

**USING LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES TO DEVELOP *AB-INITIO*
PGCE STUDENTS' SKILLS IN PRIMARY MODERN LANGUAGES**

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ABSTRACT

The announcements concerning the introduction of modern languages in Key Stage Two in England (<https://www.education.gov.uk/schools/teachingandlearning/curriculum/nationalcurriculum2014>, [accessed 8 March 2013]), although not a new initiative, have renewed the need to train generalist primary teachers in teaching modern languages. Following an initial announcement of the introduction of the English Baccalaureate, the poor outcomes achieved by England in the European languages survey (COE, 2012) and the news that modern languages would be part of the primary curriculum (<http://www.bbc.co.uk/news/education-18531751> [accessed 21 June 2012]) contributed to refreshing the agenda of languages in the country and the role of early second language learning appears to be slowly resurrecting. In order to provide trainee teachers with the skills necessary for teaching young learners modern languages, this study focuses on increasing subject knowledge and pedagogical competence in a short time by developing trainees' reflective practice, broadly following the tradition of strategy-based instruction (Macaro, 2001; Cohen, 2007; Oxford, 2011), but within a social constructivist understanding of learning using collaboration. The research, which follows a mixed method case study approach, proposes and trials a teaching approach that incorporates language learning strategies in a collaborative manner.

The design of a revised strategy-based approach has a three-fold purpose: (i) to enable primary trainee teachers to develop the linguistic skills necessary to teach another language through the use of the linguistic knowledge they already possess in their own mother tongue (Saville-Troike, 2012); (ii) to use self-regulation to build confidence and competence in the target language; and (iii) to enable trainees and pupils to develop their language learning autonomy. Results indicate that, within the case studies reported here, such an approach seemed to be an effective way of learning and teaching another language simultaneously for adults, as it provided *ab-initio* language learners with a basis for the development of linguistic skills thus increasing their capacity for languages. Whilst there is no claim to generalisation here, the studies indicate that using language learning strategies may create and sustain interest and engagement in the subject—a condition that has been identified as critical to the success of any teaching approach. Whilst the results were positive in terms of developing acceptable levels of linguistic competence in adult learners over a short time, the use of a strategy-based method with children did not prove satisfactory, perhaps because of the high metacognitive demands placed on them when they had not yet developed high level abstract thinking, particularly the

amount of prior knowledge needed and the language required to verbalise complex cognitive processes.

DECLARATION

I declare that this thesis is my own un-aided work. It is being submitted for the degree of Doctor of Education at the University of Bedfordshire.

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

Name of candidate: Mario Raul Angel Moya

Signature:

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Mario Raul Angel Moya', written over a horizontal line.

Date: January 2014

Dedication

En recuerdo de mi amada madre y en agradecimiento por haberme enseñado que el conocimiento y las virtudes son la esencia necesaria de una vida plena.

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Support comes in many guises and it is not until undertaking a piece of work of this magnitude that one fully appreciates this fact, especially important when time is at a premium in our busy modern lives. Sometimes a kind word shines a light on the way out of an impasse or a dead end, at other times a moment of savage honesty, initially painful, but then illuminating in its own way. At other times additional knowledge or know-how from others who have trod this path before is also invaluable, as well as love, friendship and family. This work could not have been completed without the help of many such moments, but especially without the continuous support of R.E.L, to whom I am immensely grateful, for understanding and caring for me. Thanks additionally, to Agustin, Mateo, Antonella and Ignacio, permanent sources of inspiration in my life. My deepest appreciation is reserved for Professor Janice Wearmouth, my Director of Studies, for her patience, encouragement and generosity in sharing her immense knowledge. I am also grateful to Professor Uvanney Maylor for co-supervising this project and for her insightful comments. The dedication and focus shown by both of them inspired me to carry on when times were tough. I would also like to thank Professor Annamaria Pinter for her interest in my work and for her invaluable advice. Finally, I would like to thank everyone that took part in this study, in particular my PGCE trainees at the University of Bedfordshire, all of the school-based mentors and last but by no means least of all, those that should always remain centre stage, the pupils.

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CHAPTER ONE INTRODUCTION

1.1 A rationale for the study

This research project is concerned with the development of teaching capacity within a Primary Post-graduate Certificate in Education (PGCE) course to equip generalist trainees with the necessary skills and competences to learn and teach modern languages to young learners. Modern languages have been seen as a highly specialised subject area in the curriculum, requiring a specialist teacher, usually a ‘linguist’, to impart knowledge in a classroom. In this study, I make the claim that a trainee teacher who speaks any language and who, by virtue of being an expert user of one, can teach another language at a basic level. These skills that speakers of any languages employ have been internalised and exist at the level of the subconscious mind resulting from the interactions with other speakers. I argue that these skills, following Oxford (1990), which I call language strategies, need to be identified and be made conscious as a necessary stage for L2 learning. In this study, I present and discuss a model of language learning based on the use of strategies aiming at developing a knowledgeable workforce which can respond effectively to the challenges posed by the introduction of the new primary curriculum in 2014.

In the current study I have used myself as a research tool and in doing so I have brought into the inquiry process my personal biography, interests, beliefs as well as my social and individual identity. I concur with Finlay (2002) who claims that a researcher cannot be detached from his/her own background as this is used to frame the research process whilst contributing to the creation of meaning. Nightingale & Cromby (1999) acknowledge that it is necessary for a researcher to acknowledge personal positions in this type of scholarly activity ‘to explore the ways in which a researcher’s involvement with a particular study influences, acts upon and informs such research’ (p.228). With this in mind, this research project draws on my personal experience as a Modern Languages (ML) teacher and teacher trainer. I have worked both in schools and higher education institutions with learners of different ages and from a variety of social and cultural backgrounds. I am trilingual and have lived and worked in a number of different countries with different first languages. I have also taught languages using a variety of teaching approaches and have developed professional knowledge and understanding in the acquisition and development of the mother tongue (L1) and the links with second-language learning (or L2), particularly bilingualism. In this study, I concur with the views and evidence presented by Driscoll & Frost (1999), Cook (2000), Pinter (2006, 2011), Martin (2008), Hood

& Tobutt (2009), Jones & McLachlan (2009), Maynard (2012) and Watts, Forder & Phillips (2013) in terms of the benefits of early language learning, as my personal conviction is that learning languages develops children's life skills and can enable them to become sound citizens of the world. The current study argues a case for classroom teachers to be the model for learning and teaching, irrespective of whether or not they are linguists. A primary classroom teacher, from my experience, can develop a deep understanding of how children acquire their mother tongue, as well as how the teaching of another language can be encouraged and developed by following the patterns involved in the acquisition of a child's own mother tongue.

As a teacher and teacher trainer, I have experienced how quickly children learn an L2 when this is introduced at an early age. I have seen pupils being motivated and willing to develop their linguistic awareness and competence when a modern language is introduced in a context that mirrors the one in which they are developing their L1. I have also witnessed how learners' personal experiences, either positive or negative, influence the way in which they approach the learning of modern languages and how these experiences can contribute to or hinder motivation especially in adult learners. During this study, I set out to challenge negative attitudes towards modern languages whilst developing a teaching approach where learners are encouraged to make an active use of their L1 expertise.

The research process was supported and informed by reflexivity where 'the researcher appears not as an individual creative scholar, a knowing subject who discovers, but more as a material body through whom a narrative unfolds' (Bruner 1986, p.150). Longhofer, Floersch & Hoy (2013) argues that reflexivity occurs in the first person and this is the reason for the use of the grammatical first person singular *I* to better illustrate the internal conversations resulting from my involvement with the topic, the participants and the research contexts. In this piece of research I adopted three roles: course tutor, a learner, and researcher-inquirer. In the last role, I followed an 'insider' perspective, exploring how personal narratives and institutional discourses can be combined in a model of communities of practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991) where learning is transformed by collaboration to achieve a common goal.

1.2 Aims and purposes

My study aims to explore the effect of personal experiences in shaping the attitudes and views of adult learners towards modern languages. My thesis seeks to evaluate the role of transferable language learning strategies, from L1 to L2 to enable generalist PGCE trainees to learn and teach modern languages confidently. My project then aims at:

1. Implementing and evaluating a revised strategy-based approach to train *ab-initio* generalist trainee teachers in modern languages.
2. Ascertaining whether or not strategies for learning modern languages enable self-regulatory learning so that trainees can monitor their own progress.
3. Exploring opportunities for learning in the workplace by using the model of cognitive apprenticeship (CA) (Collins, Brown & Newman, 1989) where learning emerges in the interaction with a ‘more knowledgeable one’ (MKO) (Vygotsky, 1978) to create a community of learning (trainee–mentor–pupil–trainee–mentor–pupil).
4. Ascertaining whether or not the revised strategy-based approach can also enable children to learn modern languages.

These aims led to the research questions that provided a direction for the study.

1.3 The research questions

In considering the research question that might guide this study I focused on two areas: one was the profile of the ‘adult’ learner and the role of experiential knowledge, and the other was the language expertise that learners had in their L1, specifically focusing on the strategies employed when they use their mother tongue. The next stage in framing my project was to combine these two areas into a single problem to facilitate bibliographical research in order to understand how language strategies could be used for learning an L2 and the resulting teaching methodologies associated with the use of such strategies.

I was aware of the importance of phrasing a question that would provide sufficient direction in relation to the research methodology to follow and the sort of data to gather, as Savin-Baden & Major (2013, p.99) assert ‘research questions require framing aimed at developing an understanding of the central phenomenon under investigation’. The research question would also set the boundaries of my inquiry whilst allowing me to *operationalize* a problem so that my project could ‘move from the general to the particular and from the abstract to the concrete’, as argued by Cohen, Manion & Morrison (2007, p.81). Menter & Murray (2011, p.31), when discussing the importance of research questions, acknowledge that these are an ‘indispensable anchor throughout the research process’.

My main research question therefore became:

Q1. Can language learning strategies that are used by generalist primary trainee teachers in L1 be also used to develop their linguistic competences and skills in an L2, using collaborative learning?

Further consideration of the main research question led me to elaborate subsidiary questions that provided the final direction of the study, which were as follows:

Q2. Is there a relationship between anxiety and L2 learning?

Q3. Can a strategy-based approach to L2 learning be used during trainees' school experience?

Q4. Can a strategy-based approach to L2 learning be used to teach young learners?

The first secondary question (Q2) was focused on finding out how the personal experiences of adult learners in the PGCE course, in particular those perceived to cause trainees to develop negative attitudes, stress and anxiety, influence the process of learning an L2. The second subsidiary question (Q3) is based upon the idea that the school context has a potential to promote opportunities for the development of L2 subject knowledge and professional expertise. Finally, the last question (Q4) set out to find out whether using language learning strategies to develop trainees' competences to teach L2 can also be employed to develop children's L2 awareness and skills.

