist teacher in the pilot school:

“I'd say the biggest problem is pronunciation and getting pronunciation right is a difficulty amongst other language stuff. Just teaching without skills really. That's why people like using resources like Tout le Monde because it does the teaching with minimal skills.”

(formal interview with the specialist, pilot, 10.05.2012)

Similar to the specialist's lessons, the IWB was the only technology used for MFL. This, however, was not due to a lack of understanding of broader applications of technology in education, as observed with the specialist. The non-specialist teachers, as well as the headteacher, having had an opportunity to integrate a wider variety of equipment into their lessons outside of MFL (4.4.3), had a broader view of technology, and when interviewed referred to all of those, as opposed to focusing only on the IWB. This ability to translate technology to

educational contexts, and embed it into task design, was visible outside of MFL (*c.f.* 4.4.3), but not for MFL, where the predominant trend was a focus on teaching with or through software (Table 4.7).

Year	Topic	Duration	Resource	Technology	Activity	Reference
R	Pets	20 min	Early Start	IWB	Children watch the video as a whole class and repeat the names of the animals	K
1	Pets	20 min	Early Start	IWB	Children watch the video as a whole class and repeat the names of the animals Children drag and drop the written form with the picture	L

Table 4.7 Non-specialist’s CALL application

The overreliance on the IWB was linked to two factors: inability to plan effective language sessions outside of the specialist’s recommendations and, related to this, the issue of limited knowledge of the language that restricts what the teachers are realistically able to focus on in relation to content.

The specialist’s role as a coordinator and advisor on the content and its delivery techniques, meant that her practice served as a model for the non-specialists who lacked experience and knowledge. This is why the specialist’s focus on the IWB was replicated by the remaining members of staff, *i.e.* it seemed to be taken for granted as best practice with CALL, as illustrated by my diary entry below:

“I talked to Year 6 teacher today and asked her about the ICT suite and doing something for French in there. This was because the lessons she planned [non-MFL lesson] was so cool and creative and kids loved it so she could do the same thing with French. She looked at me funny, rolled her eyes and said she doesn’t know the language to do it. She also said that X [the specialist] doesn’t do it and X [the specialist] is the expert so she wouldn’t try. It would be too much hassle. She would rather stick to what the specialist does.”

(Diary entry, 20.06.2013)

While the teachers had the technical and pedagogical knowledge about more creative task design around technology, as exemplified in their practice outside of MFL (4.4.3), integration of anything other than the IWB would demand substantial preparation on their part and would resemble exploring new territory without much or any support. This realisation seemed to lead to a fear of failure, which outweighed the benefits of success, taking into account the lack of linguistic skills that creates obstacles to successful teaching.

Similarly, the non-specialists did not explore the possibility of integrating other ICT resources outside of those recommended by the specialist. While easy availability of IWB resources creates no obstacles to access, pedagogical and content knowledge is necessary to successfully integrate them into lessons. This is due to two reasons. Firstly, the knowledge of MFL pedagogy is necessary to be able to embed those resources so that they help to achieve the intended goals and objectives. Secondly, PCK is important to assess the quality of available resources. This echoes issues expressed in the recent *Language Trends* survey (Board and Tinsley, 2015), where it is highlighted that with an abundance of resources comes a lack of understanding of what constitutes a resource of good quality. For those reasons the teachers in the research school relied on the specialist's judgement in relation to CALL, however managed to transfer their primary pedagogical approaches to MFL lessons outside of CALL as discussed in 4.4.3.

Hence the underlying cause for limited CALL seems to be lack, or perceived lack, of linguistic and pedagogical expertise. The chosen provision model, triggered by the headteacher's attitudes surrounding the school aiming at developing competence, prioritised the superiority of an expert. MFL knowledge and skills can be intimidating to non-specialists who feel that they cannot match the abilities of the language specialist, and decide not to get involved and leave the provision in the capable hands of the expert, as exemplified by the practice prior to the specialist's illness. When this cannot be done (in this case due to the specialist's

long-term absence), they do not venture beyond the minimum language input that is required, as my observations of lessons indicate.

Hence in the research school, technology served as a lesson delivery mechanism used to compensate for the language shortcomings of the non-specialist teachers. The view of the resource actually doing the teaching was predominant amongst generalists, who considered CALL as ‘job done.’ Those views were expressed by the Year 6 teacher and were reflected in the interviews with the staff, who mentioned modelling of the language as the reason underlying their technology integration for MFL (4.1.2.1). Hence there is a misconception and over-reliance on resources (especially fully-produced DVD courses). This is fuelled by the specialist’s belief that the software is actually doing the teaching. This view reinforces a common ‘Silicon Valley’ approach to education, claiming that there is software to patch any problem with current education. Although this view was expressed by Reed (2014) in relation to HE, a similar line of thinking applies here, as illustrated by the specialist’s thinking about resources. This example illustrates a shift in perception about educational technology. In the past, teachers felt anxious about being replaced by a machine; in the case of the research school, there appears to be a feeling of gratitude that they can be replaced by computer software.

4.4.2.2 The impact of primary pedagogical skills on the delivery – differentiation and interactivity

The specialist’s lack of the pedagogical skill of being able to understand the needs of pupils was mentioned as creating tension between the ‘subject’ and the ‘object’ in 4.4.1.2. This issue was not present in the generalists’ lessons. Taking the Year 6 lesson as an example (Appendix J), the teacher used differentiated worksheets. For this particular lesson she produced three types of handouts, differing in the degree of difficulty that she distributed to her children according to their literacy skills. Hence some children received a crossword, the less able (who also struggled with writing in their own language) received a ‘cover, write, check’ activity, and the middle ability learners a word search. The teacher determined

which tasks the students undertook, with an option of giving an additional handout if the work was completed correctly and quickly. This arrangement boosted the children's confidence, as the tasks were achievable for everyone, which in turn influenced children's attitudes to the language teacher and language learning ('object'), as expressed in the interviews. A lack of this type of differentiation observed in non-specialist teaching contributed to dissatisfaction with the teacher, outlined in 4.1.1.5.

Knowledge of the children's capabilities also came to be useful in relation to CALL. Again the lesson in Appendix J serves as an illustration. When selecting children to play games and have their turn at the IWB or with flashcards, the generalist teacher was able to choose the children according to their abilities. Hence when revising days of the week, the higher ability children were asked to come and find or pronounce more linguistically demanding words, while children who could struggle were given words that were shorter, easier to pronounce or were cognates. Similarly, with those games for which success meant completing the task quickly, children were chosen who could do the task maintaining the necessary speed, so any possible disagreements between the competing groups of children were eliminated.

The knowledge of children's needs contributed to forming a good rapport, which the specialist, not being able to spend sufficient time to get to know the learners at that level, was not always able to establish with the KS2 pupils. That rapport worked both ways; the children were respectful toward the generalist teacher, and the teacher was willing to incorporate children's ideas and adapt activities to include their suggestions, which were ignored by the specialist. This was apparent in Year 6, where the children's suggestions of lining up for the IWB to complete the timed game were taken into account. This shows a very gentle move toward Whyte's *et al.* (2014) categorisation of IWB use as 'simulation,' but only in the 'freedom aspect,' in relation to planning and control (Table 2.9, p.90).

The generalists also allowed more opportunities for physical interactivity with the IWB, and catered to the needs of kinaesthetic learners. Hence the lessons were not

centred on the teacher “doing things on the board,” as described by the specialist, but on students being involved in numerous activities that were shorter, yet more frequent. This gave a sense of the lessons being fast-paced and more interactive, and resulted in the children’s engagement throughout. Hence the periods of disengagement observed with the specialist were not present. This tendency for non-specialists to involve students more created a sense of cooperation and learning together. This, again, seems to be a result of lack of confidence and lack of language skills, which meant that the teachers were often learning along with the children, as they themselves confirmed in informal conversations.

4.4.2.3 Bringing primary pedagogy into the language classroom – the potential for creativity

The non-ICT activities delivered by the specialist usually focused on handouts or games, as explained in 4.4.1. The generalists, however, could and did add an extra element to the MFL session, by integrating a fun element embedded into their weekly routine to languages. A regular event for the Year 6 learners was a ‘Talent Show,’ during which children were able to demonstrate their talents in a funny, quite often exaggerated way (Appendix J). As part of the MFL lesson, children were listening to the ‘days of the week’ song, trying to master the vocabulary, pronunciation and the correct order. The IWB song helped reinforce memorisation. For more practice, the teacher incorporated the ‘Talent Show’ event into a MFL lesson, and gave the children an opportunity to demonstrate their singing and their language skills by performing their own interpretation of the days of the week song. This was followed by the teacher’s opera singing performance, which contributed to establishing a good rapport, also in MFL. A similar tendency to integrate activities that had been successful in other areas of the curriculum into MFL was seen in a Year 1 lesson (Appendix I, where the flashcard game was translated into languages). The children mentioned during their interview that that game was their favourite activity from Spanish lessons, over any other activity introduced by the specialist. As Hood and Tobutt (2007) suggest, integrating MFL into other parts of the day, such as taking the register and greetings, is important in contributing to CLIL delivery and building an MFL

culture in the school. However, bringing the successful parts of weekly routine into MFL is equally, if not more important.

4.4.3 The creativity of ICT applications outside of MFL

While the use of ICT for languages was restricted to the IWB, the integration was more varied outside of MFL. The variation related to the types of technology used, task design, and different ways of organising work. Table 4.8 below contains short descriptions of tasks based on observational data for which technology was utilised in other curricular areas.

While the IWB was still the dominant technology, and used as extensively as blackboards in the pre-IWB era, cameras, visualisers, and the ICT suite were also integrated. This integration was suited to the needs of the task and carefully planned beforehand, hence their use was not as frequent as the IWB, which was used spontaneously to illustrate any point.

Year group	Subject and topic	Technology use	Ref.
Year 1	Literacy	The teacher first tells the students the story and then uses the board to draw the sequence of events asking the children for their input - a revision activity. Different stations are set up around the classroom; one of those stations is the IWB. Children are divided into groups and each group spends around 10-15 minutes at each station. IWB station - children work with the TA who coordinates the task - they have to put the events of the story that the students discuss the week in the correct order, each child has a chance to contribute and organise an event.	A1
Year 2	Literacy/ Art - the Fire of London	Whole class IWB - the teacher summarizes the events of the Great Fire of London, asking students for their input, asking questions about the main events and Samuel Pepys journals, they are shown pictures of the fire and asked about what the people are doing, their feelings <i>etc.</i> The children embark on individual tasks on a PC - the class is divided into two groups - one group is working in the suite and one in the classroom. The group in the classroom work on doing some art work that represents the London from the fire of London times. The group in the PC suite is first of all asked to do some research on London during the time of the fire of London and write a journal entry from the point of view of Samuel Pepys, some of the websites were provided to the learners. The groups swap after the break.	B1
Year 5	Numeracy - Holiday planning	The students were expected to browse the Internet for prices of different components of their holiday and plan their trips with certain budget in mind. To make the task even more authentic the groups of students were given money to spend.	C1
Year 6	Geography	The children were learning about the area where they live. Some most common sites were presented via PPT slides and discussed as a whole class activity. The children were then taken to the ICT suite and worked in groups of 3 to create a presentation on one chosen site. They had to do their research on the Internet, decide on what to include and prepare a PPT slide. The children were encouraged to incorporate some of the pictures they took during a trip.	D1

Table 4.8 Summary of observational data relating to technology use for other lessons.

While integration for MFL was mostly based on whole class activities, for the rest of the curriculum there was a variation of whole class, group, and individual work. Similarly to MFL, the IWB was used for whole class activities; however, there were also instances of group work and individual work. This happened when activities were based on rotation and set up at different stations, as described in lesson A1 and B1 (Table 4.8). The children worked in their ability groups on different tasks and different stations. One of those stations was the IWB and the activity to be performed on the IWB was supervised by the TA (C1, Table 4.8). While the thinking about the task was done as a group activity, each child also had a chance to contribute by interacting with the board. This set-up eliminated the problems related to boredom, impatience, and lack of engagement observed in MFL, and allowed everybody to make equal contributions. Group work was also encouraged around the PCs (D1, Table 4.8), although it was considered to be a disadvantage by the teachers, due to logistical issues of lack of sufficient quantity of equipment as commented in 4.2.2.2. Outside of group work, the children had an opportunity for one-to-one interaction with the tools in ICT suites, as practised in Year 6 and Year 2 (B1, D1, Table 4.8). This was made possible due to different arrangements where the class was divided into two groups, one supervised by the TA in the classroom and the other supervised by the teacher in the suite. Such organisation of work allowed each child to work individually on the machine, while the other group was working with the teacher in the classroom on a different aspect of the same task.

Cameras were used for projects or literacy to complement the writing the students were doing in the classroom, helping them to enrich the stories they were trying to tell (D1, Table 4.7).

TEL teaching outside of MFL did not rely so heavily on commercially produced resources. Those were still utilised, however mostly for games used in conjunction with revision activities and audio-visual materials for presentation.

They were not as central to teaching and pedagogical practice, as in the case of languages. There was a greater sense of evaluation of what resources aid learning, and what aims and objectives could be better achieved without the TEL element. Especially with project work, there was greater tendency to use ICT at the level of modification, moving towards redefinition of the ‘SAMR’ model (Puentedura, 2014). An example of this is the holiday planning activity (C1, Table 4.8), or Powerpoint presentation (D1, Table 4.8), which demanded greater student engagement in content creation. Such activities gave the learners some autonomy, *i.e.* choice of what to explore and how to present their work, which was valued greatly by the children, as expressed in 4.1.2. Such engagement in content creation and production as an expression of creativity, was not apparent in CALL (*c.f.* 4.4.2 and 4.4.1).

4.4.4 Children’s pedagogical needs and expectations – interactivity, creativity, authenticity and autonomy

Examining the pedagogical experience from the point of view of the children is an important aspect of examining CALL practice. This is due to the growing appreciation for children’s voice, but also in order to examine to what extent the children’s needs are being met. Also, in this thesis children are treated as ‘subjects’ in the activity system, hence possible tensions may arise between them and other ‘subjects,’ in the present case the specialist and the non-specialist teachers, and the ‘object.’ It is important therefore to look into their expectations of pedagogical experience, how they translate onto CALL, and to identify the tensions and contradictions within the activity system that create obstacles to fulfilment of their expectations.

The observations, as well as formal and informal interviews with the children, echoed the principles behind what Keats and Schmid (2007) refer to as Education 2.0 and 3.0, *i.e.* the need for children to be active contributors, to produce rather than simply consume the knowledge (Neary and Winn, 2009). This need was realised through TEL for other curricular subjects. It is the predominance of whole class IWB use that contributed to a degree of hostility towards MFL, as their dissatisfaction with MFL was explained as resulting from

lack of physical interactivity with the equipment when taught by the non-specialist:

S5: "...most of the time I get quite bored in Spanish coz all that you're doing is sit and watch something on the whiteboard."
(formal interview with children, Year 5, 19.07.2013)

S4: "...all you do is sit and watch but the games if you know them, they're fun but if you don't..."