1.4 Overview of the thesis

This thesis starts by reviewing key concepts in a literature review covering the areas of linguistic theory, teaching and learning modern languages in primary schools, the acquisition and development of professional teaching knowledge, leading to a discussion of a teaching model based on language learning strategies known as strategy-based instruction (SBI) approach. I review the major theories of language acquisition (L1) and learning (L2) whilst providing a summary of the different attempts at introducing modern languages in primary schools in England. I then discuss the role of situated learning in communities of practice and explore cognitive apprenticeship (CA) as a framework to develop trainees' subject knowledge and teaching skills whilst in school placement. Finally, I draw on these concepts to propose a teaching approach based on language strategies to support *ab-initio* learners to acquire basic L2 knowledge and develop their linguistic and teaching confidence which was used in two case studies presented and discussed in chapters four and five.

Chapter three discusses the methodology I used to gain access to my sources of information, the techniques employed in collecting and analysing data, and the ethical considerations I followed. I discuss the reasons for using a case study within a framework of practitioner inquiry and constant comparative method (CCM) whilst providing an overview of the research procedure.

Chapters four, five and six present three case studies and information about context, participants, research tools and resulting data are presented.

Chapter seven provides a discussion of the results obtained in the three case studies.

Chapter eight refers back to the research questions introduced in chapter one, providing a summary of findings and identifying areas for future inquiry.

CHAPTER TWO LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 *Introduction*

This chapter provides a theoretical background to my study and is divided into seven areas each one discussing key aspects which have contributed to inform the design and the implementation of a model for teaching modern languages to trainee teachers based on the use of language learning strategies (as discussed in case study one – CS1) within a framework of cognitive apprenticeship (CA) in a community of learning (discussed in case study two - CS2).

These areas are as follows:

- Theories of language acquisition and language learning
- Current models of L2 instruction in English primary schools
- The relationships between age and L2 learning
- Attitudes towards learning another language in England
- Creating opportunities for developing capacity within schools to train teachers in L2.
- Developing L2 subject knowledge for teaching based on language strategies
- Developing professional knowledge for teaching using CA.

2.2 *Language acquisition and language learning*

Authors such as Terrell (1977), Krashen (1982), Higgs (1985), Nagle & Sanders (1986), Masciantonio (1988), Stern (1991), Richards & Rodgers (2010) and Lightbown & Spada (2013), explain that there are two distinct and independent ways of developing competence in another language which are referred to as *language acquisition* and *language learning*. These scholars explain that *language acquisition* is a process similar to the way in which children develop ability in their first language (L1); it is a subconscious process in which one *picks up* a feel for a language. *Language learning*, on the other hand, is a conscious process of developing knowledge of another language (L2), acknowledging and understanding the linguistic rules of syntax and phonology, and being able to talk about them. Although this distinction is fundamentally a technical one, different sources use them interchangeably, thus referring to second language acquisition or the learning of the mother tongue. In order to provide consistency and follow the terminology used in the field of Applied Linguistics, I use the term *language acquisition* (L1) to refer to the natural process of picking up a language and *language learning* (L2) to refer to the conscious process of internalisation of lexical items and grammatical structures both necessary to learn an L2.

Such distinctions between language acquisition and learning can prove to be essential for the development of teaching awareness. In the context of primary generalist teachers, for example, teaching an L2 would naturally follow the same principles and curriculum structure for communicative abilities, such as oracy and literacy, for English in Key Stages One and Two where the premise is the development of communicative competence. This is defined as the ability to employ the language as a tool that can be used to do or achieve something successfully (Croft & Cruse, 2009).

2.3 Theories of language acquisition, language learning, linguistic theory and teaching and learning approaches

This section looks at the theories of language acquisition and language learning from the perspectives of Behaviourism, Innatism/Cognitivism, and the Interactionist or Developmental view, whilst considering the background from which they emerged, their main tenets and the implications for teaching and learning.

2.3.1 Behaviourism

2.3.1.1 Background

Richards & Rodger (2010), following the views of Skinner (1957) and Brown (1980), argue that Behaviourism sees an individual as an organism capable of a wide repertoire of behaviours and they maintain that:

The occurrence of these behaviours is dependent on three crucial elements in learning: a *stimulus*, which serves to elicit a behaviour; a *response* triggered by a stimulus; and *reinforcement*, which serves to mark the response as being appropriate or not, and encourages the repetition or suppression of the response in the future (p.56).

Reinforcement is a vital element in the learning process, because it increases the likelihood that the behaviour will occur again and eventually become a habit. This is produced by *operant* (or instrumental) *conditioning* that takes place through a series of rewards or punishments through which an association is made between a behaviour and its consequences.

2.3.1.2 Theory of language (L1) acquisition

In *Verbal Behaviour* (1957), Skinner made the claim that language is no different from any other type of non-verbal behaviour, and there is no need for any new principles or theories to explain it, meaning that Behaviourism could apply just as well to language learning as anything

else. According to this theory, language learning is a process of habit formation that involves a period of trial and error where children try and fail to use correct language until they succeed. Adults provide the stimuli, suppressing errors and rewarding correct utterances. Skinner (*ibid*) claims that children imitate the language they hear around them and by having their responses strengthened by repetitions, corrections and other reactions provided by adults, children develop a language habit. Behaviourism claims that before children are able to produce language, they learn to listen first and they are able to associate particular sounds with certain situations. For example, crying may prompt a mother to act. If the baby child realises that crying leads to a desired behaviour (for instance, being fed), this is a reward and a process of operant conditioning starts. Notwithstanding, the Behaviouristic perspective, influenced by the Positivist tradition, fails to account for the individuals' mental processes involved in learning as these cannot be directly observed or measured.

2.3.1.3 Theory of language (L2) learning

Behaviourism considers that learning another language is no different from the processes involved in the acquisition of L1. Stern (1991) makes the claim that 'learning a language entails mastering the elements or building blocks of the language and learning the rules by which these elements are combined, from phoneme to morpheme to word to phrase to sentence' (p.55). In addition, Crystal (1987, p.372) acknowledges that 'the main aim of behaviourist teaching is to form new, correct linguistic habits through intensive practice, eliminating interference errors in the process'.

Littlewood (1984) explains that second language learning, from a Behaviourist perspective, consists of overcoming the differences between the first and the second language systems and cites Lado (1957, p.2) who asserts that 'those elements that are similar to his native language will be simple for him [the learner], and those that are different will be difficult'. In order to learn another language successfully rote learning, drills and memorisation play a vital role.

2.3.1.4 Linguistic theory: American Structuralism

A Behaviourist perspective of language learning is based on the study of language structures. Hawkes (1977) argues that the origin of this view was closely linked to the descriptive accounts of the American anthropologists Franz Boas and Edward Sapir who, after studying American indigenous languages, proposed that these operate by means of some kind of inherent *structuring* principle. Boas and Sapir's claim was developed further by Leonard Bloomfield, in *Language* (1933), which gave birth to the American Structuralism (Stern, 1991). According

to Richard & Rodgers (2010), by the 1930s the scientific approach to the study of language was based on the collection of examples of utterances and analysing them according to different levels of structural organisation. They explain that:

The term *structural* referred to these characteristics: (a) elements in a language were thought of as being restrictedly produced in a rule-governed (structured) way; (b) language samples could be exhaustively described at any structural level of description (phonetic, phonemic, morphological, etc.); (c) linguistic levels were thought of as systems within systems –that is, as being pyramidally structured; phonemic systems led to morphemic systems, and these in turn led to the higher-level systems of phrases, clauses and sentences (p.55).

The key feature of this linguistic theory was the view that the primary medium of language is oral: ‘speech is language’ (*ibid*).

2.3.1.5 Teaching implications

According to Littlewood (1984), following Lado’s (1957, p.18) views, these implications are summarised as follows:

1. ‘We can compare the learner’s first language with the second language he [*sic*] is trying to learn (an activity which is usually called ‘contrastive analysis’).
2. From the differences that emerge from this analysis, we can predict the language items that will cause difficulty and the errors that the learner will be prone to make (a belief which is normally called ‘contrastive analysis hypothesis’).
3. We can use these predictions in deciding which items need to be given special treatment in the courses that we teach or the materials that we write.
4. For these items in particular, we can use intensive techniques such as repetitions or drills, in order to overcome the interference and establish the necessary new habits (such techniques forming the basis of the so-called ‘audio-lingual’ or ‘audio-visual’ courses)’.

2.3.2 Innatism/Cognitivist perspective

2.3.2.1 Background

Nunan (1991) explains that the major departure of cognitive psychology from Behaviourism was the view that learning is a two-way process between the individual and the environment and that language learning is basically a mental activity as explained by Chomsky (1966). He

also claims that languages have common properties which he calls Universal Grammar (UG). These views developed two distinctive positions to explain how individuals learn another language (L2): the *innatist* and the *cognitivist*. Following Schunk (1991), Cook (1993), Gass & Selinker (2001), Reutzel & Cooter (2004), Shannon (2005) and Myles (2011) a summary of both positions, as I see them, is presented below.

Table 1 Innatist and cognitivist views on L2 learning

Innatism	Cognitivism
<p>Human beings develop knowledge of systems which are too rich and complex to be derived from the environment. According to Chomsky (1966) language contains a systemic complexity which cannot be derived from the environment as this is too poor, variable and indeterminate to explain the ability to learn complex linguistic processes. This means that language learning is seen as different from other kinds of learning.</p>	<p>A formal description of the linguistic systems involved is seen as crucial to our understanding of the tasks facing language learners.</p> <p>Cognitive theorists are primarily interested in the learning components of second language acquisition and they view this as one instantiation of learning amongst many others.</p>
<p>Universal Grammar (UG) models are primarily interested in linguistic <i>competence</i>.</p>	<p>Cognitivists are also interested in L2 grammars but more interested in <i>performance</i> as they believe that learning rules and the automatic production of them is central to learning.</p>
<p>Part of the human knowledge consists of cognitive dispositions, which are triggered and developed by the environment, but not determined by it. UG holds that human beings are endowed with a language-specific module in the mind known as language acquisition device (LAD).</p>	<p>Cognitivists do not believe that language is separate from other aspects of cognition and three main models explain language (L1) acquisition and development:</p> <p>(a) Perceptual saliency approach: this is based on the similarity in linguistic development across children and across language is due to the fact that human beings are programmed to perceive and organise</p>

information in certain ways (Schunk, 1991).

- (b) Connectionism: also known as parallel distributed processing, likens the brain to a computer which would consist of neural networks, complex clusters of links between information nodes. The links or connections become strengthened through activation and non-activation respectively (Gass & Selinker, 2001).
- (c) Information processing models: these explain that human beings are autonomous and active and they hold that the mind is a general purpose, symbol processing system. To learn a second language is to learn a skill which requires an *automatization* of component sub-skills (Cook, 1993).

Nunan (*op. cit.*) states that ‘the ability of the organism to act on the environment contrasts with the behaviourist view that the organism is basically the passive recipient of outside stimuli’ (p.232). According to McGilly (1996, p.3), cognitive science ‘explores the mechanisms by which people acquire, process and use knowledge’. Reutzel & Cooter (2004) argue that the cognitive theory can be seen as a compromise between the behaviourist theory and the innatist approach. These authors argue that ‘cognitivists believe that not only do cognitive and maturational factors influence language acquisition, but also the process of language acquisition itself may in turn affect cognitive and social skill development’ (*ibid*, p.26).