S7: "...she just plays stuff and we watch and it's boring."
(formal interview with children, Year 4, 19.07.2013)

This indicates that the approaches with CALL were - to children's minds - didactic, as classified by Beauchamp and Kennewell (2010), and confirms my interpretation of pedagogy. This teacher-centric approach is contrasted with what children experience outside of MFL in relation to whiteboards. As explained by one of the children:

(S4:) "...what she [the generalist] would normally do, she would show something on the IWB but then she wouldn't just stand there she would go back to the other board and explain it all again, which is good. And sometimes, sometimes she would show us stuff in English and maths and then we would have to do things on the whiteboard."
(formal interview with children, Year 5, 19.07.2013)

This reinforces the importance of the IWB, not as a lesson delivery mechanism, but as one teaching tool amongst many.

While (as was pointed out in 4.1.2) children's attitudes toward MFL vary, as confirmed by the generalist teacher, creating a link to real life and a purpose for speaking the language positively influences children's experience and changes their perception of languages. This was exemplified through the experience of the Year 6 French trip. The specialist's views of the children's engagement in the preparation for the trip, and during the trip, were confirmed by the generalist's accounts, as the class teacher confirmed that the authenticity aspect that accompanied learning at that point was motivational. Hence when the link

between the lesson and real purpose of language learning was made explicitly clear, even those children who may not respond well to MFL in a routine classroom circumstances, responded positively during the trip:

“Fantastic, they loved the French trip. They were brilliant. In fact out of all the classes I’ve taken they were the best. They really were. They loved being in the market. (...)They really really wanted to try hard to speak French, I was impressed. They all wanted to have a go, they all wanted to buy something because we gave them some money you see to buy lunch so it is a little bit of a challenge.”

(formal interview with Year 6 teacher, 27.06.2013)

This was also confirmed by the children, who valued the experience and expressed their positive attitudes to language learning, justifying the value of MFL with the need to communicate, “just like we did in France”. It is that authenticity that truly engaged the children who required language input at the time for preparation, knowing they would be able to use it. Similarly, a level of authenticity is valued in relation to technology and practised in other curriculum areas, as the example of the numeracy lesson illustrates (C1, Table 4.8). This, however, was missing in MFL lessons outside of the French trip, and not realised completely in CALL.

Apart from valuing creative, authentic tasks, the children also commented on the significance of the aspect of independence that their class teachers gave them. While the aims and objectives of the task and the lesson were clear and pre-planned by the teacher, the children were given some flexibility as to what aspect of the topic to cover:

S5: “...normally she would give us website and we could sort of go on the websites and explore the websites and like explore the whole internet with like PowerPoint.”

(formal interview with children, Year 5, 19.07.2013)

Y6: "...we can search all the Internet and do PowerPoint and we can present it however we like and we do graphs on the computer that we might actually need in real life".

(formal interview with children, Year 6, 19.07.2013)

Having an opportunity to explore a topic autonomously, through one-to-one interaction with technology in the ICT suite, was one of the types of tasks that the children particularly enjoyed. Greater student involvement in co-directing the task resembles Whyte's *et al.* (2014) classification of the move toward 'communicative' teaching, or Beauchamp and Kennewell's (2010) synergistic use. While in 2.1.1 I questioned Jarvis's (2014) emphasis on the autonomous use of technology, and his proposition of the term 'MALU' instead of CALL was rejected, I recognise the importance of autonomy and personalisation of learning that technology offers. However, this autonomy is considered within the realm of classroom activities, not outside it as Jarvis (2014) suggests.

SUMMARY

The discussion of the impact of skills on pedagogy revolved around such pedagogical aspects as teaching method, task design, degree of integration and interaction and interactivity. I found these components to be influential in relation to normalisation as emphasised by Becta (2007), Beauchamp and Kennewell (2010), Whyte *et al.* (2014), Pim (2013), Puetnedura (2014) and Pazio (2014). This is reflected in the summary of conditions in Table 4.9.

Main condition	For CALL to reach the stage of normalisation technology has to be embedded in teachers' teaching practice in such a way as to allow for greater language gains, greater creativity with the CALL pedagogy that reflects current pedagogical thinking, and greater integration in terms of variety.
Sub-conditions	<p>In order to ensure effective language learning teachers need to have good knowledge of individual children and their needs.</p> <p>For CALL pedagogy to be normalised the teachers need to move away from relying on the commercially produced resources and move toward better task design that encourages interaction, collaboration and creation.</p> <p>In order to move towards normalisation the teaching of foreign languages has to be supported by a wider range of technology which enables whole class presentation of materials, group/ pair work but also individual/ autonomous applications.</p> <p>Technology has to be embedded in such a way as to enable interactivity and interaction.</p>

Table 4.9 Pedagogical conditions necessary for normalisation.

The comparison of specialists' and non-specialists' use of CALL revealed that in both cases, CALL is restricted to simple tasks and an overreliance on software. According to Warschauer and Healey (1998) and Bax (2003), such applications are associated with early stages of CALL. From the specialist's point of view this might be a result of lack of TPK, and from the point of view of non-specialists mostly an absence of (P)CK (Koehler and Mishra, 2009). Hence primary CALL still operates within the realms of 'Substitution' (Puentedura, 2014). What is substituted here though is not one tool with another as Puentedura (2014) intended, but technology acts as a substitute for lack of skills, be it linguistic or technological-pedagogical. This is contrary to other curricular areas where sufficient PCK allows for creativity of task design and technology utilisation, exhibiting characteristics of socio-constructivist teaching associated with normalisation.

Mapping the analysis of 4.4 into the activity theory framework, I reported on the tensions between the 'subject' and the 'object,' and the 'subject' and the 'tools,' in relation to both MFL and ICT. While outside of MFL the teachers did use technology creatively to support interactive learning, this did not translate onto CALL due to the issues related to language skills and confidence. A detailed

summary of the main characteristics of specialist and non-specialist MFL teaching can be found in Appendix L.

4.5 Theme 5: MFL and ICT as components of CALL – normalisation of CALL as a 3rd generation AT

The final theme draws on the data presented and discussed in the previous sections, *i.e.* 4.1, 4.2, 4.3 and 4.4, and refers to the relationship between ICT/TEL, MFL and CALL. Because the evidence for the interpretation is provided in the previously discussed themes, to avoid repetition I focus only on my understanding of the implications of the data on the application of Engeström's (1999) Activity Theory (AT), and the understanding of normalisation of primary CALL in England.

I explained in Chapter 1 that the subject matter of this research, *i.e.* normalisation of primary CALL in England, is influenced by three fields: CALL, TEL, and MFL, as illustrated by Figure 1.1 (p.2). The influence of the field of CALL relates to the application of the concept of normalisation that is applied to the context of primary MFL in England. The TEL and MFL elements are treated as two components of CALL. Hence I treat primary CALL as predicated on the presence of foreign language teaching and the technology aspect being integrated into teaching. I also noticed this tendency to perceive CALL as an amalgam of two components, or two subjects (MFL and ICT) in the primary MFL literature, where there is a preference to refer to CALL in terms of 'ICT for MFL,' as done by, amongst others, Cameron (2001), Sharpe (1999, 2001), Driscoll (2004), Hood and Tobutt (2007), Davies (2008) and Macrory *et al.* (2012). This tendency is also reflected in the data collected for this thesis, exemplified throughout the discussion of subthemes in 4.1, 4.2, 4.3 and 4.4. When describing their experience with CALL, and referring to factors which make teaching MFL with technology difficult, the teachers referred to both problems related to MFL (mostly lack of skills) and issues related to technology. While the questions I asked were influenced by what I found in the

literature and my experience, the teachers would refer to these two areas unprompted. For example the specialist mentioned issues related to ICT as her biggest problems in teaching languages. This, as explained in 4.3.2, is mostly related to her experiencing problems with equipment, which caused obstacles to successful lessons. The non-specialists on the other hand commented primarily on issues related to their language skills, which impeded the success of their teaching. This division was visible throughout the previous sections, where issues related to ICT and MFL were discussed as creating tensions within the activity system.

The data then suggest that understanding CALL in terms of ICT and MFL demands the application of 3rd generation AT, which according to Engeström (2001) is a combination of several activity systems influencing the common ‘object.’ Hence in the present thesis I see the ‘object’ of normalisation of primary CALL influenced by the activity system of ICT (or TEL, which I use interchangeably throughout this thesis) and the MFL activity system, as *per* Figure 4.5.

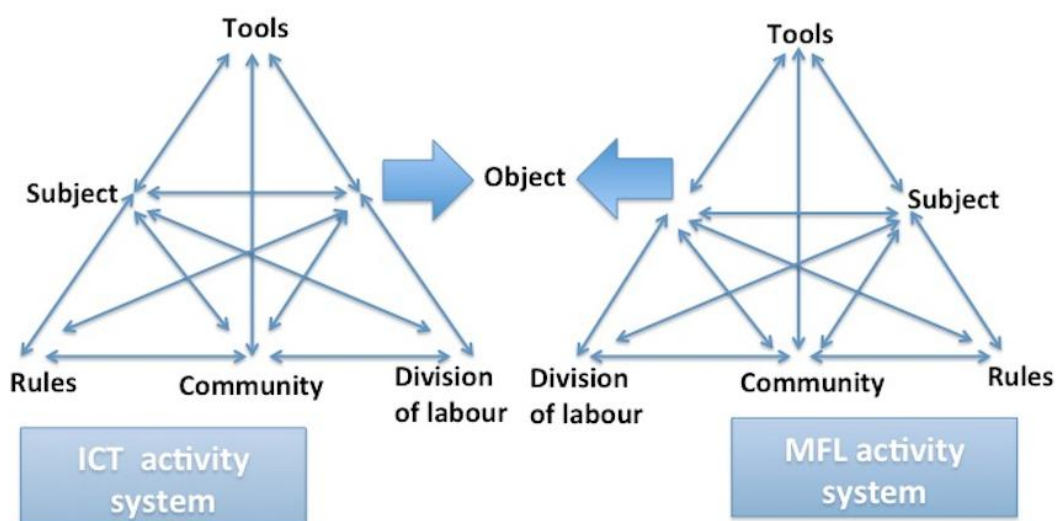


Figure 4.5 Representation of activity systems for normalised CALL.

Through applying 3rd generation AT to the field of CALL, I agree with Motteram's (2008) proposal of looking at two activity systems in relation to teaching, however, I use the activity systems of ICT and MFL, and not that of the teacher and student which he proposes. While the evidence from the collected data might point to further similar subdivisions which mirror Motteram's (2008) thinking about different participants and their sociocultural realities, for example specialists and non-specialists, the data suggest that the two activity systems represented in the Figure 4.5 were of greater importance in relation to the 'object' of normalisation.

Seeing primary CALL in terms of two activity systems influencing a common object points to the need for a redefinition of the term normalisation. As I explained in 2.1.3, current understanding of normalisation refers to the aspects of availability and accessibility, which lead to seamless, regular integration of technology. It therefore takes for granted that regular, successful provision is in place. As the data in the previous sections illustrate, and as discussed in 2.3.2 and 2.3.3, the challenges that even now primary teachers face with MFL impact on the overall delivery of CALL, and create obstacles to normalisation. Therefore, normalisation of primary CALL is predicated on the presence of two stable components – stable MFL provision, and stable ICT infrastructure, to create opportunities to embed technology into the subject teaching. Hence I suggest that those two elements need to be normalised on their own (Figure 4.6).

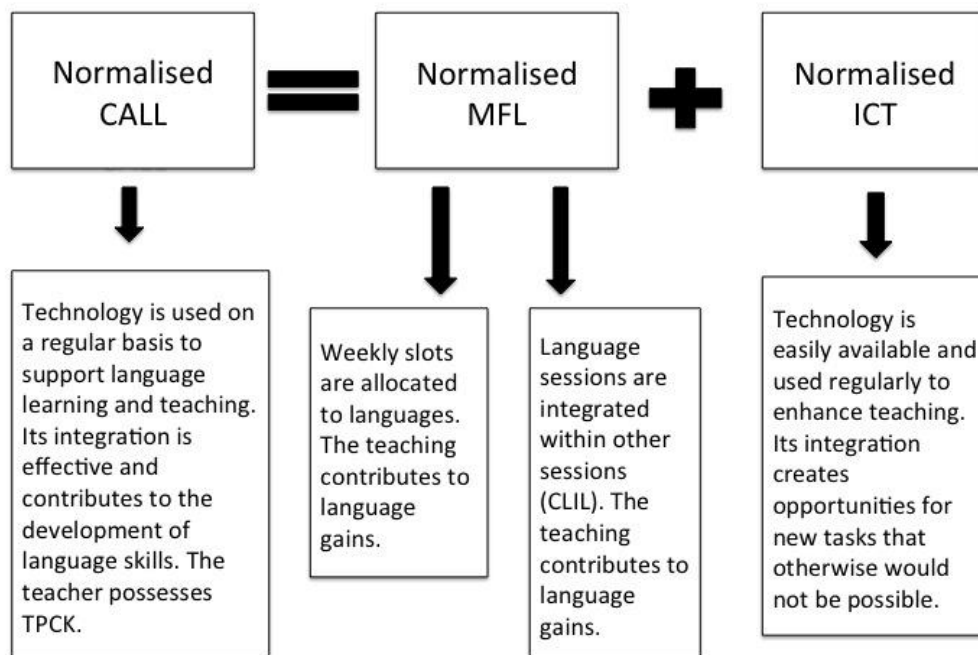


Figure 4.6 Understanding of normalisation of primary CALL.

What I understand as stable provision is such delivery that meets the government's expectations outlined in the *National Curriculum* (DfE, 2013a). Achieving this is predicated on regular, meaningful teaching of all students. While (as indicated in 2.3.2) there have been initiatives focusing on training teachers - such as the Training and Development Agency's guidelines, and overseas placements that ensured that languages are taught - the entitlement meant that a small percentage of schools still had the option to opt out, and as Board and Tinsley (2014, 2015) indicate, a small percentage did. This was also confirmed by the difficulties I experienced as late as 2012 when approaching schools about participation in the research. Given the statutory nature of languages at this point in time, the presence of language provision should have been, and according to Board and Tinsley (2015) was, common practice; however, provision that contributed to long-term gains might not be. Hence regardless of the model adopted (be it CLIL or competence model), normalised MFL is considered as a regularly taught subject contributing to the development of pupils' language skills as per Figure 4.6.

Similarly ICT integration needs to be a normal part of teacher's effective everyday practice linked to the stage of 'redefinition' (Puentedura 2014) (Figure 4.6). This was largely the case outside of MFL. As discussed in 4.4.3, teachers' application outside of MFL was varied enough, and aligned with current thinking about effective ICT use discussed in 2.2.4. What stopped the transfer of this pedagogy was a lack of linguistic skills, and associated with it a lack of confidence and a fear of failure.

The idea of two activity systems influencing normalisation of primary CALL independently was embedded within the initial model that was created out of the engagement with the literature, and brought into the pilot site (Figure 3.3, p.117). This was the aspect that was retained for the final model of factors that impede normalisation, presented in Chapter 5.

CHAPTER SUMMARY

The discussion of themes introduced in this chapter identified possible and real points of tension within the activity system that revolved around the areas of: attitudes (classified as an attribute of the 'subjects'), logistics, training and skills, and pedagogy. The discussion and analysis of data allowed me to map the following tensions identified in the research school. I refer to each one of them throughout the discussion of each theme; those are brought together in Figure 4.7 below to provide an overall picture of the challenges the school faces.

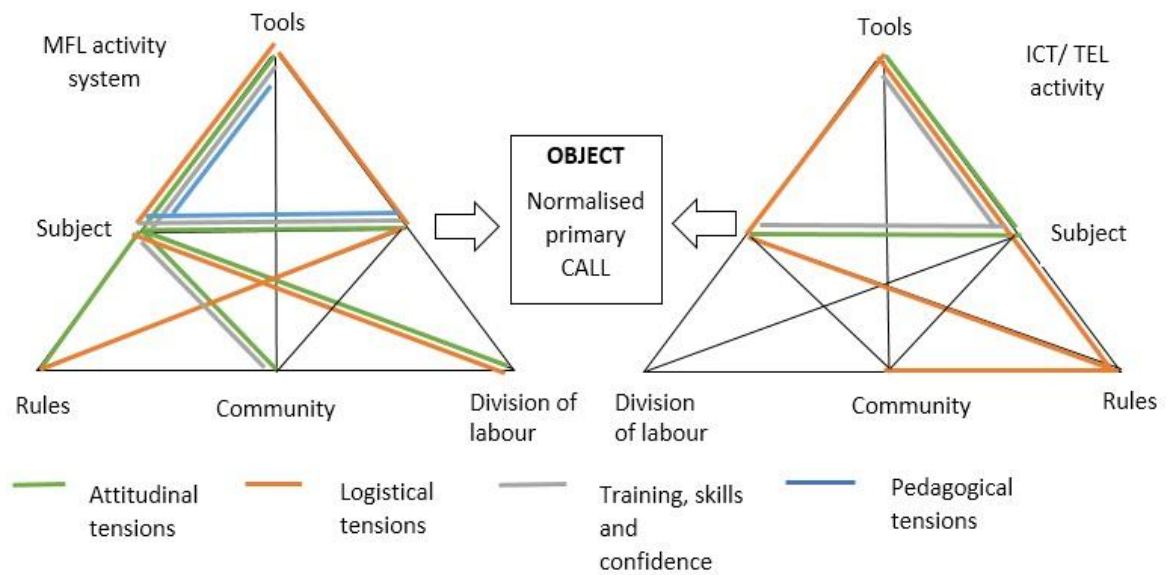


Figure 4.7 Tensions within the activity system of the research school in relation to the four areas.

Figure 4.7 shows that the tensions within both activity systems obstruct the achievement of the ‘object,’ hence normalisation has not been achieved. There are attitudinal, logistical, training, and pedagogical issues that need to be eliminated for CALL to be normalised. Those were discussed in 4.1, 4.2, 4.3 and 4.4 respectively, and summarised in the form of conditions necessary for normalisation to take place in Tables 4.2 (p.178), 4.3 (p.202), 4.5 (p.215) and 4.9 (p.243). Figure 4.7 suggests that while ICT related issues still pose obstacles to normalisation, they are not as evident as in earlier normalisation research (*e.g.* Chambers and Bax, 2006; Ward, 2007; Field, 2012). Those who are relatively new to teaching have had exposure to technology use in their Initial Teacher Education (ITE), and having had an opportunity to interact with it on a regular basis, technology has become a part of their everyday professional practice. In both the pilot and the main study, the remains of technological ‘fear’ were visible with the specialist teachers, who have not undertaken ITE (with ICT) and who did not have that degree of exposure and ability to pedagogically play and experiment with the equipment - an opportunity that full-time members of staff did have. In both the pilot and the main site, the teachers admitted they used technology as a tool to support learning around sixty percent of the time,

throughout the day. This was mostly possible due to the presence of the IWB - hence Curtim Schmid's (2008) claim that IWB is the technology that makes normalisation possible, seems to be reflected here. This seems to be the case in terms of easy availability and accessibility; it does not, however, guarantee effective teaching, which is linked to the definition of normalisation as explained by Bax (2003a, 2011) and repeated throughout this thesis. What was noticed in the research school was that the tensions identified within the MFL activity system influenced teachers' attitude about the superiority of software over their skills, and pushed them to ascribe the status of the expert to the software. Hence the technology, or more precisely commercially produced MFL software, seems to have a similar 'wow effect' on teachers as noticed by Bax (2003a) within the EFL sector. Based on the observations of other non-MFL sessions, while the ready-made resources are still extensively used, this use is more of a socio-constructivist nature, where technology is embedded within the task and is used to support collaborative meaning-making. Where the teachers feel they have the subject expertise, the over-reliance on materials as observed with languages is not present (see 4.4.3). Hence Bax's (2003a) references to CALL being in the 'Fear/Awe' stage seem to be reflected within the primary sector, however, for different reasons related to identified tensions within the MFL activity system.

Potential inevitability of normalisation needs to be discussed in relation to the context of primary CALL. With new technological inventions being introduced regularly, the word 'technology', as well as CALL, encompasses a wide variety of equipment. Hence the achievement of normalisation of CALL or technology in general is very difficult, if not impossible. Adoption of an innovation, and by extension the concept of normalisation, is closely linked to society's perceptions of what technology is. Just like in the case of a pen, or a book - examples often mentioned by Bax (2003a) - this perception of newness, and the qualities that make technology 'technology,' might diminish with time, especially as new generations of users are being born into the technologically dominated world. Alan Kay's (cited in Greelish, 2013) statement, 'Technology is anything that was not around when you were born,' illustrates this point. This is especially

true looking at primary school children and their digital natives status (Prensky, 2001, 2005). Hence when discussing normalisation, one should consider it in terms of normalisation of equipment or tool type, or even more so in terms of normalisation of ideas that are executed through technology. The evolution of how music is listened to, from a Walkman, to a portable CD player, to an mp3 player, and finally to smartphones, can serve as an example. The concept remained the same, *i.e.* allowing travellers to listen to music outside of their homes, but the way the idea is executed changed. Hence while the concept is normalised, the artefact that serves the execution of the concept is constantly being replaced by a different version to suit the needs of new generations (Vygotsky, 1978).

The aim of the present work, outside of providing a picture of normalisation in primary CALL, is the creation of a model that may serve as a point of reference and guidance on the broader sociocultural factors that impede the achievement of normalised CALL. This is following Bax's (2003), and Chambers and Bax's (2006), recognition of the need for and importance of such research, not just for the immediate context, but for the wider CALL community. Hence following this call from the research community, I draw on the themes and sub-themes identified through the analysis and present a visual representation of factors which need to be considered when moving toward normalisation of CALL. This visual representation is discussed in Chapter 5, and is in the form of a model for supporting and assessing normalisation of primary CALL.

CHAPTER 5

Model for assessing and supporting normalisation of primary CALL

INTRODUCTION

The previous chapters outlined predominant themes from the data, and situated them within the discussion of factors contributing to and impeding the achievement of normalised CALL within the research school. Those factors are reflected in the model presented in Figure 5.1. The Activity Theory (AT) principle of tensions and contradictions allowed me to identify where issues emerged en route to normalisation (see Figure 4.7, p.249). An attempt to present a visual representation of those factors and the relationships between them was made at the stage of the pilot (3.4.2) as a result of immersion in the literature. The pyramid model (Figure 3.3, p.117) proved to be inadequate and needed further amendments to better represent the reality of the normalisation of primary CALL. Those changes are presented in this chapter.

The model below (Figure 5.1) retained some of the initial thinking behind the pyramid, as the extensive immersion in the research context pointed to similar results. What comes through from the beginning of this thesis, from the literature review and the pilot, is the relationship between MFL, ICT and CALL. As confirmed by the data analysis (4.5), MFL and ICT are seen as two independent activity systems that seem to be affecting CALL in isolation, and therefore need to be considered separately. This need for separation of MFL from CALL stems from the characteristics of the context, and the low status of MFL in England (when compared to the rising status of English as the global language (and EFL)

in the world (Graddol 2000, 2006) and what follows the expansion of English Medium Instruction (EMI) (Dearden, 2015)). Hence here discussing the normalisation of CALL is impossible only in terms of obstacles toward technology integration. This stands in contradiction to previous research that reports only on factors relating to the technological aspect, since the presence of language provision was taken for granted (Chambers and Bax, 2006; Ward, 2007; Bax, 2011; Maftoon and Shahini, 2012; Mahdi, 2013; Rahmany *et al.*, 2014). Those findings are reflected in the model below, which presents aspects related to MFL and ICT as two separate parts, mirroring the same issues which merge into and influence CALL pedagogy.

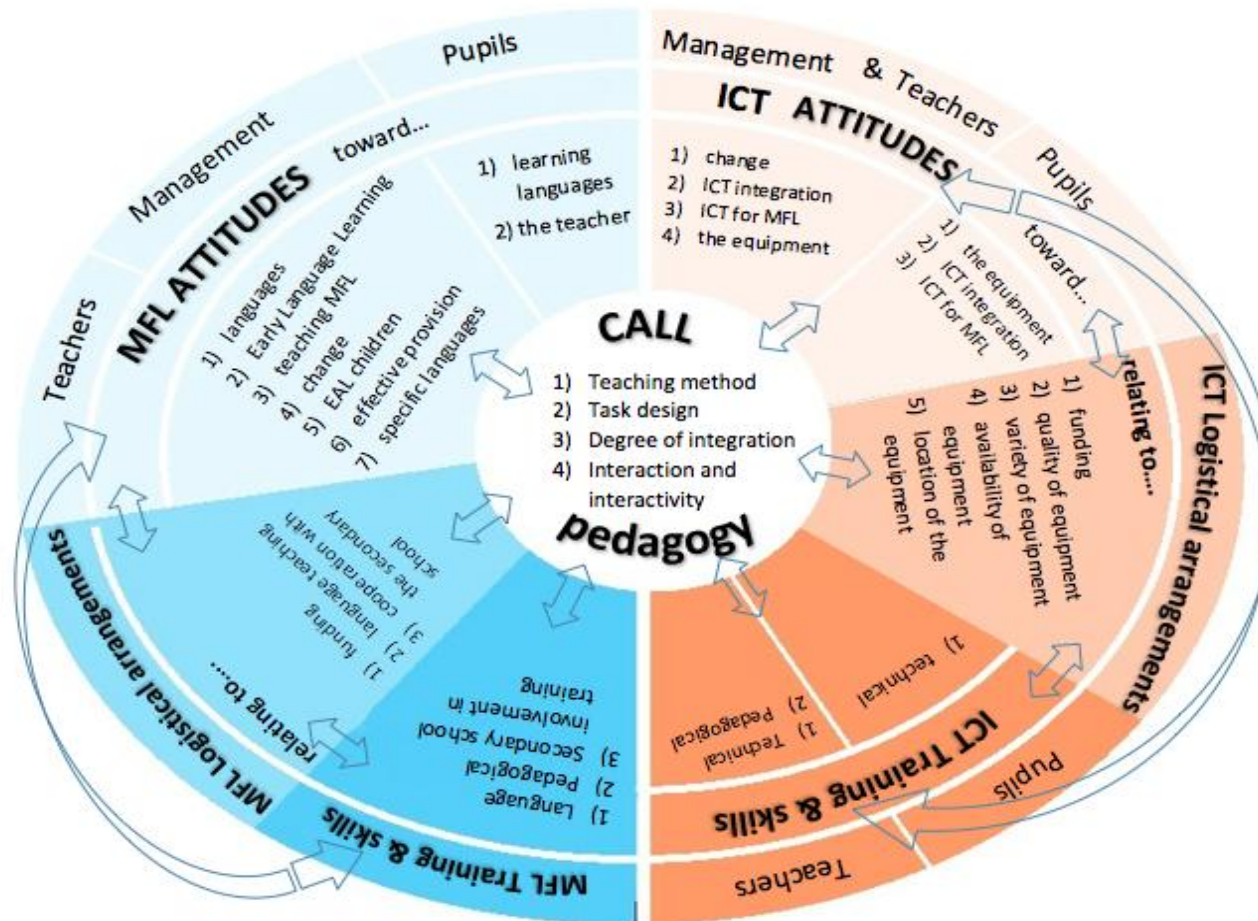


Figure 5.1 Model for assessing and supporting normalisation of CALL in the primary context in England.

The model attempts to capture the complex relationships of factors that influence CALL pedagogy, and therefore CALL normalisation. The main factors, as represented by the themes, refer to attitudes, logistics, training and support, and finally pedagogy, where MFL and ICT merge into CALL. Within those broader areas, more detailed issues can be identified. For the purpose of clarity, the discussion of the model is divided into two parts. It firstly focuses on the core issues, explaining the relevance of the more detailed factors (5.1), and then proceeds to explain the relationships between the main areas (5.2).

5.1 The descriptions of the core areas

The discussion in this section explains the core areas of the model relating to attitudes, logistical arrangements, training and skills, and CALL pedagogy. The relationships between the areas are explored separately in 5.2.

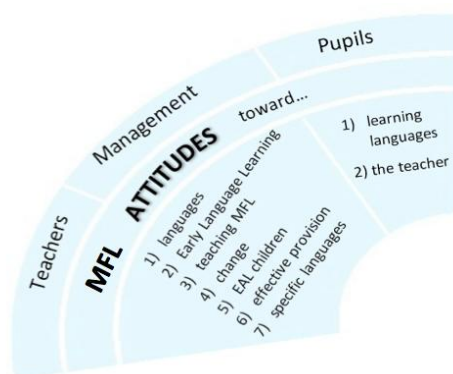


Figure 5.2 MFL attitudinal factors represented in the model.

5.1.1 Attitudes

Figure 5.2 is a snapshot of the model relating to the influence of attitudes to MFL on normalisation. The decision to commence with the discussion of attitudes is related to the evidence from the interview and observational data that especially stakeholders' attitudes seem to trigger the pragmatic

implementation of change (see 4.1.1). As Buckingham (2007) indicates, action is mandated from the top within the educational environment; hence the attitudes held by management in respect to each aspect serve as a stimulus for further action, and introduction of the 'subject.' This was also represented in the initial pyramid model (Figure 3.3, p.117) where stakeholders' attitudes served as the base.

The attitudes to MFL are considered from the point of view of teachers, stakeholders, and pupils, as attitudes of those three groups - independently and collectively - seem to influence classroom practice and normalisation. While the literature does report on the influence of societal attitudes on MFL delivery, it considers it in more general terms (see for example Saunders (1998), Sharpe (2001) and Watts (2003)). However, as the discussion of Theme 1 (4.1) indicated, the broad theme of 'attitudes' needs to be considered in relation to attitudes to different aspects of MFL. Those aspects, discussed throughout 4.1, are reflected in the model.