As Cognitivism focuses on the acquisition and use of knowledge, this has particular implications for learning. Ashman & Conway (1997, p.2) indicate that learning from a cognitivist perspective ‘refers to the acquisition of knowledge through interactions with, and observations of, the physical world and the creatures that inhabit it’. They acknowledge that problem-solving is one of the key concepts within the cognitive perspective and they define it as ‘the application of knowledge to achieve a desired outcome’ (*ibid*). In describing learning,

Ashman & Conway (*ibid*) identify four agents to produce successful (or unsuccessful) learning outcomes, namely: the learner, the teacher, the physical setting, the curriculum, which all together constitutes the learning environment.

Key concepts in the cognitivist perspective are those of information processing, knowledge types and knowledge representation, and human memory (McGill, 1998). According to this perspective, humans are information processors, much like a computer. Information, in the form of symbols or symbolic representations, enters the system (input) and activates particular cognitive processes resulting in physical or mental actions (output). Myles (2011) explains that cognitivists distinguish between two major types of knowledge, *declarative* and *procedural*. Declarative knowledge is the knowledge about the world and its properties and procedural knowledge is the one about how to do things. This perspective also refers to *metacognition* defined as the knowledge about one's own knowledge, skills and abilities (Pintrich, 2003). Cognitive scientists identify two types of memory storages: one referred to as *working memory* (WM) and another called *long term memory* (LTM). Information enters the WM from the external world through the senses, and through activation and access of related information in the LTM. Whereas the information stored in the WM moves rather quickly, the LTM contains information indefinitely that can be retrieved at any given time. Finally, learning occurs when information is transferred from the WM to the LTM through a process of *elaboration*, connecting the new information with the one already stored in the LTM (schema) (McGill, *op. cit.*).

2.3.2.2 Theory of language (L1) acquisition

Piaget (1954) explained that language acquisition is both a mental and an emotional process and linked the development of language to a child's cognitive development. He postulated that a child was required to understand a concept first before she/he would be able to verbalise it and ascertained that language was a way of reflecting a child's thought process; however, he indicated that language did not contribute to the development of thinking.

Chomsky (1966) claimed that 'language is not a habit structure' (p.153), arguing that Behaviourism cannot possibly serve as a model of how people learn language since much of human language use is not imitated behaviour, but rather is created anew from underlying knowledge and repetition, and generated from the learner's underlying competence (Richards & Rodgers 2010). This view is commonly referred to as the *innatist* perspective and is based on Chomsky's belief that all human languages are based on the same innate universal principles (Stern, 1991), a theory commonly known as Universal Grammar (UG) (Table 1). Mitchell &

Myles (2004, p.53) defines UG as the ‘underlying linguistic knowledge in the individuals’ minds’. Lightbown & Spada (2013) argue that children are biologically pre-programmed for language, a view held by Chomsky (1966), through a language acquisition device (LAD), and that language develops in the same way other biological functions develop. Chomsky (*ibid*) indicates that the effects of the environment, such as the availability of people who speak to the child is minor as the main contribution, is ‘the child’s biological endowment’ (Lightbown and Spada 2013, p.20).

In terms of language learning there is an important distinction to be made between explanations within cognitive theory and socio-constructivist theory. As Saville-Troike (2012) comments in relation to L2 learning, cognitive theory explains the learning of language as an individual and mentalist process (individual cognition), whilst socio-constructivist theory emphasises that knowledge not only lies within the individual, but also in the individual’s social and physical environment from where learning emerges (distributed cognition). This latter perspective is developed later in section 2.3.3.

2.3.2.3 Theory of language (L2) learning

A cognitive approach to second language learning abandons practices such as rote learning, drilling and memorisation. The mastery of grammar rules, on the contrary, is seen as a key component of language teaching and learning. Nunan (1991) states that ‘a few carefully chosen examples of rules in operation can be an important shortcut to learning’ (p.233). Because of the importance given to prior knowledge, new knowledge has to be linked to past learning experiences, and at the beginning of the lesson the teacher should try to establish a mental set to encourage learners to use prior knowledge as a preliminary stage for new learning to take place. Language learning is seen as an active, intelligent, rule-seeking, problem-solving process in which learners are encouraged to reflect upon and discuss the way the target language operates (Richards & Rodgers, 2010).

In planning and delivering cognitively-based language lessons, the presentation of new language items can be made either deductively or inductively. Nunan (*op. cit.*) explains that in inductive learning, a target item is embedded in a meaningful context. Learners are explicitly told the rule and then are given the opportunity to apply it to several examples. On the other hand, inductive learning involves the presentation of different examples and the learners are asked to work out the rule through a process of guided discovery. Contrary to the Behaviourist belief where errors are suppressed as bad habits, cognitivists believe that making mistakes is an important and integral part of the learning process. Errors in performance can also be seen

as an *interlanguage*, which has been defined as ‘a process of hypothesis making and testing carried out to make sense of language input and impose structure on it’ (Hedge 2000, p.11).

Within the framework of cognitive psychology, Krashen (1982), cited in Richards & Rodgers (2010, pp. 182-183), proposes five hypotheses of second language acquisition (SLA):

- ‘The acquisition/learning hypothesis: this claims that there are two distinct ways of developing competence in a second language. *Acquisition* is the ‘natural’ way, paralleling first language development in children. *Learning*, by contrast, refers to a process in which conscious rules about a language are developed and it results in explicit knowledge about the forms of a language, and the ability to verbalize this knowledge.
- The monitor hypothesis: explains that conscious learning can function as a monitor or editor that checks and repairs the output of the acquired system. This hypothesis claims that we can call upon learned knowledge to correct ourselves when we communicate.
- The natural order hypothesis: indicates that the acquisition of grammatical structures proceeds in a predictable order and that errors are signs of naturalistic developmental processes.
- The input hypothesis: people acquire language best by understanding input that is slightly beyond their current level of competence or (I+1), where ‘I’ stands for input. Clues based on situations and the context, extralinguistic information and knowledge of the world make comprehension possible. Another aspect of this hypothesis explains that the ability to speak fluently cannot be taught directly; rather, it ‘emerges’ independently in time, after the acquirer has built up linguistic competence by understanding input.
- The affective filter hypothesis: learners’ emotional states or attitudes are seen as an adjustable filter that passes, impedes, or blocks input necessary to acquisition. A low affective filter is desirable, since it impedes or blocks less of this necessary input. The attitudinal variables related to second language acquisition are motivation, self-confidence and anxiety. The affective filter hypothesis states that learners with a low affective filter seek and receive more input, interact with confidence and are more receptive to the input they receive’.

Finally, Haynes (2007, p.29-35) divided second language learning into five stages, which she calls pre-production, early production, speech emergence, intermediate fluency, and advanced fluency. The first stage is pre-production, also known as the silent period where learners build up their receptive skills (listening and reading) before they are ready to produce the target language.

2.3.2.4 Linguistic theory: Transformational Generative Grammar

Chomsky introduced two key concepts upon which a new linguistic theory emerged. These concepts are *language competence* and *language performance*. In *Syntactic Structures* (Chomsky, 1966) he defined language competence as an idealized capacity that is located as a psychological or mental property or function and which refers primarily to abstract grammatical knowledge. Performance, on the other hand, is defined as the production of actual utterances. Competence involves *knowing* the language whilst performance involves *doing* something with the language. This approach claims that language is rule-governed, which means it can be described in terms of a grammar, which is defined as a set of rules which performs two tasks: they separate grammatical from ungrammatical sentences and provide a description of each of the grammatical sentences, stating the pronunciation and meaning of each constituent element.

Transformational generative grammar, according to Chomsky (*ibid*), views a natural language as made up of an infinite set of sentences which are possible because of a combination of a finite set of rules. These limited set of rules *transform* basic patterns into any other possible sentence of the language. A speaker has to learn all these rules (competence) in order to produce grammatically correct sentences (performance).

2.3.2.5 Teaching implications

Various teaching approaches based on the principles of transformative generative grammar emerged in the 1970s and 1980s, but notably only four models were the most popular. These are the natural approach, total physical response, the silent way, presentation-practice-production, and strategy-based instructions. These approaches are discussed below.

The *Natural Approach* is a teaching method developed by Krashen & Terrell (1983) which sees communicative competence gradually progressing through three stages: aural comprehension, early speech production, and speech activities, all fostering *natural* language acquisition, much as a child would learn his/her native tongue. Richards & Rodgers (2010) and Larsen-Freeman & Anderson (2011) describe a typical language lesson following the natural approach, as follows: after an initial silent period, comprehension precedes production in speech, as this should be allowed to emerge in natural stages. Lowering of the affective filter by creating a stress-free environment is of paramount importance. The target language is used throughout the lesson and the teacher provides support for comprehension using pictures or realia. Errors, when they occur, are not corrected aloud. Pairing off students into small groups

to practise newly acquired structures becomes the major focus. Resources are widely used during the lesson, for example, picture files, slide presentations, word games, dialogues, contests and recreational activities provide situations with problem-solving tasks which might include the use of charts, maps, graphs, and advertisements, all to be performed on the spot in class. Now the classroom becomes more learner-centred with the teacher allowing for students to produce the language on their own. Formal sequencing of grammatical concepts is kept to a minimum.

The *Total Physical Response* (TPR) was developed by Asher (1977) and is based on the use of both language and body movement in a synchronized manner through action responses and use of the imperative (direct commands). Kinetic movement of the hands and arms is incorporated to replace rote memorization. This approach, according to Richards & Rodgers (*op. cit.*) can be used to lower the affective filter during the silent period where learners are only required to respond to the teacher's input.

The *Silent Way* was devised by Gattegno (1972) upon two main beliefs: one that learning is facilitated if the learners discover or create rather than remembers and repeats what is to be learned; and that learning is facilitated by accompanying (mediating) physical objects. The teacher remains silent whilst learners produce the target language when prompted using rods and colour-coded pronunciation charts.

The *Presentation, Practice and Production (PPP)* approach, according to Klapper (2007), attempts to link the transition from pre-communicative stage (characterised by structural and quasi-communicative activities) to the communicative stage (involving functional and social interaction). Shintani (2011, p. 93) indicates that PPP 'enables learners to progress from a declarative stage of knowledge to a procedural stage' and describes the three stages as follows:

- (1) presenting learners with explicit information about a target feature to establish declarative knowledge,
- (2) providing *practice* in the form of controlled production activities to develop *procedural knowledge*, and
- (3) engaging learners in free production activities by means of structure-based production tasks to enable them to automatize their declarative knowledge.

The *strategy-based instruction*, first introduced by Rubin (1975) is based upon the notion that, when individuals learn L2, they use L1 mental processes. A full discussion of this approach is provided in section 2.11.2 on page 50.