Pupils' attitudes are considered in general terms, *i.e.* their preference, or the lack thereof, for learning languages, as well as their preference for the teacher who delivers languages, as the interview and observational data suggest. The latter proved to be important, as discussed in 4.1.1.5, and echoes results from Driscoll's (1999) research, that compared specialist and non-specialist teachers. The attitudes of teachers and the management are more complex, however, as 5.2 shows and they refer to the same aspects. Those aspects include: 1) attitudes toward foreign languages in general, 2) attitudes to ELL, 3) attitudes to teaching MFL, 4) attitudes toward including EAL children in MFL, 5) willingness to accept and adapt to change, 6) effective provision, and 7) specific languages. The division between those attitudinal components was visible at the research school, where the clash between attitudes towards the overall value of knowing a foreign language, ELL, and early language teaching hindered continuation and progression, especially toward the end of the research. The attitudes toward the value of MFL for children with different language backgrounds is also an important factor, according to Driscoll *et al.* (2004) and Board and Tinley (2014), and is one that often discourages schools from MFL. Finally, the attitudes to successful provision are discussed in relation to aspects covered in 4.1.1.6, and refer to the participant's conviction of what works best. While the attitudinal aspects in relation to the teachers and the management are the same, the crucial difference is that while the headteacher's attitudes to each aspect seem to

determine the school's course of action, the teachers' attitudes seem to influence to what extent the 'rules' established by the headteacher are followed.

The aspect of attitudes is mirrored in the ICT part of the model, as presented in Figure 5.3. These attitudes are considered in relation to the same three participating groups. The attitudes of

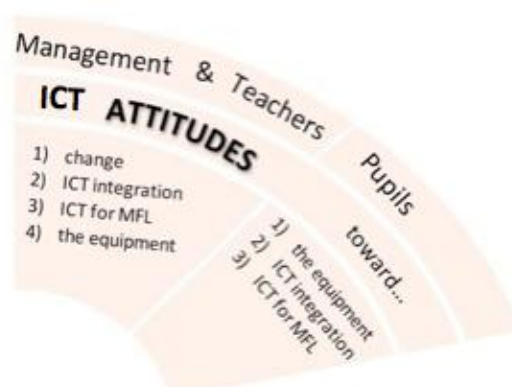
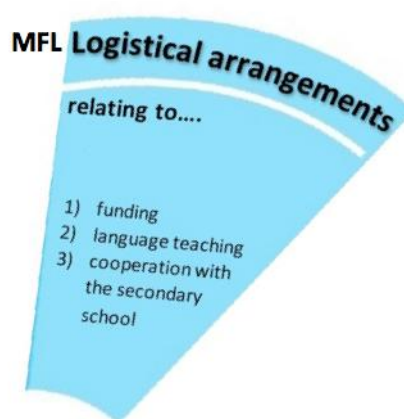


Figure 5.3 ICT attitudinal factors represented in the model

management and teachers, similarly to the MFL side of the model, are overlapping. Children's attitudes to technology use in the classroom are important for normalisation, as they contribute to engagement with, and smooth transitions between, ICT and non-ICT activities through the elimination of discipline issues. This is thought of in terms of technology use in general, but also attitudes toward specific types of equipment that reinforce different types of learning. Similarly to Hennessy *et al.* (2005), the discussion of the data in 4.1.2.2 suggests that the variety factor needs consideration, especially if the clash between pupils and the teachers occur, as was the case in the research school and the case of the ICT suite for languages. Both stakeholders' and staff attitudes are represented in terms of attitudes toward 1) the effects of technological change, 2) the value of pedagogical technology integration across the curriculum, 3) including MFL, and 4) the equipment. The ability to see perceived benefits of technology relates to the willingness to integrate it as reflected in TAM, a point identified over twenty years ago by Davis (1993), and is still an issue also in relation to normalisation, as reported by Maftoon and Shahini (2012). This is especially true of non-standard use of technology for more student-centred projects, and in the case of the research school, the use of the ICT suite for activities which allow individual children to work on machines. In relation to attitudes to change, the observational data, the literature (Zhidong, 2012; Bryant *et al.*, 2013a, b), and my professional

experience, suggest that general attitudes toward change are a good indicator of the likely speed of adoption and openness to innovation. This relates to technological and pedagogical innovation. Hence for normalisation to occur, there needs to be a certain degree of openness, if not enthusiasm, toward newness. This openness played an important role in the past during the initial introduction of new equipment, but will also be important in the future at the point of introduction of new technologies. A lack of openness can result in resistance to pedagogical change, for example resistance to accepting the new demands of the *National Curriculum* or innovative pedagogy (Zhidong, 2012; Bryant *et al.*, 2014a, b).



5.1.2 Logistical arrangements

The second area represents factors that pertain to an umbrella term of logistical solutions. From the point of view of languages, three aspects are covered: 1) funding, 2) language teaching arrangements, and 3) cooperation with the secondary school. The issue of funding is closely linked to the aspect of language teaching arrangements. As the data and the literature suggest, the presence of funding determines

Figure 5.4 MFL logistical factors represented in the model

the adopted model of delivery and its sustainability. Driscoll *et al.* (2004) and Cable *et al.* (2012) mention funding as the factor likely to increase the number of schools offering quality provision associated with the presence of a linguist. The factor of secondary school arrangements is an important one, and can potentially cause issues to progression. To ascertain long-term goals, primary teaching needs to be aligned with secondary provision. Evans and Fisher (2012), Richardson (2013), and Board and Tinsley (2015) suggest that current relationships between primary and secondary schools do not allow for progression and continuation of learning. Hence, the alignment of provision with the relevant secondary school needs to be given consideration when thinking of normalisation of MFL (see 4.2.4) and normalised CALL pedagogy.

From the technological point of view, logistical issues presented in Figure 5.5 refer to factors related to the equipment itself, and the organisation of work around it, that are again largely dependent on 1) funding. Funding here is central, as a lack of it impedes integration, due to an inability to replace faulty equipment, as Younie (2006) indicates, and the case of Year 1 teacher demonstrates (see 4.2.2.2). Funding refers directly to the issues of 2) quality, 3) variety, 4) availability, and 5) location of equipment. The aspect of

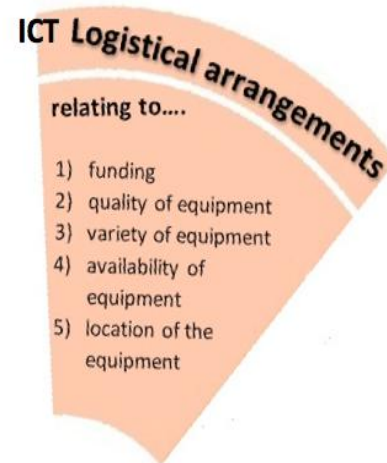


Figure 5.5 ICT logistical factors represented in the model.

location relates here to the opportunity to have technology integrated within the regular teaching space, as is the case with IWB. It is also linked, perhaps even more so, to the school's financial capability to offer mobile devices. The aspect of variety also proved to be important in fulfilling the children's need for independent, autonomous work realised through one-to-one interaction with and through technology.



Figure 5.6 MFL training factors represented in the model.

5.1.3 Training and skills

The factors that affect MFL in relation to training and skills are focused on three areas: 1) pedagogical elements, 2) linguistic training and skills, and 3) the involvement of secondary schools in training primary school teachers. The aspect of linguistic skills and pedagogical skills has been explained in 2.3.4, and refers to the ability to speak the language, and the ability to teach the language while acknowledging the needs of this particular age group. Sources such as Board and Tinsley (2015) report on the need to improve the former in relation to

primary teachers, who already have pedagogical skills. However, as O’Hara (2008), Wade *et al.* (2009) and Macrory *et al.* (2009) indicate, pedagogical training is needed for the teachers to successfully integrate the abundance of available resources. This was the case with the research school, where a lack of pedagogical MFL skills led to overreliance on ICT, thus replicating behaviouristic teaching, impeding normalisation. The aspect of secondary school involvement, or support in relation to training and development of PCK or TPACK (Koehler and Mishra, 2009), is also added to the model. What is meant here by ‘support,’ is acknowledging the most pressing issues amongst cluster schools, be they pedagogical, linguistic or both, and ensuring sufficient training is provided. Since this type of support does not depend on central monetary subsidy, it is more likely to happen. However, it relies on additional efforts, and the establishment of cooperation between cluster schools and the secondary school. Lack of support from secondary schools is not detrimental to normalisation, however, as Richardson (2012, 2013) and Evans and Fisher (2012) suggest, it may slow down progress. For this reason, cooperation and support from a secondary school is presented as a factor to consider when thinking about normalisation.

The need for training and what follows, the development of skills, is mirrored in the ICT section, however, also considered in relation to pupils. From the teacher point of view, effective integration is predicated on the presence of 1) technical training showing how to use a technology, and 2) pedagogical training showing how to integrate it for meaningful learning; hence, along with the MFL side, it must cover all of the components of TPACK (Koehler and Mishra,

2009). The need for ICT training was addressed through the New Opportunities Fund (NOF) (Younie, 2006). Morris (2012) implies that the government’s decision to exclude ICT skills tests for teachers, and a lack of references to ICT in



Figure 5.7 MFL training factors represented in the model

teaching standards (DfE, 2012), might indicate that technical training is considered to be unnecessary. However, with the introduction of new technologies specific for the educational environment (for example electronic tables), this technical training will still be needed, hence it is included in the model.

The discussion of technology in this thesis takes place within the realm of TEL, treating technology as a tool to support subject teaching. Hence in order to integrate technology for languages, and to promote socio-constructivist integration, children need to have sufficient basic skills to approach the task. Hence their status as digital natives (Prensky, 2001) needs to be questioned. This is due to the fact that the short duration of a language session will not allow for the acquisition of ICT skills, especially if delivered by a specialist who operates within a limited schedule. Hence in order to focus on language, consideration has to be given to what it is possible to achieve with technology in such a short timeframe, taking into account what the children are already capable of, especially if a variety of technologies that allow independent work are introduced.



Figure 5.8 Pedagogical aspects included in the model.

5.1.4 Pedagogy

CALL pedagogy (Figure 5.6) lies at the heart of the model as it is linked to the achievement of normalised CALL, realised through pedagogical practice. As is represented in the model, all of those previously discussed areas have a reciprocal relationship with pedagogy. Before these

relationships are discussed, it is important to look at the specific pedagogical elements that are discussed in relation to normalisation. These need consideration

when planning, and are largely dependent on 1) the teaching method applied, and 2) design of the task(s) embedded within that method. Both, the method and the task design might determine 3) the degree of tool and resource integration, and how the tool is utilised to allow 4) interaction and interactivity. ‘Degree of integration’ is understood here in terms of integration of the tool within the task, and whether it is encouraged only at the whole class level, as pair/ group work, or with opportunities for individual use. The area of interaction and interactivity was referred to in 2.2.4.1 and 2.4.3.2, hence it is aligned with Beuachamp and Kennewell (2010) and Whyte’s *et al.* (2014) understanding.

5.2 The relationships between the core areas

All of the aforementioned core factors are interrelated and influence each other, as indicated by the arrows in the model (Figure 5.1). Hence, as Bax (2003a) - following the sociocultural perspective - advises, they should not be considered as determining normalisation in isolation, but looked at as a whole. The remaining part of this section deals with explaining the relationships between the areas. For the clarity of the discussion, Figure 5.9 below serves as a simplified representation of the factors and their relationships that were presented in detail in the model.

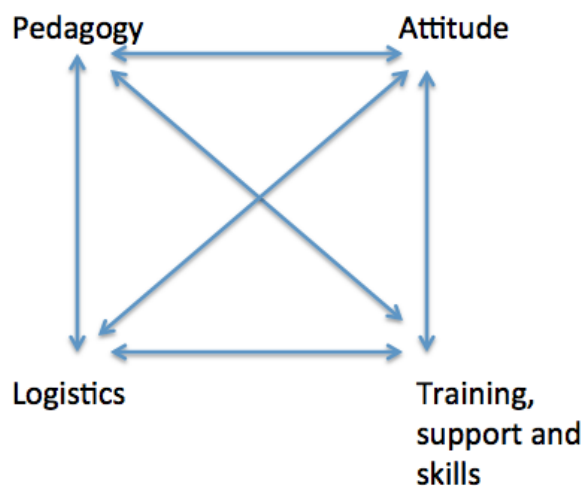


Figure 5.9 Basic representation of the relationships between the main factors

5.2.1 The relationship between attitudes and the remaining factors

Commencing again with attitudes, a mutual relationship can be noticed between attitudes and pedagogy, with one affecting the other reciprocally. Prior to the curricular changes of 2014, management attitudes determined whether any provision was in place. This affected teaching in the sense that it determined whether any lessons were timetabled. At the stage of mandatory MFL, this influence still prevails, though less so in terms of the lack of teaching (Board and Tinsley, 2015), but more so in relation to the model of provision, which influences classroom practice. Teachers' lack of positive attitudes affects how often languages are taught, and to some extent how well they are delivered since, as Bate (2010) explains, the quality or extensiveness of the preparation that teachers (especially non-specialists) undertake beforehand, is largely contingent on their attitudes. Similarly, in relation to technology, teachers who have positive attitudes toward ICT are more likely to use it, and what is more important, experiment with it, which as Lewin *et al.* (2008) indicate, results in a move away from didactic teaching toward a change in pedagogical practice.

Similar relationships are noticed between attitudes and the remaining factors, *i.e.* logistics and training and support. The data suggest that stakeholders' attitudes toward technology and languages serve as a trigger for logistical solutions and affect investment in, and the perceived need for, training and support. If stakeholders, as decision-makers, see the value in language education, or feel strongly about how that education should be delivered, they are more likely to put the necessary logistical solutions in place by allocating funding to ensure that staff are appropriately skilled.

5.2.2 The relationship between logistical arrangements and other factors

Logistical issues influence pedagogy as a lack of equipment, or difficulties with accessibility and availability, result in restricted, sporadic or in general impeded integration and pedagogical practice, as the literature indicates (Becta, 2005; Younie, 2006). Similarly, as Richardson (2012, 2013), and Evans and Fisher

(2012) indicate, the type of language provision and the links with secondary school arrangements should influence, what is happening in the classroom, as the example of the research school indicates.

Logistical solutions may have negative or positive effect on attitudes. From the language point of view, attitudes can be affected depending on the logistical decisions around the 'division of labour' within the activity system. This was reflected in the research school by children's dissatisfaction with the specialist's teaching, and confirmed in the literature (Driscoll, 1999). Additionally, issues with the reliability and variety of equipment can cause frustration to both staff and pupils, and discourage them from pedagogical integration. Logistical solutions also seem to affect training and support, since the type of provision, as well as the introduction of new technologies, determines the direction of the requirements for teacher's professional development.

5.2.3 The relationship between training and skills and other factors

The availability and/or effectiveness of training and support, used to develop necessary skills, heavily impacts on pedagogy, as a lack of either component of TPACK seems to negatively impact on teaching. The types of skills that primary CALL practitioner should possess are reflected in TPACK (Koehler and Mishra, 2009), and were discussed in 2.3.4. Without a shift in thinking about technology and pedagogy, and knowledge of how to apply these elements to primary MFL, CALL pedagogy will remain within the constraints of dependence on the software (as in the case of the research school) with no pedagogical change present, as observed across the educational sector (Thornbury, 2011; Laurillard, 2008; O'Hara, 2008; Macrory *et al.*, 2012). Training therefore is the issue that most visibly affects classroom pedagogy, but is also one that can be directly eliminated through appropriate, continual professional development opportunities.

There also seems to be a relationship between training and attitudes, as well as training and logistics. If sufficient guidance is provided, as confidence levels rise, attitudes change to support the innovation. This is exemplified in the literature in

relation to MFL (Cable *et al.*, 2012; Board and Tinsley, 2015) and ICT (Younie, 2006). Similarly, if skills are developed, logistical arrangements might be affected. This is especially true of languages, where the aim is to move toward CLIL, which requires confident, knowledgeable generalist teachers.

5.3.3 The relationship between pedagogy and the remaining factors

Finally, the data suggest a reciprocal relationship between pedagogy and the remaining factors. The discussion above focused more on how attitudes, logistics, and training and support influence pedagogical practice and achievement of normalised CALL pedagogy. It is important to recognise that pedagogy can also affect the remaining factors. Pupils' attitudes are especially susceptible to being influenced by their pedagogical experience. As illustrated in 4.1.1.5, a negative attitude toward a style of teaching contributes to negative attitudes toward the person delivering it, the subject, and the overall experience of MFL and CALL, as reported by Driscoll (1999). The influence of pedagogy on logistics is related to the aspect of responsibility for provision and the quality of teaching. If the stakeholders decide that the teaching is inadequate, it will have an impact on the arrangements grouped in the model under the broader area of logistics. Similarly if good teaching requires new or greater variety or availability of equipment, logistical solutions, *i.e.* funding, sharing and rethinking of physical space, will have to be put in place to cater to that need. Finally inadequate pedagogical practice, or any changes in pedagogical thinking that will need implementation on a larger scale, will determine the direction of training and support.

SUMMARY

The model provides a visual representation of the issues that affect normalisation of CALL. Following the sociocultural perspective adopted in this thesis (2.1.6), it allows assessment of the success of current provision through taking a broader look at social, cultural or political aspects that might impact upon it. Hence, as is recommended in the literature (Bijker, 1997; Tudor, 2003; Bax, 2003; Chambers

and Bax, 2006) it avoids the view that one factor, be it technology or the teacher, determines the success or failure of CALL.

I consider the model to be the most significant contribution to knowledge of this thesis. Since normalisation is a relatively new concept, the model contributes to the development of the theory of normalisation. As mentioned before, past research and past thinking about the theory of normalisation focused primarily on technological pedagogical aspects. Hence the majority of ICT aspects presented in the model appeared in sources in one form or another. A suggestion to consider the MFL (language) part independently first, and treat it as a component of CALL that can also affect pedagogical practice with technology, is an addition to the current body of research and the theory of normalisation. Hence, this research, and the model, extends the current understanding of normalisation to the contexts where the language skills of teachers should not be taken for granted. On a more practical level, the model is intended to serve as a point of reference to assess issues on the route to normalisation, to help in supporting understanding of how relationships between these aspects in the model affect what is happening in the classroom, and to facilitate discussion about putting procedures in place to overcome the pressing issues. It therefore, to some extent, supports the need for an audit identified by Bax (2011) as a practical step toward achieving normalisation.

Creating a model implies a degree of generalisability that was referred to in detail in 3.8. I have confidence in the generalisability of the core areas, *i.e.* attitudes, logistics, training and support, and pedagogy, and the relationships between them, as similar themes emerged from (quantitative) research conducted across various contexts (primary, secondary, HE) in relation to MFL (Driscoll *et al.*, 2004; Hunt *et al.*, 2005; Cable *et al.*, 2012; Board and Tinsley, 2014, 2015), TEL (Fehti, Inan and Lowther, 2009; Buabeng-Andoh, 2012; Badia *et al.*, 2014) and normalisation (Chambers and Bax, 2006; Ward, 2007; Maftoon and Shahini, 2012; Mahdi, 2013). There have not been studies into these factors specifically in relation to primary CALL; however, there is a degree of overlap between the present

research, which investigates this new territory, and those more general accounts. As Pring (2005) points out, the model in its full version can be generalised to contexts that are similar to the research context, the achievement of which is allowed by a detailed description presented in 3.5.1. This was also argued by Chambers and Bax (2003a) in relation to the value of their research for the wider context.

As mentioned earlier in this section, this work extends current understanding of normalisation to contexts where the language aspect of CALL might be an issue. Hence outside of the relevance to immediate contexts (similar ELL settings), an important area where the findings might also apply, and the model can serve as a useful contribution to knowledge, is the EMI context. When reporting on possible issues with EMI, sources such as Klassen and de Graaf (2001), Smith (2004), Coleman (2006) and recently Dearden (2015), mention lack of qualified teaching staff, and reluctance of non-native speakers to deliver session in English as a problem that institutions are facing. Hence the language aspect is also important here as, similarly to the research context, there is a danger of teachers' reverting to technology to compensate for the linguistic shortcomings and lack of confidence. This, as the current research and the model illustrate, creates obstacles to normalisation.

Chapter 6

Conclusions and recommendations

INTRODUCTION

The final chapter concludes the discussion in this thesis. It commences with an outline of my journey as a researcher, summarises the research findings in relation to the three research questions as outlined in 1.3 (p.9), discusses limitations and implications for practice and highlights the main contribution to the body of knowledge.

6.1 Researcher's journey

I feel that the most appropriate adjective to describe my relationship with my PhD, and the process of transformation from a student to an emerging researcher, is 'tumultuous.' As I approach this section, having almost finished writing up the thesis, I feel that I gained greater knowledge and confidence. When I refer to knowledge, I mean: gaining a better understanding of the subject matter and understanding the complex relationships within the area of primary CALL; and knowledge in relation to understanding principles of research. The aspect of confidence is the thing I value the most. What I mean when I refer to confidence, is the ability to critically analyse past literature, as well as evidence coming from the sources I considered expert and valued greatly in my professional and academic career. While this is a skill that the UK HE system of education develops as early as the undergraduate degree stage, critical analysis is actively discouraged in the educational background I was familiar with.

Methodologically, I moved away from the positivistic research, or even mixed methods, I tended to lean toward as the preferred research design of those supervising my past work, and looked into the philosophical underpinnings of each tradition. This ability to go back to the roots of the tradition made me appreciate purely qualitative methods as those aligned more with how I perceived the world around me. I learned to appreciate qualitative research for what it is, and what data and insight it provides, without feeling the need to justify that choice to positivists and compensate for the perceived shortcomings of qualitative research, feelings I often held in the past.

The development of the model for normalised CALL has been a very rewarding experience for me, and a tangible outcome for my work. The model has evolved along with the reading and the formation of my philosophical position, as well as an on-going analysis of the collected data, which serves as a good illustration of how my thinking has evolved.

Rewarding as the experience was, I also faced challenges. Those concerned planning a robust design and analysis, negotiating access to the research site, manoeuvring my professional life and the data collection, and writing the thesis on the areas which had undergone changes as the work progressed, and attempting to capture those changes whilst also reflecting the field as it stands now. These difficulties helped me reconsider my choices, or look for stronger evidence to justify my decisions. Hence those challenges also contributed to my development as an emerging researcher, and helped me truly appreciate the complexities of the normalisation of CALL.

6.2 Summary of main findings of the study related to research questions

Research Question 1: What is the definition of normalisation of CALL in the context of primary schools in England offering primarily specialist provision with some input from non-specialists?

The discussion throughout Chapter 2 (2.2.4, 2.3.5, 2.3.6 and 2.4.1) attempted to define, looking at the evidence from the literature, what effective primary MFL teaching with technology entails. This was aligned with Bax's (2003a, 2011)

understanding of normalisation as effective teaching. Taking into account the complexities of the context, I explored the concept of effective teaching in relation to TEL and ELL, and combined it into primary CALL in 2.4.1. While in the EFL context the problems with CALL are considered only in terms of technological issues, the primary context poses additional problems related to language provision. What is meant by technological issues, are factors which relate to the sociocultural aspects of technology integration (attitudinal or pedagogical), excluding any subject-specific problems. Those factors were reported in such sources as Chambers and Bax (2006), Ward (2007), Maftoon and Shahini (2012) and Mahdi (2013) and summarised in Table 2.3 (p.28). This omission of content knowledge is linked to the status of EFL as an established subject. Hence its value is not questioned and issues with provision, especially in the HE/FE and adult education contexts that earlier normalisation research addresses, are not prevalent. This is contrary to the primary MFL where the lack of subject knowledge or preparation on how to approach foreign language teaching is an additional issue, and an important one affecting the successful implementation of CALL. Hence to reiterate, normalisation of primary CALL in England is defined as: such technology integration into regular language teaching - delivered by capable, language proficient teachers - that supports the teachers in the implementation of a student-centred, socio-constructivist view of learning which enables children to interact with and through technology, to produce and to communicate. This is dependent on the existence of normalised ICT and normalised MFL, as illustrated by Figure 4.6 (p.247). Normalised ICT is understood in terms of: availability of equipment, which results in regular integration that enriches the learning experience; and as a level of integration of the tool such that it redefines the task at hand as *per* SAMR (Puentedura, 2014). This is the teaching that the pupils experienced in the research school outside of MFL, as discussed in 4.4.3. The ability to translate this practice to MFL (and CALL) is predicated on normalisation of MFL. Hence normalised MFL is understood in terms of regular provision (either delivered independently or in the form of CLIL), delivered by confident and competent teachers, which is aligned

with the goals of the National Curriculum (DfE, 2013a) and contributes to the development of students' language skills.

Research Question 2: What factors impede normalisation of CALL in the research school and schools offering similar provision type in England?

The identification of factors which impede normalisation in the primary context has been central to the present work. The discussion and the analysis of the tensions between and within the activity systems of MFL and ICT (Chapter 4), as well as the development of the model for normalised CALL (Chapter 5), outlined those areas in greater detail. Following the discussion of the definition of normalisation, and treating normalisation of primary CALL as a merger of two activity systems (MFL and ICT), the discussed factors relate to the technological and subject specific aspects. The factors creating possible obstacles to normalisation revolved around the following areas: 1) attitudes, 2) logistical arrangements, 3) training, support and skills, and 4) pedagogy. Within each broader area, specific factors were identified. Those are reflected in the model (Figure 5.1, p.254) and summarised in Table 6.1 below.

Factor	MFL aspect	ICT aspect
Attitudes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • children’s attitudes toward learning languages and the teacher delivering MFL • staff and management attitudes toward the general value of languages, early language learning, teaching MFL, teaching MFL to EAL children, effective provision, general openness to change 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • children’s attitudes to the use of ICT for learning, specific equipment (and use of) for MFL • staff and management attitudes to change, general value of technology for learning, value of specific equipment and value of ICT for MFL
Logistical arrangements	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • funding • (lack of) cooperation with the secondary school in terms of progression and provision • language teaching arrangements 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • funding • quality of equipment • availability of equipment • variety of equipment • location of the equipment
Training and skills	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • (lack of) linguistic training and skills • (lack of) pedagogical training and skills • (lack of) secondary school involvement into training 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • (lack of) pupils’ technical skills • (lack of) staff technical training and skills • (lack of) staff pedagogical training and skills
Pedagogy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • teaching method • task design • degree of integration • interaction and interactivity 	

Table 6.1 Summary of factors impeding normalisation of primary CALL

Research Question 3: To what extent has normalisation of primary CALL been achieved in the research school and schools offering similar provision type in England?

The discussion in 2.2.1, and Bax’s (2003a) adjustment to Rogers’ (2003) diffusion of innovations theory to reflect the complexities of teaching innovations, serves as a point of reference to answer this question. Bax (*ibid*) referred to seven stages on route to normalisation, *i.e.* ‘early adopters’, ‘ignorance/ scepticism’, ‘try once’, ‘try again’, ‘fear/awe’, ‘normalising’ and ‘normalisation’. His discussion focused purely on technological aspects, as subject-related issues were absent from the adult EFL context. Since in the primary context normalisation is considered as a merger of two activity systems, the issues with MFL in primary CALL also need

to be considered. Hence Bax's (*ibid.*) stages are treated here as referring to general innovation, as opposed to technological innovation, as intended by him. This is done in order for MFL issues and stages of integration to be reflected in Bax's (*ibid.*) description. Those are considered in terms of curricular innovation.

The answer to this question is provided for the particular school participating in the study in the first instance, taking into account the tensions identified within the activity systems (see Figure 4.4, p.237). The generalisations to the wider population are based on more quantitative results coming from other sources (Cox *et al.*, 2000; Fethi, Inan and Lowther, 2009; Buabeng-Andoh, 2012; Badia *et al.*, 2014; Tinsley and Board, 2014, 2015), and my experience and immersion in the field. This follows generalisations made by Bax (2003a), who also used the lens of his experience to interpret the 'state of the art' of normalisation. Additionally, positioning the findings from the research school in 3rd generation AT allows me to place the research from one school within broader social context. As it was emphasised in 3.8, the strength of those generalisations is limited.

In relation to the research school, the discussion in the summary of Chapter 4 illustrated the tensions within both activity systems that create the obstacles to normalised CALL. Hence in the present school, normalisation has not yet been achieved. As the discussion of pedagogical practice indicates (see 4.4), while technology use outside of CALL seems to be more aligned with what was defined as effective practice in 2.4.1, CALL applications are restricted, and resemble the characteristics of behaviouristic drilling. The underlying reason for this is a lack of linguistics skills restricting teachers' ability to integrate technology as a tool to support learning, rather than a tool replacing the teacher. Hence the data suggest that, especially in relation to non-specialists, 'fear' toward language skills reinforces the 'awe' toward technology. The 'fear' stage also applied to the specialist who had the linguistic capacity to encourage more creative projects, but whose lack of confidence with technology restricted her technology use. The references to the literature in relation to issues with MFL (Driscoll *et al.*, 2004; Hunt *et al.*, 2005; Cable *et al.*, 2012; Board and Tinsley, 2014, 2015) and ICT

(Aubrey and Dahl, 2008; Inan and Lowther, 2009; Buabeng-Andoh, 2012; Badia *et al.*, 2014), suggest that this might be the case nationally. While there is more and more good practice and innovation with technology in MFL observed in the sector, such as the use of Aurasma and apps (Pazio, 2014), of podcasting (Pim, 2013), and of online collaboration (Macrory *et al.*, 2012; Terrell, 2011), this is not the standard for the majority of schools. The conclusion to be drawn from the evidence coming from the data and the literature, is that while the TEL field in the primary context is seated within the stage of normalising, CALL, as in Bax's (2003a) findings, is moving from the 'fear/awe' stage toward 'normalising'.

As discussed in 2.1.3, in Bax's (2003) terms, normalisation will have been achieved when CALL is integrated into daily practice and technology will cease to be perceived as technology. He would go as far as to claim that the mere existence of the term CALL as a separate field of discussion suggests that normalisation has not yet been achieved (Bax, 2003). My observations point toward a move away from the term CALL in the primary MFL context, as indicated in 2.4.3. While there is understanding that MFL also refers to CALL (Macaro *et al.*, 2012), there is a tendency to avoid the term CALL. Such researchers as Cameron (2001), Sharpe (1999, 2001), Driscoll *et al.* (2004), Hood and Tobutt (2007), Davies (2008), Macrory *et al.* (2012), as well as primary practitioners, would use the term ICT for MFL, rather than CALL. Also, the discussion of CALL pedagogy in the present work is deeply rooted in overall foreign language pedagogy, indicating that technology is in fact integral to teaching practice. However, as indicated above, primary CALL is still within the 'fear/awe' stage. Hence this contradicts Bax's (2003a) argument that the disappearance of the term should serve as an indication that, in the mainstream context, normalisation has been achieved, as technology integration is not recognised as an independent field. While the acronym is not recognised, technology integration is still ineffective. This is why in the present research the importance of effective integration, linked to socio-constructivist learning theory, has been emphasised throughout.