2.3.3 Interactionist-developmental perspective (socio-constructivist approach)

2.3.3.1 Background

According to Cook (2008) Behaviourism and Cognitivism have neglected the most important part of language: its social dimension. One of the most influential models since the early 1990s has been sociocultural theory which takes its starting point from Vygotsky's *Thought and Language* (1962). Cook (2008) explains that Vygotsky shared many of Piaget's ideas about how children learn and claims that there is a great deal of overlap between Piaget's cognitive constructivism and Vygotsky's social constructivism, with the latter putting more emphasis on the social context of learning. One key difference between the theoretical perspectives of both psychologists lies in the role of the teacher: whereas in Piaget's views the teacher plays a limited role, Vygotsky considers that the role of the teacher or other older, or more experienced children, is very important in supporting learning. Mitchell, Myles & Marsden (2013, p.222) indicate that 'culture gives the child the cognitive tools needed for development and that the type and quality of those tools determine, to a much greater extent than they do in Piaget's theory, the pattern of development'. According to Vygotsky (1978), cited in Mitchell *et al.* (*ibid*), these tools are provided by the cultural, historical and social contexts. Adults (parents and teachers) are channels for these tools, which also include language.

2.3.3.2 Theory of language (L1) acquisition

A socio-constructivist approach challenges the notion that L2 interaction can be viewed solely as a source of input to be analysed by internal learning mechanisms. Interaction itself becomes a central area as this is, in fact, what constitutes the learning process, which is ubiquitously social rather than individual in nature (Mitchell, Myles & Marsden, 2013). Although this approach is not new (Hatch, 1978), it has received particular attention from the 1990s onwards. Vygotsky (1987) identifies two concepts deemed necessary to facilitate the understanding of his views in relation to language: these are *mediation* and *meaning*. Minick (1987, p. 138) indicates that *mediation* refers to 'the process by which socially meaningful activities transform impulsive, unmediated, and natural behaviour into higher mental processes through the use of instruments or tools'. According to Eun & Lim (2009) in the process of development, for example, children's direct (unmediated) memory develops into mediated memory (remembering by means of language or other signs). *Meaning*, on the other hand, 'is to be understood in terms of the degree of generalization and objectivity, namely, meanings that allow social communication to become possible across contexts' (*ibid*, p. 16).

According to Eun & Lim (*ibid*) Vygotsky's developmental theory:

...emphasises mediation and meaning because the mechanism underlying development, including linguistic development, occurs through social interaction. Development is made possible and fostered by meaningful exchanges between people (...) In the initial stages of language acquisition, people first focus on the meaning of words and only later focus on the forms.

Mutual understanding of the meaning contained in the speech of interlocutors is what makes linguistic development possible. As can be seen from the above discussion, people develop through interactions with others conducted primarily by means of the linguistic system. Throughout this process, speakers internalise the forms of behaviour and language used between individuals:

This internalisation is guided by the process of linguistic mediation. In addition to the symbolic mediator (language), human mediators play significant roles because social interaction involving two or more people provides the basis for internalisation and consequently development (*ibid*, p. 17).

Minick (*op. cit.*) acknowledges that Vygotsky was particularly aware of the fact that, in speech, forms do not usually map directly into one meaning. Both lexically and grammatically, polysemy (multiple meanings) prevails. Because of this nature of the relationship between form and meaning, he emphasises the importance of pragmatic competence in language development. These views have been followed by others, such as Mitchell & Miles (2004) and Lantolf & Thorne (2006).

In order to understand language, first it is necessary to understand the social environment because this has a crucial role to play in terms of learning as this emerges from the interactions that the learner has with other individuals. Swain & Lapkin (1998, p.321) indicate that ‘the co-construction of linguistic knowledge in dialogue is language learning in progress’. Dialogic interactions contribute to and complement the individual’s internal development. The *law of cultural development* (Vygotsky, 1978) explains that the adult and child interact, and together construct new knowledge (*intermental stage*); only through following this stage is it considered possible for the child to internalise the new knowledge for reflection and understanding (*intramental stage*). In order to clarify the relationship between intermental and intramental processes, there is a metaphorical space referred to as *zone of proximal development (ZPD)* between the child’s level of current ability to solve a particular problem and the potential ability, which can be achieved with the careful assistance of someone else, usually a more knowledgeable expert. This special assistance is known as ‘scaffolding’—a term coined by Wood, Bruner & Ross (1976). The expert and novice engage in a problem-solving task, where

the expert intervenes to provide sufficient scaffolding in order to achieve the task and to encourage the novice to persevere with it. Learning and intellectual development are embedded in contextual and effective dialogue between the expert and the novice, which can accelerate individual learning processes (Pinter, 2011). Such processes take place in the *zone of intermental development*, a space for teacher and learner to use talk and joint activity (Mercer, 2000).

From a socio-cultural perspective, children's early language learning arises from processes of meaning-making in collaboration with other members of a given culture. Lantolf & Thorne (2006) argue that the view that best complements socio-cultural theory is that of an emergent system, in which people 'develop a repertoire of linguistic devices, to produce and interpret communicative intentions' (p.173).

Using the context of a socio-cultural approach Mitchell *et al* (2013, p.227), in relation to L2 learning, explain that:

...having internalised the symbolic tools of the first language system, the second language learner has further opportunities to create yet more tools and new ways of meaning, through collaborative L2 activity. Applications of the ZPD to second language learning assumes that new language knowledge is jointly constructed through collaborative activity, which may or may not involve formal instruction and metatalk. The new language is then appropriated and internalised by the learners, seen as active agents in their own development'.

The socio-cultural perspective relates to the view of language as a tool used to perform a variety of functions. These uses are dependent upon the speakers and their social status, the message being conveyed and interpreted in a particular social and cultural context.

2.3.3.3 Theory of language (L2) learning

Cameron (2001, p.19) argues that a socio-constructivist approach applied to second language learning considers how:

- Children actively try to construct meaning
- Children need space for language growth
- Language in use carries cues to meaning that may not be noticed and where support from a more experienced one can extend the range of knowledge and skills
- Development can be seen as internalising from social interaction
- Children's second language learning depends on what they experience.

Mitchell *et al* (2013) acknowledge that from a sociocultural perspective, having internalised the symbolic tools of L1, the L2 learner has further opportunities to create even more tools and new ways of meaning through collaborative L2 activity. The authors claim that applications of the ZPD to second language learning assume that new language knowledge is jointly constructed through collaborative activity, which may or may not involve formal instruction or *metatalk*. The new language is then appropriated and internalised by the learners who are seen as active agents in their own development.

Cook (2008) argues that social assistance in second language learning is interpreted through the concept of *scaffolding* whereby a child's language learning is scaffolded by the helpful adult who provides continual support to a child's internalisation of language. Bruner (1983) refers to this process as innate *Language Acquisition Support System* (LASS) in contrast to Chomsky's *Language Acquisition Device* (LAD). The practice of scaffolding in the context of second language learning includes grammar books, dictionaries and people at the same level as the learner, for example a fellow student (Cook 2008), who provides support to fill in the gaps, enabling learners to successfully complete a task.

As it will be discussed later, the *more knowledgeable one* (MKO) within a strategy-based approach can be the teacher, a fellow peer or any other source of information, such as an online engine application, helping learners to successfully achieve a communicative outcome. Daniels (2005) indicates that, historically, modern society has devolved to the teacher the role of the *more knowledgeable* with respect to the students they are responsible for teaching. However, he states that it is increasingly recognised that other students within a teacher/student community might also be more knowledgeable others. Freire (2006) argues for a more radical position that does not accept the teacher as the only source of knowledge, suggesting that learners break free from this influence and gather knowledge elsewhere. For example, Ohta (2000) reports the development of a learner of Japanese in a single classroom session through detailed grammatical correction and prompting from a fellow student. By the end of the session, the learner managed to reach a new developmental level whilst supporting her peer in learning. This study on interlanguage pragmatics in the ZPD was used as the basis for the current study where learners at the same level of linguistic competence and teaching experience would negotiate and use language strategies to increase L2 and professional knowledge for teaching. I argue based on the views presented above that within the context of professional learning of a trainee teacher, the development of professional content knowledge (PCK), as discussed by Shulman (1986), can incorporate the language acquisition support system (LASS) to develop

L2 knowledge and teaching confidence, a view also discussed by Barnett & Hodson (2001) but in relation to the teaching of science.

2.3.3.4 Linguistic theory: Systemic-Functional Linguistics

The perspectives underpinning the notion that language serves particular social functions gave rise to a new theory known as Systemic-Functional Linguistics. According to the International Systemic-Functional Linguistics Association (ISFLA) this theory is defined as:

A theory of language centred around the notion of language function. While SFL accounts for the syntactic structure of language, it places the function of language as central (what language does, and how it does it), in preference to more structural approaches, which place the elements of language and their combinations as central. SFL starts at social context, and looks at how language both acts upon, and is constrained by, this social context.

(Available at <http://www.isfla.org/Systemics/definition.html>, [accessed on 29 May 2013]).

Following Halliday's views (1985; 1994; 2002; 2004) on language from a functional perspective, this theory refers to the demands we make on language and the functions it has to serve within a particular socio-cultural context. These functions are culture-dependent, and language is considered in terms of its use. This means that the particular form adopted by the grammatical system of a language is closely related to the social and personal needs that language is required to serve; it is then necessary to look at both the system of language and its functions at the same time. Language serves for the expression of *content*; that is, the speaker's experience of the world, including their inner world of their own consciousness (*ideational function*). Essentially, language serves to establish and maintain social relations by means of the interaction between people (*interpersonal function*), and language has to provide for making links with itself and with features of the situation in which it is used (*textual function*), (Halliday, 2002).

Language can also be seen as a system for conveying meaning and performing tasks, rather than just a string of grammar rules. From this perspective, the emphasis in language learning should be placed on giving learners effective strategies for being able to function, perform and communicate in the target language. There is a focus on helping students to gain a large functional vocabulary using the same strategies that native speakers use. The goal is to get learners to become aware of, use, and eventually master meaning-filled, multi-word *chunks*, collocations and fixed utterances. This emphasis on helping students to gain a large functional

vocabulary using the same strategies adopted by native speakers is a major tenet of the task-based learning based on the lexical approach (Lewis, 1993).

As implied above, the aim of language teaching and learning is to achieve communicative competence. According to Hymes (1972) and Halliday (1985; 1994; 2002; 2004), being communicatively competent involves the following sub competences: (a) *grammatical*, which is the mastering of linguistic code, including vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, spelling and word formation; (b) *sociolinguistic*, referring to the use of the language according to the role of the speakers and the communicative situation; (c) *discourse*, meaning the ability to combine ideas to achieve cohesion in form and coherence in thought above the level of single sentence; and (d) *strategic*, which is the ability to use strategies, such as gestures or *talking around* an unknown word, with the aim of overcoming limitations in language knowledge (Hymes, 1972). Finally, according to Martin & Vaughn (2007), cultural competence refers to an ability to interact effectively with people of different cultures and it comprises four components: (1) awareness of one's own cultural worldview; (2) attitude towards cultural differences; (3) knowledge of different cultural practices and worldviews; and (4) cross-cultural skills developing the ability to understand and communicate effectively with people across cultures.