6.3 Limitations and further work

Methodological bias and how the research attempted to diminish its effect have been addressed in 3.10. Similarly, the issues in relation to generalisability, as well as the grounds on which those are made, have been discussed in 3.8. Those, however, in this thesis are not considered to be limitations of the research, but inherent characteristics of the interpretive paradigm and ethnographic approach.

There were, however, limitations that resulted from the choice of the sample, and organisational difficulties that faced the research school, therefore affecting the course of the study. While the need to focus more on the generalists has been identified, the main research sample relied heavily on specialist provision. There were instances of non-specialist teaching, however, they were peripheral to the main delivery. During the process of negotiation of the date for non-specialist observations, there was a sense of doing the specialist a favour by teaching MFL; hence those attitudes could have affected the results of the study in relation to pedagogical practice with MFL. Additionally, the presence of the specialist provided solid support to the generalists in the form of advice, the structure of the sessions, and resources. Although there was freedom of choice, as visible in the sessions conducted by Year 6 teacher, that choice of topic, resource, and approach, was driven by the specialists' preferences, which were projected onto the non-specialists.

The limitations of the study discussed above serve as a base for further research. Since the non-specialists are the biggest group responsible for provision, more insight into their application of CALL is necessary and valuable. Hence further work needs to focus on examining those contexts that do not have specialist support available, and look into the CALL choices that are being made there.

6.4 Implications for practice

The research, and the model in 5.1 (p.246), gives insight into the sociocultural factors that affect CALL use in primary schools, and indicates the relationships between them. Elimination of the majority of the factors directly and indirectly affecting pedagogy is linked to appropriate training, support, and what follows - the development of skills. Looking at the analysis and the discussion of findings, both specialist and non-specialist teachers struggle with CALL delivery. The reasons for struggle are of a different nature. For specialists, to a large extent, the problems are related to the fear of delivery of projects whose success might rely on technology. This apprehension is related to a lack of pedagogical knowledge and technological confidence to implement creative activities with or outside of the IWB. In addition to that, in many cases there is a lack of knowledge of the general primary curriculum (and in some cases a lack of age-specific methods, and insufficient immersion in the context to get to know the needs of individual children) which, as the data in Chapter 4 suggest, impacts heavily on children's attitudes and their pace and success in learning. On the other hand, for the non-specialists, the major obstacle for effective MFL delivery is a lack of knowledge of the language, and language teaching pedagogy, which results in overreliance on digital resources that do not encourage collaboration, creation and greater engagement with the language and the technology. This appears to be the major obstacle preventing the teachers from translating good practice from the subjects in which they are confident onto the field of MFL. This, in both cases, results in pedagogical limitations, as children's opportunities for creativity, interaction and communication, and through that development of language skills, are restricted, and priority given to behaviouristic drilling.

Bax's (2011) references to the neo-Vygotskian principles as outlined in 2.1.6 emphasise the importance of the role of an expert in achieving normalisation. The government training that was provided to the teachers mirrored the expert-novice relationship, prioritising the possession of linguistic skills as a quality of the more knowledgeable trainer. The presence of linguistic skills as a characteristic of the expert was also visible in the distinction between specialists and non-specialists

provided by Sharpe (1999) and the government's preferences for the language teachers. Looking at the distribution of skills between the two teacher types in the research school, and the need to develop a full set in each of them, that power of the 'expert' seems to be distributed. Hence in fact both types of teachers can be treated as experts: the specialists having the linguistic and pedagogical MFL expertise; the non-specialists having the knowledge of the primary curriculum, greater flexibility with a variety of technologies, and task design around them. Hence, what may follow from the present research in a pragmatic sense is an online space for practical knowledge exchange between specialists and non-specialists, where everyone is treated as an expert. This can be done in a form of a MOOC, which monopolises on the expertise of both types of teachers, leading to skills building, improvement of confidence and competence in relation to primary CALL delivery, and as a result normalisation.

6.5 Main contribution to knowledge

Since the discussion of primary CALL took place within the realms of three disciplines – CALL, MFL and TEL - the discussion of contribution is aligned with those areas.

In relation to the overarching field of CALL, the main contribution to knowledge focuses around two aspects: the context and the concept. The focus on primary CALL, as peripheral to main CALL activity when contrasted with the abundance of EFL evidence, addresses the request from the community (Egbert, 2005; Huh and Hun, 2005; Timucxin, 2006) for more studies that examine other contexts, and provide data to allow for the identification of contextual differences. Hence conducting the research within the area of primary MFL in England adds to the body of knowledge for two reasons; it examines the context of ELL, as the area growing in importance (Motteram, 2013), and the context of primary languages in the UK, as an area often omitted from mainstream CALL research but in need of attention due to curricular changes of 2014 (DfE, 2013a). The findings are also useful for the mainstream primary EFL CALL community. The survey carried out

by Tinsley and Comfort (2012) and the report by Enever (2009) present the European landscape of languages, which mirrors similar problems to those found in England, related to a lack of skilled teachers. Hence the aspects that highlight the issues with CALL pedagogy and the ‘division of labour’ category of the activity system, can offer some insight that can also be relevant in the mainstream primary EFL context.

Researching normalisation as a relatively new concept in CALL literature, emerging from the EFL community, adds to the body of research in the area. The application of the concept to the new context forced a redefinition of the term to include contextual differences and account for problems encountered with the content knowledge. This is omitted in the EFL sector (Bax, 2003; Chambers and Bax, 2006; Maftoon and Shahini, 2012; Field, 2012; Mahdi, 2013). The identification of factors that create obstacles to primary CALL aligns the present work with the mainstream normalisation research, however also provides insight into issues encountered in primary MFL that incorporate provision, extending therefore the current understanding of the concept.

Identification of factors which impede normalisation, and the creation of the model (Figure 5.1, p.254), is valuable to all three fields, especially for the MFL field. The discussion of normalisation (and normalised CALL associated in the present work with effective pedagogy) adds to the body of knowledge around effective ELL teaching, how technology can support it, and what needs to be overcome to achieve this goal. Such insight is needed in this new era for languages, and as Board and Tinsley (2015) imply, research that would help enhance teaching and learning or identify routes to that enhancement is needed. Situating effective CALL pedagogy within socio-constructivist thinking adds to the understanding of good practice with technology in ELL, which seems to prioritise resources over pedagogy. Finally, the model of the route toward normalisation is of use to primary schools that wish to improve or rethink their technology integration into MFL, and serves as an audit tool, situating the ‘object’

within the totality of other sociocultural factors affecting its achievement that need to be considered when moving toward effective integration.

Researching the concept of normalisation aligns the present study with broader debates about technological adoption and change, and contributes to the field of TEL. The comparison between specialist and non-specialist teachers' application of technology - and the conclusions drawn - are revealing, and expose how a lack of content knowledge influences CALL pedagogy, leading to overreliance on resources. The need to move away from use of the software, toward better task design that utilises a variety of technology and promotes interaction and communication (rather than allows the technology to take over), also extends outside of CALL. This adds to the body of research around teachers' skills and TPACK, and also general TEL debates about pedagogical practice with technology.

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Appendix A: Interview questions

Headteacher

Tell me about the experience of using technology for languages at your schools.
What technological equipment do you have available for teachers?
What was the idea behind the investment?
What equipment would you like to have in your school?
How do you get the funding?
How is technology utilised by the teachers?
What is the teachers' competence with ICT like?
What problems do teachers face with ICT?
What kind of ICT training for teachers do you offer?
Why did you decide to introduce languages from reception?
What do you think about the statutory nature of languages in the new curriculum?
What is the teachers' experience with MFL?
What problems does the school encounter with MFL provision?
How does learning another language influence their English?
How can ICT aid language learning?
How do the children react to ICT and MFL?
What issues do you experience when using technology for languages?

Teachers (non-specialist and specialist)

Tell me about your experience of using technology for languages.
Describe your experience with MFL teaching?
Describe your competence with ICT?
What are your views on using ICT?
What are your views on using ICT for teaching languages?
What is the place of technology in your teaching?
What are the main problems that you encounter when using ICT with different age groups?
How do you introduce the elements of interaction?
What is students' competence with ICT like?
How do they react to languages?
What do you think about the curricular changes introduced by the government?
What problems do you experience when using ICT for languages?

Children

What do you like best at school?
What languages do you know?
Do you like learning foreign languages? Why?
What can you say in a foreign language?
What do you like best about the lessons?
What is technology? Give me an example
Do you like working with computers/ IWB? Why?

Appendix B: Examples of diary abstracts documenting informal interviews

As I was explaining the research we had an informal chat about technology and languages in general. I thanked her many many times for responding as it was difficult to find a school because A. not many do languages and B. they aren't interested. She was really surprised about the A point and gave me some names of schools that I should contact. She was surprised languages are not mandatory, she thought they became mandatory as planned so I explained what happened and that they will be mandatory in 2014 according to the new consultation. We talked a little about the importance of MFL - I asked how the children reacted to it and she said they were very positive. Gillian also said that they have a lot of EAL children, about 48% of pupils are EAL pupils. Naturally I asked how they are coping due to the fact that some schools use it as a case against languages - how can they be doing MFL I they don't know English. Gillian said she thought it was absolutely ridiculous and they do not believe that.

Friday 1st March 2013

I actually asked her again about what she said last time - if she thought that non specialist teachers could teach easily. She said that it was possible with early start and she would recommend it to anybody and everybody. I asked her if they would have confidence and she said that well it's not something that is completely new to them coz everybody did French and that it's very easy (everybody did it that was her reply to me saying that for example I wouldn't feel comfortable teaching Chinese not knowing the language).

We talked about not following up what she does and she said it was because the teacher was not there so they don't know what's going on, the TA is there but you know....a lot of it is attitude and she doesn't want add even more work to what they have at the moment as they are barely coping with the workload.

Tuesday 25th April

When we were done we had a short discussion I was thinking on my feet and I really needed a lesson from her. I asked her when she was planning on teaching MFL and she said bluntly - probably won't now, that's the first thing that gets skipped. She then rolled her eyes at me and asked ok what is it that you need. And I said I just want to see her lessons, she went to take her calendar and found a date. She put in her calendar - A little bit of French for Monika. I told her I felt bad and she was like good you should feel bad you are making me do this. All of course very playfully done. So that's when I'm going to see her next.

Appendix C: Interview transcripts and initial analysis

Pupils' interview

R: why do you like Spanish?

Ch1: you get to learn new words and if you go to other countries you can talk Spanish, it's useful.

R: mhm, very good, anybody else, why do you like learning Spanish?

Ch2: Our teacher makes it really fun, so we learn it but we learn it in a fun way. [recording unclear]

R: so all the people who said you don't like learning Spanish - why?

Ch4: Coz I think it's a bit hard coz sometimes it could get, like sometimes it gets really confusing with words you don't know it gets really confusing

ch5: sometimes I get confused as well

R: ok anybody else gets confused by Spanish? What can you say in Spanish then?

Ch speak altogether: Hola, buenos dias, me llamo como estas

T: Shhhhh

R: Shhh year 3

ch: year 4!!!!

R: year 4

T: shhh

R: table at the back what do you remember from Spanish? What can you tell me in Spanish

Ch: colours

R: Ok this table, what can you tell me in Spanish

Ch1: uno dos tres quatro cinco seis

R: wonderful! Can you speak any other foreign languages apart from Spanish?

Ch 12: bonjour, bonjour

R: what language is that?

Ch 12: Korean [children laugh]

R: Ok, what language can you speak?

Ch 25: Russian

R: what can you say in Russian?

ch 25: priviet

ch26: I can speak a bit German

R: Ok, what can you say in German?

ch26: wie geht's and I don't wanna say the other one

ch: [chit chat] I can speak Korean

R: Korean? What can you say?

Ch 16: gangnam style

R: gangnam style is not korean

Ch 16 + some other: it is!

R: is the word "style" Korean?

Ch: ermmm yeahssss [they laugh]

R: Ok and you

ch27: Russian and Armenian [a lot of chit chat about languages they can speak]

R: Ok shhhhh. Shhhhhh [still a lot of chit chat]

T: year 4

R: Ok at school, in any lesson, do you like working with the IWB?

ch: [mixed responses of yes and no]

R: no, why not? [chit chat] **it's what?**

Ch: it's always like that, we can't see anything

R: Ok, you can't see

Ch x: some whiteboards don't even work

ch y: coz it's so bright it really hurts your eyes

Ch z: the projector doesn't work very well

value of learning

pupils' attitude to MFL

→ authenticity

pedagogy

attitudes to teacher (MFL)

pupils' attitude to MFL

MFL as hard & confusing

MFL

ch's skills, parental influence? influence from the outside

attitudes to IWB

brightness

quality of equipment

location

resolution

Headteacher's interview

R: Right, so what technological equipment do you have available for teachers?

H: We have digital cameras, we've just invested in an expensive new school camera that people can use, it takes good quality pictures, we have an ICT suite which is about probably about, probably about 4 or 5 years old now with 18 computers some of which is going to be updated, we also have additional computers in the classroom, the teachers all got a laptop, and we'll be replacing some of these as well. We have interactive whiteboards in the classrooms, there's also an IWB in ICT suite. In the sanctuary which is a learning place we have an IWB as well and there's a lot of additional work, support groups also gifted and talented groups. So we have that as well. And...

looks like quality funding

looks like variety of equipment

R: no laptops?

H: yeas, teachers have all got laptops, there's additional laptops in foundation stage as well which we got a few years ago. Most of teachers have memory sticks, they might use those as well, we have visualisers in the classrooms, so they are very useful for children to share each other's work they have done, and that's probably all I can think of for now[laugh]

looks like variety of equipment

R: What are the timetabling arrangements for ICT use?

H: Ok, for the ICT suite all classes have access to that, the teachers will sort that out amongst themselves, so that everyone has got a slot and then there's also some additional time that people might book in but they arrange that weekly amongst themselves.

looks like timetabling arrangements

R: What was the idea behind the investment?

H: The investment in the ICT suite?

R: mhm

H: Originally the school had what was known as a cluster, an ICT cluster which was a small area in the area in the old library which would take computers and it really wasn't sufficient, you couldn't take a whole class in there, it wasn't a decent size room so we applied for I'm trying to think where the money came from [smiles] I think it came from east Sussex County Council originally, so have some help with increasing number of computers and then we had building money which was used to build the ICT suite and that's how we sort of did it, that's a few years ago now but they agreed that we need to have this aspect of the curriculum improved because really a cluster of 8 computers completely inadequate in the modern world so the suite has been a fantastic addition really.

pedagogy designed of times

R: What about the IWB. Was it part of the IWB Expansion Project?

H: I'm not sure, originally yes but we just gradually bought them over the years, so that all classes would have an IWB, so everyone's got one. And we're getting to the point when some of the things need replacing /difficult to hear/ and obviously that's what we have to do.

awareness of the importance of ICT

R: So are you going to replace IWB any time soon?

H: the ICT subject leader will know from working with our ICT technician from county council, he'll know what needs replacing, so...

quality of equipment

attitude towards ICT
importance of ICT
attitude towards the suite

Interview with the specialist

R: Is it still recording? yeah, ok so teaching experience in general.