2.3.3.5 Teaching implications

Following Vygotsky's ideas about the role of language in learners' experiences, new models for teaching and learning languages based on the role of interaction, cooperation and negotiation emerged giving birth to different approaches which have been linked to the umbrella term of *communicative language teaching* (CLT), (Richards & Rodgers, 2010). However, two approaches, community language learning (CLL) and cooperative language learning (CoLL) seem to have been the most influential since the 1990s onwards (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011).

The *community language learning* model arises from the Rogerian approach to counselling (Roger, 1951) and the basic procedures are derived from the counsellor-client relationship. La Forge (1983, p.9) elaborates the theory known as *language as social process* which indicates that 'language is people, language is persons in contact, language is persons in response. Richards & Rodgers (*op. cit.*, p. 91) argue that:

CLL interactions are of two distinct and fundamental kinds: interactions between learners and interactions between learners and knowers. Interactions between learners are unpredictable in content but typically are said to involve exchanges of affect. Learner exchanges deepen in intimacy as the class becomes a community of learners.

Cooperative language learning, in turn, focuses on the development of communicative competence by encouraging learners to become engaged in conversations in socially structured situations. Johnson, Johnson & Holubec (1994, p.4) indicate that:

Cooperation is working together to accomplish shared goals. Within cooperative situations, individuals seek outcomes beneficial to themselves and all other group members. Cooperative learning is the instructional use of small groups through which students work together to maximise their own and each other's learning. It may be contrasted with competitive learning in which students work against each other to achieve an academic goal.

Richards & Rodgers (*op. cit.*, p.195) identify six main features of cooperative language learning as follows:

1. Increased frequency and variety of second language practice through different types of interaction.
2. Possibility for development or use of language in ways that support cognitive development and increased language skills.
3. Opportunities to integrate language with content-based instruction.
4. Opportunities to include a greater variety of curricular materials to stimulate language as well as concept learning.
5. Freedom for teachers to master new professional skills, particularly those emphasising communication.
6. Opportunities for students to act as resources for each other, thus assuming a more active role in their learning.
7. Constructivist learning theory holds that knowledge is socially constructed rather than received or discovered. Constructivist learners 'create meaning', 'learn by doing', and work collaboratively in mixed groups on common projects (Richard & Rodgers, 2010).

These two models are normally referred to as *interactional approaches* as both view language as a vehicle for human communication in which there is an interactional relationship between speakers/authors and listeners/readers that enables L2 to occur. Rigg (1991) acknowledges that these two models focus on a *whole language perspective*, which is a more accurate description, since L2 is used not only cognitively, but also as a tool allowing communication to take place.

2.4 The critical period hypothesis (CPH)

The consideration of the age factor in learning languages in the current study is necessary to inform the design of a teaching model to respond more effectively to the needs of both children

and adult learners. There has been a claim, as explained by Stern (1991), that the age factor plays a role in the learning of another language. It has been acknowledged by some authors, in particular Penfield & Roberts (1959) and Lennenberg (1967) that learning outcomes are better when an L2 is introduced at a young age, as opposed to when individuals are adults. This section provides an account of the views on age and L2 learning as traditionally explained by cognitive psychology and neurolinguistics and considers an alternative perspective based on factors related to the socio-cultural contexts where L2 learning takes place.

Mitchell *et al* (2013) indicate that Chomsky's views on language learning presuppose some kind of innate language faculty (called the language acquisition device), which is biologically triggered 'in order to explain why language in children just seems to grow in the same way as teeth develop and children start walking' (p.68). The biological foundations upon which language develop were first explained by Lennenberg (*op. cit.*). In his research, he outlined the characteristics which are typical of biologically triggered behaviours and acknowledged that language conforms to these (Mitchell *et al*, 2013). In turn, Aitchison (2008, p.71) discusses Lennenberg's criteria as a list of six features:

1. 'The [language] behaviour emerges before it is necessary.
2. Its appearance is not the result of conscious decision.
3. Its emergence is not triggered by external events (though the surrounding environment must be sufficiently 'rich' for it to develop adequately).
4. Direct teaching and intensive practice have relatively little effect.
5. There is a regular sequence of 'milestones' as the behaviour develops, and these can usually be correlated with age and other aspects of development.
6. There may be a 'critical period' for the acquisition of the [language] behaviour'.

The last item has given rise to a theory that claims that the development of linguistic skills is closely related to age. This theory proposes that learning is more effective, when the target language is presented at an early age as this allows children to perform better in the L2 (Stern, 1991).

The belief of a critical age for learning languages emerged in the 1950s when the Canadian neurophysiologist, Wilder Penfield, stated—partly on his personal conviction and partly on his scientific work—that the early years before puberty offered a biologically favourable stage for second-language learning, subsequently recommending that the early years of childhood should be used more intensively for language training (Stern, 1991). According to Pinter (2011, p. 50):

[Penfield & Roberts (1959)] proposed that L2 acquisition was most efficient before the age of nine, at which point the brain becomes stiff and rigid and loses its capacity for natural acquisition. Progressive lateralisation of cerebral functions and on-going myelination in the Broca area will eventually cause such stiffness.

This position is based upon the idea that, prior to puberty, the brain is still able to use those mechanisms that assisted first-language acquisition—a process referred to as *brain plasticity*; therefore, it is held that older learners will learn languages differently after this stage and, particularly for accent, the same levels of proficiency and accuracy achieved by younger learners cannot be achieved by older ones (Cameron, 2007). Gürsoy (2011) posits that, thus far, the arguments built upon Neurolinguistics seemed to have been the most popular ones to sustain the critical age hypothesis; however, for approximately twenty years, there has been an alternative explanation, which has been overlooked, seemingly because it seeks to explain the critical age from a socio-cultural perspective known as *the optimal distance model* (Brown, 1980), making academics feel uncomfortable because the explanation abandons findings from the realms of the cognitive science. Brown (*ibid*) argues that, if second-language acquisition (SLA) is occurring within the second-language culture, it might be possible to explain CPH by including socio-cultural factors. He claims that such factors, irrespective of the person's age, occur through acculturation. If second-language learning is happening in the second-language culture, it is very much related to culture learning. Brown (*ibid*) further claims that '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' (p. 158).

According to Brown (1980), there are four aspects of the optimal distance model:

1. Acculturation: there are four stages of the acculturation process that people face while assimilating in a new culture:
 - a. Period of excitement and euphoria: this stage is a result of the new environment.
 - b. Culture shock: this stage occurs when the person becomes aware of the cultural differences and sees those differences as a threat to his or herself and security. During this stage the person looks for people from his or her culture to rely on. The result of this stage may be the feelings of estrangement, frustration, homesickness ... etc.
 - c. Gradual recovery: in this stage the person solves some of his/her problems about the new culture, and he or she becomes more empathetic, and starts to appreciate the differences between his or her culture and the target language culture.

- d. Assimilation or adaptation: this is a result of near or full recovery. The person starts to build in self-confidence in the new culture.
2. Anomie: as a result of learning a second language and being exposed to, or living in, the second-language culture people may have feelings, such as social uncertainty or dissatisfaction.
3. Social distance: ‘Social distance refers to the cognitive and affective proximity of two cultures which come into contact with an individual’ (p. 158). Distance, here, represents the differences between the two cultures.
4. Perceived social distance: Each person perceives the same cultural environment differently. Their perception is through the ‘filters of their own world’ (Brown, 1980, p. 160); then, no matter how biased their opinion may be, they act upon their perception. Brown (*ibid*), cited in Gürsoy (*op. cit.*, p.758) claims that, the beginning of the third stage in the acculturation process, is the point when people gain skilful fluency in second language and he indicates that:

... adults’ failure in synchronising linguistic and cultural development may result with a failure in learning a second language in the second language culture. Since children do not have a culture bound view, they do not have perspective filters like adults do, and as a result they can pass through the acculturation process quickly, and consequently learn the language more quickly.

This is more commonly associated with the linguistic immersion type of language learning. Brown’s (1980) views support the perspective that young language learners produce language in a more relaxed and spontaneous manner than adult learners, mainly owing to the fact that, at an early age, language is used as a tool to get to know the surrounding world and to interact with others. There is a natural need for children to experiment with language and to become engaged in situations where linguistic production is natural, unique and unrehearsed (Halliday, 2005). When children realise that they can achieve specific outcomes when language is used in a particular way, they tend to create their own repertoire of linguistic skills (Lightbown & Spada, 2013) which, in time, will help them become fully communicative competent individuals. The communicative needs emerging from the interaction in a social context prompting second language learning were taken into consideration to design the teaching approach used in case study one (CS1) (see chapter four).

2.5 Current models for teaching and learning modern languages in English primary schools

Currently, there is not a prescriptive curriculum about early modern languages learning; however, although practice varies from school to school, and even from group to group in the same school, four modes of teaching modern languages, mostly emerging from the cognitivist tradition, have been identified. The description of these models, as provided below, follows the work of Driscoll & Frost (1999), Martin (2008), Mehisto, Marsh & Frigols (2008), Jones & McLahlan, (2009), Hood & Tobutt (2009), Coyle (2010), Pinter (2011), and Maynard (2012). These sources provide a theoretical account of the teaching practices in schools, as follows:

- (a) One of those models can be described as ‘incidental’, and aims to develop language awareness. The most typical example is the teacher calling out the class register and pupils responding in the target language. There are some schools that use this model to share and practise the home languages of the pupils in a class (Pinter, 2011).
- (b) Another model is referred to as ‘drip fed’, where the teacher presents some vocabulary in the target language, in the context of a thematic curriculum (Rowley & Cooper, 2009) where pupils study a topic in a cross-curricular context.
- (c) The third model is related to the discrete teaching of the target language, following a scheme of work where pupils are assessed either formally or informally (Hood & Tobutt, 2009). The form that this model of instruction follows is made up of three stages, usually known as Presentation, Practice and Production (PPP), discussed on page 16. Some schools only teach one modern language in Key Stage 2 (KS2), whereas others two or more; these normally depend on the links apparent with secondary schools.
- (d) The fourth model is known as ‘CLIL’ (content and language integrated learning), where a subject matter is taught through the medium of the target language. This model replicates the experience of immersion in the target language that pupils learning English as an additional language (EAL) undergo (Coyle, 2010). Although this method is gaining in popularity and is being actively promoted by the Council of Europe (Eurydice, 2010), there remains a limited number of schools with the expertise and capacity to facilitate its use (<http://www.factworld.info>, [accessed 12 December 2012]) because it requires teachers who are fully competent in the L2.

In these four models, the teacher, to a certain extent, plans lessons selecting vocabulary, grammatical structures and tasks to enable learners to commit the newly acquired linguistic knowledge to memory so that they can use it in situations simulating real-life communicative exchanges. Most of these models replicate the input-process-output sequence in order to gain

L2 competence with the exception of CLIL that represents an attempt to reproduce an immersion type of instruction, which in many respects, reflects the tenets of the *natural method* (Richards & Rodgers, 2010; Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011).

2.6 Early L2 teaching and learning in England

In England there have been several attempts to introduce modern languages into the primary curriculum with some success, but ultimately abandoned due to the lack of consistency in policy and changes in educational priorities (Stern, 1991; Driscoll & Frost, 1999; Martin 2008; Hood & Tobutt, 2009; McLachlan, 2009). This section explores the initiatives taken between 1964-2000, starting with the introduction of *French from Eight*, progressing to the first report on teaching and learning modern languages in 1974 and concluding with the implementation of the National Language Strategy (NLS). It will become evident that despite over thirty years of debate, the same core areas still mean that teaching modern languages in the primary school continues to attract controversy.

2.6.1 French from Eight (1960s – 1970s)

The only longitudinal study undertaken in England to assess the effectiveness of early L2 learning took place in a ten year period between 1964 and 1974, involving seventeen thousand children aged eight to eleven. This study was based on a pilot scheme known as *French from Eight* (Martin, 2008). The main aims of the study were:

- (i) ‘to investigate the long-term development of pupils’ attitudes towards foreign language learning;
 - (ii) to discover whether pupils’ levels of achievements in French are significantly related to their attitudes towards foreign language learning;
 - (iii) to examine the effect of pupil variables (such as sex, age, socio-economic status, perception of parental encouragement, employment expectations, previous learning history, contact with France, etc.);
 - (iv) to investigate whether teachers’ attitudes and expectations significantly affect the attitudes and achievement of their pupils;
 - (v) to investigate whether the early introduction of French has a significant effect on achievement in other areas of the primary school curriculum’.
- (Burstall *et al* 1974, p.13)

Penfield & Roberts (1959) claimed that L2 learning was more effective if introduced at a younger age. However, the findings of this study showed that the older children tended to learn French more efficiently than the younger ones, concluding that pupils taught French from the age of eight did not show any substantial gains in achievement when compared with those who had been taught French from the age of eleven. In fact, the findings went on to indicate that by the age of sixteen, the only area in which the pupils taught French from the age of eight consistently showed any superiority was in listening comprehension. Overall, Burstall *et al*'s (1974) study led them to conclude that whilst the eight year old pupils appeared to develop a positive attitude to the target language, it was not always reflected in achievement, although where pupils were successful, they maintained their favourable attitude towards speaking the language. This was not evident in those introduced to the language at the age of eleven.

Hoy (1977) had a more controversial position claiming that the study did not frame the conclusions on linguistic achievement, but the focus was on a profit and loss basis and that the results were used by the Government to justify the decision of discarding the idea of teaching modern languages in the primary phase of education. The author, cited in Hawkings (1996, p.162), argued that:

The researchers confined their conclusions to a 'profit and loss' account . . .without trying to answer the question 'What are the conditions for success for primary French?' To have done so would have switched the conclusion from the retrospective to the forward-looking, from the depressing factual statement to the more inspiring statement that future success was likely to result from the establishment of identifiable conditions.

There were, however, no apparent compelling reasons for the rejection of *French from Eight* and opinions remained divided. For instance, Driscoll argues that 'no substantial gain in later attainment at the secondary school could be demonstrated' (Driscoll and Frost 1999, p.35), whilst Hawkings (*op. cit.*) asserts that the pilot scheme quickly ran out of control organisationally and suffered from a massive shortage of suitably trained teachers, with no systematic, sustainable or time-appropriate training or development programme in place.

In a different interpretation, Jones & McLachlan (2009) indicate that the idea of 'profit and loss' can be linked to the notion of 'feasibility' (p.9) as in: is teaching modern languages in the primary school possible? To answer such a question required then, and continues to require, a consideration of the following issues:

- investment appropriate training both in ITE and for in-service teachers
- ability and/or willingness of the class teacher to teach modern languages

- headteachers' and teachers' attitudes and assumptions
- literacy and oracy
- pupil motivation and attitudes
- curriculum design and development
- availability of suitable materials
- integration of languages into the primary curriculum
- transition from a primary programme of languages into secondary education, particularly given the lack of parity in provision
- primary pedagogy and language teaching methodology
- choice of language.

2.6.2 Initiatives following the Burstall report (1980s – 1990s)

After the pilot scheme of *French from Eight*, there were other similar initiatives adopted at the level of local authorities during the 1980s and 1990s. The emergence of individual projects in different regions encouraged the Centre for Information in Language Teaching (CILT) to set up the National Centre for Early Language Learning (NACELL) in 2001, whose brief was to investigate existing best practice and share it with local authorities and primary schools. During this period, a regional network of Comenius Centres began to address the issues of primary languages, and different literature was published including pamphlets, schemes of work, and a KS2 Framework for Languages (DfES, 2005), all contributing to set the agenda for the teaching and learning of modern languages to young learners (Chan & East 2004, Hood & Tobutt, 2009, and British Study Centres, available at <http://www.british-study.com/teacher-training/comenius-funding.php> [accessed 10 November 2012]).

Following an increasing interest in languages in the primary school context, the Nuffield Languages Inquiry report *Languages: The Next Generation* (The Nuffield Foundation, 2000) made the claim for a more consistent provision of the subject across the primary school, highlighting the importance of creating linguistic capabilities, and considered them crucially important for a flourishing UK. The report acknowledged that, 'one way or another we must give our children a better start with languages and equip them to go on learning them through life' (*ibid*, p. 5). The main findings focused on two areas: (a) limitations and (b) opportunities. In relation to limitations, the report indicated that:

- There was a need to develop competency in other languages as English was not sufficient.

- The current provision of languages was inadequate.
- There was lack of a central language policy.
- There was an apathy and lack of motivation in secondary school pupils.
- Studying languages as a life-long skill and at higher education was not sufficiently promoted.
- There was a need to train more and better teachers.

As for opportunities, the conclusions of the report indicated that promoting languages in England was necessary in order to:

- Develop multilingual leaders and professionals
- Increase employment prospects.
- Promote positive attitudes towards other languages and cultures from a young age.

This report shows a clear acknowledgement of the factors that limits the development of linguistic skills in the UK, and which negatively impacts on efforts to develop a more multilingual society where the population can speak English and at least another language.

2.6.3 The National Language Strategy (2000 onwards)

The Nuffield Foundation report had many important implications for schools. It marked a very important step forward that culminated in 2002 when the Department for Education and Skills (DfES) produced a revealing document entitled *Languages for All: Languages for Life: A Strategy for England* (DfES, 2002), setting out an agenda for the teaching and learning of languages in England intended to span the next decade. This document acknowledged the importance of developing England's linguistic capabilities by stating that 'languages contribute to the cultural and linguistic richness of our society, to personal fulfilment, mutual understanding, commercial success and international trade and global citizenship' (DfES 2002, p. 4), mirroring the policies on plurilingualism and language learning as set out by the Council of Europe (COE, 1998).

Paradoxically, despite promoting languages as a life-long skill that needs to be encouraged and developed at different stages, the government, whilst extending the provision to KS2, decided that modern languages would be made an optional subject in KS4 following a dramatic drop in GCSE results. In 2003, England opted to remove the teaching of languages from the national curriculum, and leave it as optional for pupils after the age of fourteen. This political decision was seen as a covert way to improve schools' performance on league tables (Thompson, 2004). Removing modern languages from KS4 seems strange at a time of economic upheaval when it is clear that, in order to take advantage of new opportunities in business, the learning of

additional languages should be of paramount importance: for example, the learning of Mandarin Chinese at a time when China has become the biggest economic power house in the world (Coleman, 2009).

The discourse of the teaching of languages in England seems to continue to lack coherence, and although the situation has changed a little since the publication of the Nuffield Report in 2000, a more consistent approach to modern languages is needed in order to provide individuals with the same linguistic opportunities as those delivered in other European countries (Coleman, 2009).

Although the implementation of modern languages in the primary school aimed to make the subject a more popular area of study in response to *Languages for All: Languages for Life: A Strategy for England* (DfES, 2002), only those students choosing to study modern languages at KS4 and beyond, or those pursuing a vocational qualification had the opportunity to further their interest in languages. The implementation of the post sixteen vocational diplomas, which combined areas such as business and languages or tourism and hospitality and languages, was received with some slight optimism, as discussed by Gould & Riordan (2010).

On the other hand, Coleman (2009) argued that a qualification such as a diploma where a language was taught in conjunction with other disciplines emphasised the view that learning a modern language in its own right was less important.

In addition, the indifferent attitude of British people towards learning other languages has been the main theme in various reports and publications, such as that of the Nuffield inquiry (2002) cited above, Kelly & Jones (2003) and Levitt *et al.* (2009). Since 2000, the promotion of the learning of modern languages in England has been keenly focused on the KS3 Framework of Languages as the guiding document, and the pursuance of an interest in languages has been centred on individuals' desire to develop linguistic abilities further in a relatively isolated way, wherein educational paths are minimal (Gould & Riordan, *op. cit.*).

The above discussion seems to emphasise the position that the *utilitarian rationale* for modern languages, as stated by the National Language Strategy (discussed in the next section), may be viewed as limiting the reasons for learning languages, and there has been little or no attempt to consider a broader perspective associated with the development of personal- as well as business-related goals, as highlighted by Gould & Riordan (*op. cit.*). A number of arguments in favour of learning modern languages to the end of compulsory education seem to have been ignored. For example, it can be argued that the learning of modern languages presents individuals with opportunities for a far richer experience in arts, including literature, cinema, and history, and in the development of individual consciousness, awareness of other cultures,

and in the growth in ideas and imagination (Kelly & Jones, *op. cit.*). Additionally, the learning of modern languages also stretches the skills of the individual so that ideas can be shared and new cultures experienced, thus enabling self-actualisation, encouraging to develop whole individuals, as it was the spirit of the '*Languages for All; Languages for Life*' (2002).

2.6.4 Developments following the National Language Strategy

The optional character given to modern languages in Key Stage Four (KS4) was contrasted with an early start in learning languages in KS2. Since the introduction of the National Language Strategy, laid out in *Languages for All: languages for Life: A Strategy for England* (DfES, 2002), and the entitlement for schools to teach modern languages, significant efforts were made to develop the subject through the use of a variety of resources whilst developing a specialist workforce in the primary school sector. For example, the National Centre for Early Language Learning (NACELL) was created to provide experts and non-experts with professional support. This took the form of opportunities of continuing professional development, notably led by local authorities languages consultants who facilitated training. Also, a four-week teaching experience overseas for pre-service teachers was offered as part of specialised teacher training, the use of the Comenius Centres across the country and the publication of the KS2 Framework and schemes of work all became available. The vision statement and aims of the European Union Comenius Funding were as follows:

The Comenius programme focuses on the first phase of education, from pre-school and primary to secondary schools. It is relevant for all members of the education community: pupils, teachers, local authorities, parents' associations, non-government organisations, teacher training institutes, universities and all other educational staff. Part of the Lifelong Learning Programme, Comenius seeks to develop knowledge and understanding among young people and educational staff of the diversity of European cultures, languages and values. It helps young people acquire the basic life skills and competences necessary for their personal development, for future employment and for active citizenship' (Available at <http://www.british-study.com/teacher-training/comenius-funding.php> [accessed November 10, 2012])

In 2006 Lord Dearing had been commissioned to investigate further the status of languages in England with the results being made public in 2007. The report acknowledged the need for primary modern languages to become an entitlement for 2010 with the vision of making it a compulsory subject, which was accepted by the government in a White Paper in 2011.