G: So you have that bit, haven't you? So after 13 years I retrained as a primary school teacher and as my qualification, I had a degree in French, and having lived in Mexico for 13 years my Spanish took over when I came back to England I got a qualification in Spanish as well. And started teaching French for fun in here St Mary's until the government decided in their wisdom to bring back languages into primary schools so that became a little bit more official. So now I teach Spanish from reception to year 5 and French to year 6.

MFL language training & skills
attitude, trans-
gov. decisions
(curricular change)

R: What's your competence with ICT, are you quite good with it or....

G: Not particularly no, when I use ICT I use 2 things I use primarily BBC and Babelzone. But one of the big problems we have with ICT is whether our IWB are working so we always have to have a plan B because it's quite difficult sometimes to either see a particular lesson we are looking at on the IWB. So I don't feel it's so much a question of my of my capabilities with ICT it's more whether our equipment is working.

pedagogy -
resources
ICT logistics
quality of
equipment

R: OK and it mostly isn't I take...

G: [laughs] There's a rumour that things are going to be replaced next year. So yes, in certain classrooms, it's probably not going to work in other classrooms.

ICT - quality of equipment

R: So are they just going to replace it or are they going to bring some new ones like laptops etc

G: I'm not actually sure coz I haven't spoken to the head but Jane, do you want me to go and find out?

R: I need to speak to her anyways so...

G: In a minute?

R: No, not today

G: Oh good so you can check that with her.

R: Yes arrange a date later on not today

G: Yes so that needs to be checked out but there's a rumour. And it would be great because it would make my life so much easier if I knew that the lesson I prepare I could actually show, share with the class.

effect of
ICT on
pedagogy

R: What are your views on using ICT with children?

G: I think it's a real added bonus. One of the bonuses is they hear different accents as well, which is important. Especially with my Spanish accent which is Latin America [laughs] not Castellano. So that's very important, same with French. So accent is very important, they hear different people, it gives them an added interesting. See they always love watching things on the IWB and doing things with the IWB if our IWB are actually working interactively and they can come up and do things on the IWB which often doesn't happen because of the problems with the technical side. That's brilliant as well because then you get the kids to participate in an interactive way. They get up from their seats and move around. There are some great programmes but then again those programmes rely on the schools having adequate equipment that is functioning.

value of CALL -
pronunciation

value of
ICT/CALL -
motivation

value of ICT -
interactivity

logistics - ICT equipment quality

Interview with a non-specialist

S: My niece speaks French, she's dual language so that's about it.

R: **Did you learn French at school then?**

S: yes I did here in primary school and at secondary school I did French and German. I've got GCSE in German I don't know how [I laugh]

S: I went on German exchanges when I was 15, 16.

R: **Hmmm**

S: But didn't really keep it up. My French is only pigeon French and it's because we go on holiday there and because of my sister in law and the baby.

R: **Well I was impressed.**

S: Thank you very much. I didn't understand a word of it but you sounded really confident.

She laughs

R: **What's your competence with ICT?**

S: I'm quite competent with ICT. I was an ICT coordinator here for 3 years.

R: **Ok, what are your views on using ICT with children?**

S: I think it's very important.

R: **Why?**

S: because lots of children can't just learn auditorily, there are kinesthetic learners, they need to be touching, feeling, it's a good way of remembering what they've done. I think it's really important and we're in ICT age really, aren't we? Things are moving very quickly

R: **they are very very very quickly**

S: It's a shame we don't have more sort of laptops types, tablet types things.

R: **So you don't have anything like that?**

S: No, not here. We'd love to, lots of schools have now. If we've got tablets and things that would be fantastic it just engages pupils. It's the modern world, it's the way they are.

R: **What's students' competence with ICT like?**

S: The childrens', some of them are. My particular class at the moment are very mixed because some of them are quite poor. some of them don't have ICT facilities at home. And here we are trying to work in this environment (shows the ICT suite) and it's not conducive to learning. we've got 3 children to a machine and it's hard in a whole class situation. When I divide them into smaller groups there is always problem with the equipment.

R: **Still?**

S: Still.

R: **What about interactive whiteboards?**

S: they seem to be pretty good actually. I use mine everyday. always

R: **when you are forced into teaching MFL (I laugh) do you use ICT?**

S: yes.

R: **Ok what resources**

S: Because I find it backs-up the language and the pronunciation and it backs up things, and I'm only very basic so it's nice and Gillian gives me BBC sites. We did use something called education city. Have you ever seen it.

informal contact with the lg
- training & skills (formal)
- contact with the lg.
→ confidence
- informal contact

ICT competence & confidence

value of ICT - different learning styles
→ acknowledgment of change

attitudes to different equipment type
change equipment variety

acknowledgment of change / recently of change

children's ICT skills

attitude to ICT suites

quality of equipment

frequency of use

value of ICT for PFL (CALL)

digital divide

attitude to IWB

pedagogical resources

skills (& confidence)

Appendix D: Field notes

- revision of numbers 10-100
- one of the kids doesn't seem too happy about Spanish at all, there is a lot of dissatisfaction and interrupting, [redacted] tells him off and that makes him even more upset
- mnemonics tricks to remember the difference between setenta and sesenta
- bingo game with the mini whiteboards
- one of the students says un momento por favor
- one child is playing up (-10 minutes from lunch break)
- IWB resource - Bablezone
- the T introduces extra vocabulary - the sums:

attitudes to teacher

children's attitudes to Spanish (MFL)

x por
- minus
/ entre
+ mas
=son

- she mixes maths with spanish - she also introduces the sums with actions
- the T dictates the sums, ss have to write the whole thing down and the answer in spanish

100-70=30
100/10=10

- the naughty ss started to participate
- another teacher came in and sits with the class a PE teacher I think
- ok this is now starting to drag on for too long, they start fidgeting, not paying attention and it's getting more frustrating for older students who might struggle with maths
- ss write 1-10 and they are dictated 10 sums that they need to write down - they don't need to focus on the answer but they need to write numbers and operations correctly and show they understand Spanish; then they come to the IWB and write the answers one by one

pedagogy

attitudes

- children who got the sums right get stickers
- IWB - ss sitting further away are asked to come closer
- drag and drop activity - numbers and their written form - drag and drop on the laptop not IWB
- that IWB thing is really not working, not enough space, this is verging on dangerous now, one kid tripped over a bag on the way to the board, they are getting frustrated with the fact that it's a timed game but they are taking ages coz there is no room.

layout of space

peeps' attitudes

- ss pray at the end of the day - they make the cross sign in Spanish (in the name of the.....and the holy spirit) - I actually thought it was gonna be the whole prayer in Spanish, especially taking into account what Gillian said about their skills

*pedagogy
interactivity
(prolonged activity)*

Appendix E: Diary entries (reflexive and descriptive)

I was greeted by the head who let me in. I reintroduced myself as I thought she wouldn't remember me after such a long time. She let me in and I was sitting and waiting for Gillian. She said hello to me walking past but since there's still 15 minutes to start the lesson. I was quite annoyed with myself coz I was hoping to do a formal interview with her and record it so that I had a lot of material to transcribe for next week but I left my questions in the car. I couldn't remember all of them so I thought it's best to postpone it until next week. The head offered me a cuppa and she asked if Gillian knows I was here. Gillian came back later on and said she thought I was one of the parents and laughed and then it clicked I was coming. We went to the ICT suite to get the DVD ready for the little ones. She told me again that the IWB in reception is still not working and the teacher is very unhappy because she uses it every day. I told her the story of the Ofsted inspection and ICT not working and how it wasn't taken into account to break the ice a little bit. And then we shot off to do Year 6. I also asked about the trip to France etc. I have to say my job is relatively easy because I don't really need to ask she just talks without any prompts from me which is brilliant.

25th April

Reflexive diary

Yeah so now that I think about it the use of ICT for specialists and non specialists in this given school was the same because non specialists were very insecure about language skills so relied on what they were told worked best and because of that their creativity that normally shows in other lessons was cramped in a way. There was a difference visible without technology – generalists lessons were more personalised, included differentiation and some regular features they have throughout the week that translated fantastically well into MFL. But technology use pretty much the same interestingly. Technology was mostly used for presentation of the material and practice using games.

I also quickly went back to the basics as you need to when you go deep into things like that and looked what pedagogy actually entails. One of the explanations I found was that pedagogy contains: subject and curriculum knowledge, teaching and learning models, conditions for learning, teacher repertoire of skills and knowledge, which is kinda in line with what Driscoll says about teachers' knowledge and effective pedagogy so perhaps I need to sit down with this and rethink that part of my wheel. Also look at effective e-learning practices and pull something out of that but more in the sense of the importance of 21st century skills and planning for the future. What is emerging here is that 3 dimensional use is more planning for the future but that's what it is. Normalisation is in a way aspirational concept and when it comes to ICT integration if we are planning for now we will fail as technology is moving forward with great speed. It's a little bit like somebody said (yes I know I'm very specific today – somebody once said) teaching the children of today for tomorrow or something like that, so it's preparing for education of the future.

Appendix F: Headteacher's (and teachers') information pack

Dear Mrs X

As part of my PhD studies I am investigating integration of ICT in primary Modern Foreign Languages. Modern Foreign Languages will soon become a mandatory subject and I believe ICT is that component which can improve foreign language education if implemented effectively. Hence, briefly speaking the research will look at language provision that incorporates ICT and will attempt to investigate factors that contribute to and impede successful integration and how the latter can be overcome.

I would be extremely grateful if your school could help by allowing me to participate in your regular school day when languages are taught acting as a volunteer and through that:

- observe/ participate in Modern Foreign Language lesson(s)
- observe other, non-MFL lessons
- interview the management and the teachers involved in Modern Foreign Languages
- interview groups of children who are taught Modern Foreign Languages
- audio-record some lessons

Please go through the information pack, which will provide you with more background information about the nature of the research and what your school's participation would involve. If you have any further questions, I would be happy to arrange a meeting at a time convenient for you.

I would like to thank you for your time and I'd appreciate your reply.

Kind regards,

Monika Pazio

Contact details:

07729615061

monika.pazio@beds.ac.uk

monikapazio@yahoo.co.uk

FULL TITLE OF THE PROJECT:

Model for assessing and supporting normalisation of Computer Assisted Language Learning in the context of primary education

WHAT IS NORMALISATION?

Normalisation can be defined as effective integration of ICT which contributes to better teaching and better language gains in students. Effective integration is dependant on several factors. What is meant in this study by effective teaching is such ICT use which allows interaction and elicits the types of classroom talk which facilitate learning.

AIMS OF THE RESEARCH:

The main aims of the project are as follows:

1. to establish what impedes/ contributes to effective integration of ICT in primary MFL classroom;
2. to establish what contributes to successful MFL provision and MFL teaching
3. to create a model for assessing and supporting normalisation

THE IMPORTANCE OF EARLY MFL

Whether or not early starters have advantage over late starters is debatable. The majority of studies conclude that the most visible difference between early and late starters is noticeable as far as pronunciation is concerned. However, there is more to early start than just pronunciation. Putting pronunciation and accuracy aside, early learning evokes positive attitudes to learning languages and foreign cultures but also allows students to gain intercultural competence which can be further developed in secondary school. Additionally, early start with languages may encourage more learners to take languages up to GCSE level, which, with the number of students taking languages at GCSE level drastically dropping, is of primary concern nowadays. Elementary topics would be covered at the primary level and learning would continue with more age appropriate topics at the secondary level.

THE IMPORTANCE OF INTEGRATION

The importance of integrating ICT across the curriculum has been recognised by the educational bodies. This also concerns Modern Foreign Languages. One of the aims of Languages for All: Languages for Life strategy (DfES, 2002) is to:

“To improve teaching and learning of languages, including delivering an entitlement to language learning for pupils at Key Stage 2, making the most of e-learning (...).”

Languages for All: Languages for Life strategy (DfES, 2002:5)

and

“Maximise the potential of ICT: Whilst more schools are using ICT in language teaching than in previous years, its use is underdeveloped in over three quarters of primary schools and a third of secondary schools.”

Languages for All: Languages for Life strategy (DfES, 2002:6)

This emphasises the need for better integration. Many studies confirmed that even though the number of available resources is growing, the pedagogy still lags behind them. Even though teachers are willing to use ICT in MFL, they do not have the necessary skills to make the most of the short 30 minute lesson. This study will help the teachers to overcome those difficulties and will lead to more effective learning and teaching.

THE DATA COLLECTION PROCESS

Following data will be collected:

1. Interviews with the management
2. Interviews with teachers involved in MFL
3. Whole class interviews with children
4. Lesson observations (participant and non-participant)
5. audio-recording of lessons

Interviews with the management will try to determine the intention behind integration, attitudes towards teaching languages with ICT and type of support that is offered.

Interviews with the teachers will try to determine teachers' attitudes toward integrating ICT, their beliefs about what effective integration should entail and training received.

Interview with the children conducted after the recorded and observed lessons will provide information as to the children's impressions after the lesson.

Interviews will deal strictly with MFL and integration and will not touch upon any delicate issues. The researcher will come at a time that is convenient for the school and will not cause major disturbance to the school's day to day life.

ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS:

There are no health and safety issues involved in this project as the equipment used in the study will be wireless and will not expose the children to any danger.

The school name will not be mentioned, pseudonyms will be used for the participants which will not allow for identification of participants.

The participants will be informed that they can quit participation in the study at any moment in time without any consequences.

Consent letter will be sent to the teachers and the headteacher asking to participate.

If audio recording is allowed the data will be transcribed and the files destroyed.

Data will be stored securely on a password protected PC in a password protected file.

The researcher will be available to the parents, teachers and the governors to answer any questions regarding the study and their participation.

If you agree to the research taking place at you school, I would be extremely grateful if you could sign the form below and return to me at your earliest convenience.

-

I agree to the research outlined in this letter to be carried out at

.....

Headteacher's name:.....

Headteacher's Signature:

Date:.....

Appendix G: An example of a signed consent form

(*the consent was attached to the pack in Appendix F)

Dear Mrs. [REDACTED]

REQUEST FOR INFORMED CONSENT

As part of my PhD studies I am investigating integration of computers in primary Modern Foreign Languages. Modern Foreign Languages will soon become a mandatory subject and I believe ICT is that component which can improve foreign language education if implemented effectively. Hence, the research will look at language provision that incorporates computers and will attempt to investigate factors that contribute to and impede successful integration and how the latter can be overcome.

I would be extremely grateful if you could help by allowing me to participate in your lessons and interview you.

Any information that is obtained in connection with this study and that can be identified with you will remain confidential and will be disclosed only with your permission.

Participation in this study is completely voluntary. If you decide not to participate there will not be any negative consequences. Please be aware that if you decide to participate, you may stop participating at any time and you may decide not to answer any questions.

The results will be available at your request. If you have any questions about the research now or during the study do not hesitate to contact me on 07729615061 or monikapazio@yahoo.co.uk.

If you have read and understood the information above and freely give your consent to participate, please sign your name below.

I have read the above description of this research study. I have been assured that any future questions I may have will also be answered by a member of the research team. I voluntarily agree to take part in this study.

PARTICIPANT'S NAME: G. [REDACTED] [REDACTED]
PARTICIPANT'S SIGNATURE: G. [REDACTED]

RESEARCHER'S NAME: Monika Pazio
RESEARCHER'S SIGNATURE: [Signature]

DATE: 14/3/2013

Appendix H: A snapshot from the school newsletter

Everybody Dance!

Our "Everybody Dance!" day raised £150 for the Macmillan Cancer Support charity. We had great fun and everyone danced including the staff and visiting students!

Modern Foreign Languages Research

A PhD. Student from the University of Bedfordshire has applied to conduct some research with us regarding the use of I.C.T. in language learning. Next week she would like to ask questions in each class (as a whole class group) about language learning. The research will take place with the class teacher present. No names are recorded or photographs taken, however if you do not wish your child to take part in the discussion please notify their teacher in writing.

Gardening Thanks

Appendix I: Year 1 lesson observations

Lesson topics: Pets

Teacher: Non-specialist

Year: 1

Stage	Resource	Teacher Activity	Student Activity	Comments
Warm up/ revision	none	T asks children what they were learning in Spanish	S remember and answer they were learning about animals	The children were very enthusiastic and remembered the video
Introduction	IWB - Early start Spanish Tu y yo	Loads the software to the PC and plays the video She watches the video with the S	ss watch a video of different animals and listen to the names and listen to short sentences said in Spanish about animals	The teacher watches with the kids, doesn't participate or reinforce, just watches
Practice	IWB – Early Start	T plays a video that breaks the main video into short chunks Asks the children to listen and repeat after the video The TA shows an action for every animal	Children watch the video again and look at the actions that teacher makes They try to mimic the actions They repeat after the video	The TA who was present during the lesson with the TA helps the teacher, she remembers the actions and prepared some materials
Practice	IWB – Early Start	The TA plays the video again and stops before the children in the video manage to say the name of their pets in Spanish She asks children to shout out the name	Children try to remember the Spanish names of the animals and shout them out as a whole class	The TA and the teacher don't feel too confident with pronunciation, they rely heavily on the video, won't really attempt to pronounce things themselves
Practice	Little flashcards	The teacher and the TA ask children to sit in a circle and each is given an animal They are to remember what animal they have and sit on the picture The teacher shows a big photo of an animal and the children who have that photo have to quickly swap places The teacher asks the children to show the action for this animal and asks if anybody remembers the Spanish word	Children swap places with each other They try to remember the action and the Spanish name	The children enjoy this moving around a lot, some of them remember some Spanish words, most of them remember the actions

Lesson topics: Pets

Teacher: Specialist

Year: 1

Stage	Resource	Teacher Activity	Student Activity	Comments
Warm up/ revision	none	T leads the singing	S try to sing a long Twinkle Twinkle in Spanish They mime the actions as they sing	The children are able to sing bits and pieces of the song but they join in even when they don't know the lyrics
Introduction	IWB - Early start Spanish Tu y yo	Loads the software to the PC and plays the video She watches the video with the S and repeats some of the words	ss watch a video of different animals and listen to the names and listen to short sentences said in Spanish about animals	The vocabulary is presented in context but the focus is mostly on single words Children are very interested in the videos and the animals
Practice	IWB – Early Start	T plays a video that breaks the main video into short chunks, with children in the video repeating again what animals they have, this time not in full sentences (just the Q Tienes alguna mascot? Repeated) She shows an action for every animal	Children watch the video again and look at the actions that teacher makes They try to mimic the actions The S try to repeat the name of the animal in Spanish	The T definitely does the listen before speak technique, drawing to some extent on Total Physical response Method, the children are not so much encouraged to repeat but try to do it anyway, especially the more talented children
Practice	flashcards	T shows the children a flashcard and asks them to show an action for that animal She repeats the spoken form as they do the correct action	Children do the correct action for each animal shown on a flashcard	Reinforcing the link between spoken form and the action, it seems to be working coz some of them actually remember the sounds
Practice	Flashcards	T shows the flashcard and asks students to say the name of the animal	Children attempt to guess the Spanish name of the animal	She tries to get the children used to the sound first and only then start to say the sound
Goodbyes	none	T in cooperation with the TA distributes the stickers Says Goodbye in Spanish	Children say goodbye in Spanish	The TA is present during the session and is asked to practice with the children

Appendix J: Year 6 lesson observations

Specialist teacher

Stage	Resource	Teacher Activity	Student Activity	Comments
Introduction	none	The T greets the S in French	S respond back in French	
Revision	IWB BBC website song	T displays a song the S practiced last time (days of the week)	SS listen to the song	
Introduction - KAL	board	the T explores ss knowledge of the language, asks about the word habit and what's the problem with it - asks about spelling, pronunciation, silent h and comparison to Spanish	The children answer the T's questions Whoever knows the answer they either shout it out or raise their hand and answer when asked	the T explains that they are going away from conversational French and moving towards basic French which is what the feeder school will expect them to know when they go to the secondary school
Presentation	IWB BBC website	T presses the word and the recording is played, asks S to repeat Asks S the question, they repeat for each day of the week C'est quel jour? What day is it? E translation of the question is given	S repeat after the recording	
Presentation	IWB BBC website – as display	The T draws the S attention to the spelling She draws S attention to cognates She compares pronunciation of Spanish and French /j/ sound and /v/ sound	SS listen and answer questions	S understand the word cognate and can answer questions
Practice		T uses fingers to practice days of the week – first choral repetition Then she shows a finger with a number and the S shout out the name of the day of the week	Choral repetition Shout out the name of the week	
Practice	IWB BBC website	T plays the song	Children repeat after the recording	
Practice	IWB Babelzone	T displays balloons with spelling (intro to the game) T finds a game Asks individual S to come to the board and drag and drop the days of the week in the correct order	S raise their hand to come to the board and participate	There is a lot of excitement because the game is timed the T also explains the meaning of jove on the balloons page

Explanation		T explains the difference in spelling (capital letters) between French, English and Spanish		This was triggered by the generalist teacher resent who was asking the specialist about it
Practice	worksheets	SS are given worksheets and are asked to stick them in their books	S do the wordsearch and stick them in their books	Generalist helps A lot of emerging language during the task, the children often ask in E and get a reply in French Sometimes they ask for the translation (how do you say...in French)
Practice	Board, books	the T writes on the WB: Les jours de la semaine C'est quel jour: She analyses the language and explains the forms to the S She asks them to copy the sentences to their books	Listen to the T Copy the sentences	
Revision		T drills the Q, shows the fingers for days of the week T says goodbye in French	SS have to day the day of the week in French Children respond	

Lesson Topic: Days of the week

Teacher: Non specialist

Year: 6

Stage	Resource	Teacher Activity	Student Activity	Comments
Introduction	none	T asks the S to listen and look – ecute regade Says it both in French and in English The T asks what they learnt last in English	Children calm down after the previous activity They remember the last lesson and are able to say what the topic was	
Presentation	IWB – BBC website Video + song	T is preparing the resource – trying to find the correct song on the site The teacher plays the video with days of the week song	Children sit and wait Children sit down, listen and watch what is happening on the IWB (as the song is being sung the written form is also displayed)	She had some problems with the website, nothing major but commented on it as a source of lesson failure SS get excited when they see that they will be playing a game and watching a video
Practice	IWB – BBC website Interactive matching game	The teacher finds the correct game She selects individual students to come to the board	SS match the written form with the spoken form – drag and drop activity S raise their hands to show interest	SS are enthusiastic, the pace of the lesson is fast, she manages to do it quickly so that the motivation doesn't go down
Practice	flashcards	Teacher shows flashcards with the names of days of the week written on them She asks students for English translation	SS look at the written form of the word and say the English equivalent	Children are excited, engaged, want to participate
Practice - KAL	Flashcards, board	T sticks flashcards to the board and asks about what the SS notice about the days of the week	Students compare the spelling in French and English They mentioned the lack of capital letters	T copies what the specialist did with KAL – she wasn't aware of the difference last time
Revision	IWB – song Board - flashcards	The T plays the song again As the song is being played she points to the flashcards stuck to the board She asks S to say what is next in the song She points to individual students	S listen to the song again S tell the teacher which word is next in the song (pairs of words) S raise their hands to answer	
Practice	Flashcards Board	T chooses individual students, she gives them a flashcard each and asks them to line up in the right order She asks the S to sing T asks SS to stick the flashcards in the correct order to the board	the students line up putting the days of the week in the correct order, they have to sign a song now in pairs of the words just like in the original song and sing it SS put the flashcards away, stick them to the board	T offers support She selects the students very carefully according to their abilities (lower levels get words that are easier) Everybody participates

Practice	none	T announces Talent show – asks students to sing the song individually but in an extraordinary way T chooses the learners T is happy to participate as well	SS raise their hand They sing the song in front of everybody	Talent Show – integration of a regular part from their weekly routine No explanation is required S know what to do and are excited about it
Practice	worksheets	T distributes worksheets Offers support	S do the activities	Differentiation, 3 different types, T distributes different worksheets to different S
Practice	IWB BBC site - game	T loads the game – timed pair T listens to S suggestions and lines the students up to have another go She chooses the S, regardless whether they put their hands up or not	SS come up to the IWB and find pairs of word, the activity is timed Line up and do the activity again	It was taking too long, the S were too slow, felt frustrated when they are done they ask to have another go on the game and one of the boys asks to do it again and line up so that they can do it faster, Sara says it's probably a good idea so this time the SS actually line up and do it quicker
Revision	IWB BBC website song	T plays the song again and asks the whole class to sing	SS sing along	

Appendix K: Year 6 lesson observations - French trip

Stage	Resource	Teacher activity	Student activity	Comments
Introduction	none	French greetings	Children answer back in French	The children came into the classroom very excited; one boy kept talking about his euros The conversations are all about the trip
Introduction to the lesson	none	The teacher models a short conversation with her assistant (a French graduate who came to the school for work experience)	SS watch and listen	They are going to the French market at the trip so the lesson is preparing them for shopping
Practice	French books	T asks ss what they'd like to eat and drink in full sentences – the t explains all the forms - I'd like, I want give me and compares it with English and refers it to when Stephanie was learning English The assistant perform role plays with the children	ss open their books and look at the handout they got previously with some shopping vocabulary and phrases Ss are asked to come to the front and do the role play – all the time referring to what they will be doing on Monday and how they will be doing it – they come up with their own dialogues and things they want to buy and how much it costs and do it in front of everybody in the class	

Practice	IWB	<p>Displays items on the IWB</p> <p>Ss asks some ss to come to the board and drag the items to the shopping bag</p>	Word, students read the prices	<p>prices are on the IWB with some products like sandwich cheese etc; It's a software not</p> <p>when they are dragged a set of coins comes up and they have to choose the right amount. Ss are asked to come to the front and do the role play – all the time referring to what they will be doing on Monday and how they will be doing it</p>
Production			<p>they come up with their own dialogues and things they want to buy and how much it costs and do it in front of everybody in the class</p>	

Appendix L: Summary of characteristics of specialist and non-specialist lessons

	Specialist	Generalist	Generalist – other lessons
Resources	<p>ICT resources – pre made resources/ ready made primary courses like Early Start or acknowledged websites like BBC or Babelzone</p> <p>Non ICT resources – flashcards, worksheets (wordsearches, dialogues), puppets for younger children, cut outs</p>	<p>ICT resources – pre made resources/ ready made primary courses like Early Start or acknowledged websites like BBC or Babelzone</p>	<p>accredited websites, PPTs, ready made software, Internet, flashcards, toys, realia, teacher made resources</p>
Activities	<p>ICT activities – only IWB based (countdown games, matching games, find the correct pair games), videos, displaying Word documents</p> <p>Non ICT activities – flashcard games, guessing games individual work with worksheets</p>	<p>ICT activities – only IWB based</p> <p>Non-ICT activities - ordering flashcards, using the whiteboard, individual work with differentiated worksheets</p>	<p>Whole class IWB based, work in the ICT suite (Pair work, individual - half of the class is taken by the TA), student choice of activity</p> <p>talent shows</p>

CALL activities	<p>Centred around IWB:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● presentation of songs (modelling pronunciation) from the IWB (teacher led), displaying Word documents ● games – find matching pairs, find the correct spelling (Children usually come to the board and press the right button – it's quite often timed) ● video – usually played from one of the ready made courses like Early start – children are supposed to sit and watch (teacher led), quite often used for vocabulary in context and reinforcing grammar related to that vocabulary 	<p>IWB centred:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● using the songs and audio files to model pronunciation for the students (students repeat after the recording) ● interactive games – students participate, they are asked to come to the board and press the right button, the activity is timed 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● IWB for presentation of material and interactive games, used as a timer (teacher led and 1:1 student, group work), writing on the board, underlining, modelling writing, drawing ● visualisers – displaying textbook material and working with it (mostly teacher led) ● ICT suite – individual work/ group work – students researching information for a project, preparing presentations, exploring the web to find information relevant to their interests (personalised use)
Tech. used	IWB	IWB	Interactive whiteboard, ICT suite, visualisers, cameras, mp3 players, OHP
Reasons	Added value, motivational tool	Job done	Added value, digital literacy, 21st century skills, motivational tool, learning for the future

<p style="writing-mode: vertical-rl; transform: rotate(180deg);">PMFL curriculum strands</p>	<p>KAL – references to KAL throughout, comparison of languages F-E/S-E/F-S-E, use of grammatical terms, explanation of grammar; everything is done in L1, some instances of exploratory talk here – a lot of why questioning from the teacher</p> <p>Culture – some references to culture present</p> <p>Oracy – focus on oracy – believer in CLT – language usually presented in context, emphasis on full sentence answers, for Y6 – conversational French to use during their trip</p> <p>Literacy – very limited, focus is primarily on speaking, there are some instances of linking the spoken and the written form on the IWB, worksheets focus on vocabulary items</p> <p>Language Learning Strategies – instances of building on the knowledge from already known languages, mnemonic tricks for remembering confusing words</p>	<p>KAL – some very basic references related to capital spelling rules in French and English</p> <p>Culture – very limited references to cultures based on teacher’s own experience</p> <p>Oracy – focus on oracy comes down to repeating words or fixed phrases after the recording + learning through songs</p> <p>Literacy – very limited, there are some instances of linking the spoken and the written form on the IWB, worksheets focus on vocabulary items, mostly reinforcing the written form</p> <p>Language Learning Strategies – comparisons between L1 and L2, mnemonic tricks for remembering confusing words</p>	
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Strengths	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Good knowledge of the language and model for pronunciation ● easy to address emerging language ● easy to make references to target culture ● easy to reinforce learning about the language including grammatical terms 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Good knowledge of children's abilities which allows for good differentiation ● good rapport with the children which means behaviour problems are eliminated ● ability to translate successful part of the date into MFL teaching 	
Weaknesses	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● more behaviour problems ● lack of knowledge of children's abilities so differentiation might be difficult ● lessons don't get finished because of tight timetable 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Inability to respond to emerging language ● lack of confidence when it comes to pronunciation ● lack of sufficient language skills to address KAL strand ● lack of language skills/ confidence to go further than just vocabulary learning 	

Issues with CALL	Technical issues (the position of IWB impedes visibility; the interactive features of the board don't work) integration issues – it's mostly whole class use of IWB which only engages a couple of students at a time and the rest gets very demotivated and bored	Language issues – reliance solely on ready made resources for model of the language	
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