However, the current Coalition government made the decision not to continue with this project for the time being—notably, until a review of the current primary curriculum is conducted; schools that have been developing their expertise in the area have been encouraged to continue to do so on their own initiative. However, because of the lack of clear guidance schools are following different teaching approaches in relation to the choice of languages and the teaching methods they follow. How successful this approach is remains doubtful, especially in light of the fact that the Comenius centres in England were closed and decommissioned in 2010. Local educational authorities developed training opportunities for in-service teachers, and whilst in some cases secondary school teachers were deployed into primary classrooms in their role of subject specialists, this model, from my experience, presented a number of weaknesses, mainly owing to the fact that primary schools, by the time the Coalition government took office, had already begun to develop their own specialist workforce, as indicated by Swarbrick (2011).

2.7 Teaching and learning modern languages in the primary school in Europe

Exploring the practice currently in place in continental Europe is necessary to understand how the early introduction of modern languages can contribute to the development of full individuals and learn from the experience of the countries which have included modern languages in their primary school curriculum. In order to review these practices, this section provides a brief account of the recommendations of the Council of Europe in relation to modern languages whilst focusing on the traditions of some European countries which have incorporated the teaching and learning of modern languages at a young age.

When acknowledging the right to quality language education, The Council of Europe (COE) has identified the reasons supporting its belief that it is important for the European population to be able to communicate in other languages aside from their own. These have been summarised as follows:

1. ‘to deal with the business of everyday life in another country, and to help foreigners staying in their own country to do so;
2. to exchange information and ideas with young people and adults who speak a different language and to communicate their thoughts and feelings to them;
3. to achieve a wider and deeper understanding of the way of life and forms of thought of other peoples and of their cultural heritage’ (COE 2008, p. 2).

The introduction of modern languages in primary schools appears to be an effective way of addressing the apathy towards languages, as children may benefit from an early exposure to other languages. With this in mind, many initial teacher education (ITE) providers across

Europe have been realising the need to incorporate a linguistic element within their courses to provide future teachers with tools that enable them to equip young children with the skills necessary to raise language awareness and thus broaden their communicative competences. The intention of the Council of Europe to promote the linguistic diversity prevalent on the continent reflects the central objectives of its multilingual policy, which aims to ‘raise awareness of the value and opportunities in the European Union’s linguistic diversity and to give all citizens real opportunities to learn to communicate in two languages plus their mother tongue’ (COE 2008, p.4).

The development of new linguistic competences for individuals of the twenty-first century is vital, not only for personal purposes, but also for the economic growth and interconnection and interdependence of communities (Driscoll & Frost, 1999); these include individuals who are literate in one or more language(s) and who can operate in a multilingual and a multi-ethnic society. In an attempt to achieve this purpose, the Council of Europe recommends its members to ‘ensure that, from the very start of schooling, or as early as possible, every pupil is made aware of Europe’s linguistic and cultural diversity’ (COE 1998, p.6) by:

- a. ‘adopting a learner-focused, action-oriented, competence-based approach;
- b. taking into consideration the social and cultural dimensions of language learning;
- c. considering and treating each language in the curriculum not in isolation but as part of a coherent plurilingual education; and
- d. taking into consideration, in their analysis, the specific needs of the different groups of learners and of the general needs of modern European societies’ (COE 2008, p. 3).

There has been much awareness of the growing need to equip all Europeans for the challenges of intensified international mobility and closer co-operation—not only in education, culture and science, but also in trade, commerce, and industry, and indeed in all walks of life (*ibid*). When planning educational reforms in the area of modern languages, especially those in ITE programmes, these factors should be taken into consideration. The resolution of the Council of Europe goes on to assert that ‘[it] is through realities like languages and a solid linguistic policy that social cohesion and competitiveness can be ensured’ (COE 1998, p.6). However, although languages and linguistic policies are a vital part of achieving the COE’s aims, they do not of themselves ensure social cohesion and competitiveness as this relies on a vast range of other social, political and economic factors. What is important, however, is that language learning should be seen as having a fully recognised value in itself as a process enabling members of a community to access a larger array of opportunities that may not been available to those who are monolinguals.

The current situation, as reported by Eurydice (2010), indicates that pupils have to learn a foreign language from primary education onwards in almost all countries in Europe (only Malta, Portugal, and Albania out of twenty seven countries, at the current time of the Eurostats release in 2010, did not offer any languages in their primary school curricula). Moreover, according to Eurydice (*ibid*), in several European countries, children have to study a foreign language in the first year of primary education, or even at pre-primary level, such as is the case in Belgium (German-speaking Community) and Spain. A key finding in regard to the current situation in Europe is that the percentage of pupils in primary education learning at least one foreign language has risen almost everywhere during recent years, as indicated by the European Commission (COE, 1998), which also indicates that the tendency to offer this provision at an even earlier stage is apparent in most education systems. For instance, in France and Spain learning another language is compulsory from the age of six. Table 2 illustrates the current landscape of learning another language in France, Germany and Spain and compares the provisions of these countries with the current situation in England.

Table 2 Early L2 learning in England, France, Germany and Spain (COE, 2008)

	England	France	Germany	Spain
3 – 5 EYFS	optional	optional	optional	optional
5 – 7 KS1	optional	compulsory from six	optional	compulsory from six
7 – 11 KS2	compulsory from [2014]*	compulsory	compulsory from eight	compulsory
11 – 14 KS3	one compulsory language; two languages sometimes offered	compulsory (including two languages where possible)	compulsory including two languages for the more academically able.	compulsory
14 – 16 KS4	Optional (gov. policy: 50–90% take up)	compulsory (including two languages where possible)	compulsory (including two languages where possible)	compulsory
16 – 19 KS5	Optional Rarely studied	compulsory to eighteen in any training/education	compulsory to eighteen in any training/education	optional but compulsory for academic study

This is an addition introduced to the original source which says '2010?' *

The creation of a school workforce that is aware of the multiplicity of situations affecting the teaching and learning of young people is of paramount importance. As such, the intention of the European Council has been expressed so as to equip the teaching body with skills and competences for its new roles 'by developing both high-quality initial teacher education and a coherent process of continuing professional development [by] keeping teachers up to date with the skills required in the knowledge based society' (COE, 2007, p. 4).

2.8 Students' attitudes towards learning modern languages in England

McLahlan (2009) suggests that in England not everyone perceives the teaching or learning of modern languages as important. This is echoed by Coleman (2009) who indicates that because of the ubiquitous role of English as a lingua franca along with the role of mass media in perpetuating an 'English-only attitude' (p.38), learning another language enjoys very little consideration. McLahlan's and Coleman's views were also reflected by the most recent OfSTED report *Modern Languages, Achievement and Challenge 2007–2010* (OfSTED, 2011). This document indicates that pupils in England do not feel positive about modern languages, and that although attitudes were encouraging, these were not so evident by the time pupils reached KS 4. This assertion is not supported by research across the rest of Europe; studies undertaken by Johnstone (2003) and Blondin *et al* (1997), for example, indicate that learners' motivation is not a major problem in pupils aged nine to eleven in Europe when learning English; however, children's motivation to learn another language in the UK does become a major problem, and a number of obstacles are recognised when fostering positive attitudes to language learning. An early L2 introduction, where children are encouraged to use the target language when they wish to do so might provide motivation necessary for modern languages to have a particular appeal to children.

Another problem facing the learning of modern languages in England is the stereotypical view that girls are better at languages, creating the perception that learning languages is gender-biased (Jones & Jones, 2002). The belief that modern languages is a *girls' subject* appears to be associated with the underperformance of male students vis-à-vis girls in public examinations, such as GCSEs (Davies, 2004; Evans, 2006; Coleman, Galaczi & Astruc, 2007; Macaro, 2008; Coleman, 2009; Jones, 2009; Tierney, 2011) with females performing more highly (Jones & Jones, 2002) as indicated in the table below.

Table 3 Statistical data on MFL GCSE results (www.education.gov.uk [accessed 12 September 2011])

Modern Foreign Languages Categories	Attempted GCSE			Achieved grades A*- C			Achieved grades A*- G		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
2008/2009	124.3	154.5	278.8	82.6	114.8	197.4	123.4	153.7	277.2
2009/2010 Decreased by	121.1 -3.2	151.7 -2.8	272.8 -6	82.1 -0.5	114.6 -0.2	196.7 -0.7	120.3 -3.1	151.0 -2.7	271.4 -5.8
2010/2011 Decreased by	110.2 -10.9	141.4 -10.3	251.6 -21.2	74.3 -7.8	108.5 -6.1	182.8 -13.9	109.3 -11	140.7 -10.3	250.0 -21.4

Further figures for 2012, as indicated by the Association of Language Learning (ALL, 2013), showed that the number of entries for GCSE in a modern language increased by two per cent in relation to 2010/2011, distributed in the following manner:

[Entries for] French have decreased by 0.5% and the rate of decline has slowed considerably when compared with the dramatic fall of 13.2% last year. Spanish has seen a 10% rise in entries this year and entries for other modern languages have risen by 13.7% since 2011. There were notable increases in Portuguese (19%), Arabic (18%), Polish (18%) and Chinese (17%). There is still concern over German which has declined by 5.5% this year despite polls released yesterday which showed that German is still the language most sought after by UK employers. Pupils performed well at GCSE with 26.3% of French, 25.7% of German, 32.1% of Spanish and 59.5% of Other Modern Languages entrants achieving an A or A* grade.

This information shows the decline in the intake of GCSE examinations in modern languages during the period 1998/2012 and also confirms the overall decline in students sitting a GCSE examination in another language as reported by the Language Trends report (Tinsley & Han, 2012); however, there is some slight optimism following the results obtained in 2012 which seems to indicate that the decline observed in previous years may now have stabilised as shown in the figure below:

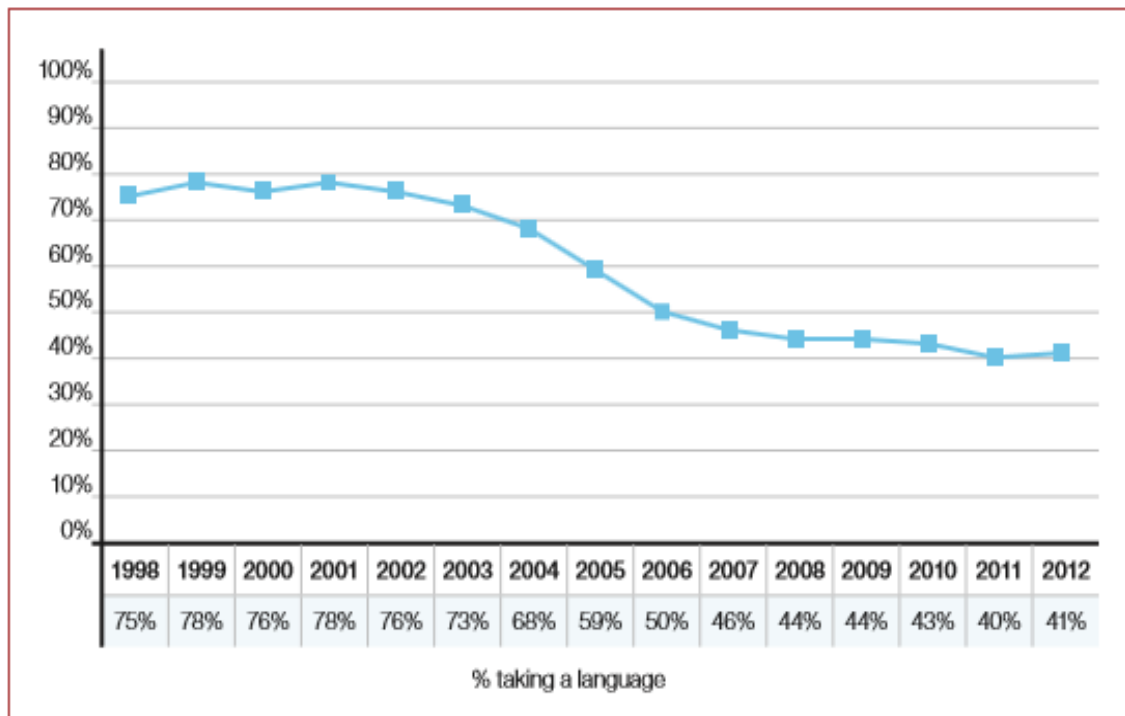


Figure 1 Language Trends Report (Tinsley & Han, 2012)

The information emerging from the Language Trends report (*ibid*) also indicates that girls perform better than boys in modern languages GCSE. This view is supported further by the results from a study carried out in Scotland by Tierney & Gallastegi (2011), which indicates that girls tend to have a more positive attitude towards learning another language, and that they are more motivated to do so than boys, with the latter group tending to feel more enthusiastic about science. The study involved a group of Year six (n = four hundred and sixty eight) and Year seven pupils (n = five hundred and six), and found that, in the Year six cohort, almost eighty two per cent of the girls showed a positive attitude towards learning another language, with twenty six per cent rating languages as their favourite subject; only fourteen percent of the boys rated languages as their favourite subject. The same trend is repeated in the Year seven cohort, with approximately sixty six per cent of the girls showing a positive attitude to

languages, with almost fifteen per cent indicating that languages was their favourite subject. However, only ten per cent of the boys rated languages as a favourite subject. This would appear to show a trend that develops towards the same poor attitudes and performance developing as the students move towards secondary level education.

The Scottish experience described above seems to reflect the outcomes of the survey of Heining-Boynton & Haitema (2007), a research study undertaken in the USA with the objective to determine the changing attitudes to foreign language learning in North Carolina. The study was based on two school districts, and drew the conclusion that girls scored higher than boys in every question, and that the attitudes of both groups changed over time, showing an equal decrease in interest. The study surmised that girls developed a stronger desire to continue their foreign language studies than boys, and also had a more positive attitude towards their linguistic development, with boys being mostly neutral. In a follow-up study at secondary school, the girls' group, comprising thirteen students, was re-assessed; the findings showed that nine considered that their primary languages learning experience had contributed to creating and sustaining a positive attitude to language learning. They also indicated that this experience had helped them to develop an appreciation for learning about other cultures, which was seen as an added benefit. Finally, the boys' group, made up of seven students, viewed early language learning as a valuable experience, but these individuals were not sufficiently interested to pursue the subject for the purpose of higher education or a career. The two studies would seem to indicate that in an English speaking setting there is a correlation between maturation and positive attitudes towards foreign languages in girls; however, for boys, this is not the case (Davies, 2004).

The difference in attitudes and performance between boys and girls, as outlined so far, seems to support the stereotypical view discussed earlier. However, this situation is apparently not reflected in other European countries, perhaps suggesting that the fact that English as a *lingua franca* negatively influences English speakers' attitudes towards other languages. Nevertheless, there are other variables, such as aptitude, motivation and anxiety (Dörnyei, 2010), that were not taken into consideration in the previous studies. Research undertaken twenty seven years ago in the UK by Powell & Batters (1985) acknowledges that there are various factors, such as intelligence, aptitude and memory, in addition to the influences of parental support, socioeconomic grouping, and teacher-pupil interactions, which may be related to the disparity of boys' and girls' performance and attitudes towards learning modern languages. This may be attributed to the perceived relevance of the subject in relation to future career prospects and the perceived difficulty in relation to other subjects. As for the first perception, the schemes of

work in modern languages did not appeal equally to boys and girls, and the content was considered childish and irrelevant, thus leading to disillusionment and demotivation (Powell, 1986). The participants indicated that the GCSE examinations in modern languages were more difficult than other subjects. However, they also identified that the top-set classes contained a higher proportion of girls, whereas the bottom-set groups contained a higher proportion of boys. The study of Powell & Batters (*ibid*) also identifies the fact that, because fewer boys studied a modern language to A Level standard and beyond, and also that the gender split amongst modern languages teaching staff is disproportionate, with relatively few male role models, the stereotypical view that modern languages is a *girl's subject* was reinforced. A large-scale survey of ten thousand students in English secondary schools was undertaken by Coleman (2009), which showed that initial enthusiasm for language learning declined at the age of eleven and consistently over the next two years, particularly amongst boys.

The fact that there is a gap in attitudes towards the learning of modern languages between boys and girls—which may well lead to a gap in their academic performance—is a consideration that could be explained by analysing the role of motivation and how this affects boys and girls respectively. Research (Gagnon, 1974; Gardner & Smythe, 1981; Powell & Littlewood, 1982) shows that girls do tend to have a more positive attitude towards modern languages, and that they are more highly motivated than boys (a conclusion also drawn by Burstall *et al*, 1974, and later confirmed by Harris & Murtagh, 1999). In a study carried out by Whyte (1985), boys were found to be most enthusiastic about the learning of science, which is in line with Tierney & Gallastegi's (2011) findings, whereas girls were more positively inclined towards the learning of French. These are some examples of a social narrative that identifies boys with the activity of *doing*, whereas girls are associated with the activity of *talk*, a conclusion that emerged from pupils' voice as part of a study undertaken by Coleman *et al.* (2007), who found that boys fear being seen engaging in modern languages as talking rather than doing as this was thought to be a behaviour associated with girls.

The issue of performance and attitudes towards language learning displayed by boys and girls in secondary school in two different English-speaking settings was revealing (Tierney & Gallastegi, 2011; Heining-Boyton & Haitema, 2007, Scotland and USA, respectively) as it helps shed light on the importance of pupils' beliefs in terms of sustaining motivation or, to the contrary, disliking languages. Also, by looking at these studies, it is possible to ascertain that the way of teaching languages should be gender-neutral as far as possible and should encourage pupils to use their own repertoire of cognitive skills from a very early start to help them becoming autonomous language learners so that they can develop their linguistic confidence

and competence as they move on to the secondary school. An early introduction to language learning in primary schools was recommended by Ofsted (2003) in an attempt to change pupils' negative views as they grow older.

It is important to note, however, that a detailed assessment of attitudes and performance has yet to be undertaken across primary schools in England. It should be taken into account, therefore, that if we are to encourage language learning in primary schools, there is a need to work from a base where motivation, attitudes and performance are positive amongst both boys and girls. The perception of the gendered nature of learning modern languages cannot be overlooked, and it is necessary to give learners the opportunity to experience language learning by exploiting their own interests and needs. The interventions used in case study one (CS1) and case study two (CS2), discussed in chapters four and five respectively, were informed by these considerations.

2.9 Children and adults learning another language

Differences between children and adults when learning another language have been extensively researched and the literature on this area is abundant albeit 'superficial' (Stern 1991, p.366) from a variety of psychological perspectives. In this section, I outline the main differences as reported by Thorndike *et al* (1928) who concentrated on levels of L2 proficiency, Ausubel (1964) who focused on children's and adults' psychological and maturational aspects and Bley-Vroman (1989) and Birdsong (1999) who discussed such differences from the perspective of Universal Grammar.

The pioneer study undertaken by Thorndike (1928) showed that although children were superior to adults in acquiring an acceptable accent in an L2, children made less rapid progress than adults when time was held constant for both age groups. However, adults acquired an L2 more readily than children. These results correlate with the findings of Burstall *et al* (1974).

Ausubel's (1964) study showed that children's individual capacities were less differentiated than adults' adults learning an L2. This was seen as an advantage for children as it encouraged them to take more risks whereas adults were generally more rigid in undertaking new learning. Children were also less likely to show strong emotional blocks, which Ausubel (*ibid*) attributed to fewer past frustrating experiences in academic work. However, because of their experiential knowledge of the mother tongue, adults were able to make more grammatical and lexical generalisations thus transferring the L1 knowledge into an L2, consequently accelerating learning.

Birdsong (1999), in turn, postulated the use-it-then-lose-it theory and maintained that the age-related decline in language learning ability is part of human maturation. Individuals enjoy facility in language acquisition during childhood, when linguistic development is most crucial. This asset then declines in order to free up neural resources for other operations. Bley-Vroman (1989) has been a key proponent of this position and his Fundamental Difference Hypothesis (FDH) posits that child language acquisition is guided by the principles and parameters of Universal Grammar (UG), whereas adults no longer have access to UG. The fundamental difference between child and adult language acquisition, then, is that children acquire language by first passively recognising the parametric values particular to the target language grammar, then setting the parameters accordingly in their internal grammatical representations (a domain-specific mechanism). Adults rely instead on general problem solving skills to consciously construe the grammatical structure of the L2 input (Stewart, 2003).

Stern (1991) acknowledges that more research is needed in order to gain a better understanding of how children and adults approach the learning of an L2 whilst identifying similarities and differences. He then puts forward some postulates in an attempt to summarise the findings of the research undertaken so far, as follows:

1. Language learning may occur at different maturity levels from the early years into adult life. No age or stage stands out as optimal or critical for all aspects of second language learning.
2. In some respects, all age levels face second language learning in similar ways; consequently adults and children are likely to have certain strategies in common and to go through similar stages of language learning. These stages have much in common with first language acquisition.
3. Language learning is not monolithic. There are age differences in the acquisition of different aspects of language (phonology, vocabulary, syntax, etc.).
4. In certain respects pre-school children, young school children, older child learners, adolescents, and adults differ psychologically in their approach to second language learning. What these differences in developmental stages are is at present not fully understood. But it appears that young children respond more readily and intuitively to language 'acquisition' in social and communicative situations, while older learners can learn languages more readily by means of cognitive and academic approaches.
5. Each stage of development may have certain advantages and certain disadvantages for second language learning. (Stern 1991, p.366-367).

2.10 Motivation and adult learning

For any teaching model to be effective it is essential to consider the issue of motivation. As Oxford (1990, p.140) notes, ‘the affective side of the learner is probably one of the biggest influences on language learning success or failure’. In order to design a teaching model that takes into consideration how adult learners approach learning, it is necessary to explore the relationships between life experiences and motivation for learning. Houde (2006) argues that the relationship between motivation and adult learning can be explained from the perspective of the *socio-emotional theory*. This theory focuses on individuals’ relationship with time, goals and emotions and highlights the impact of age on the choice between goals focused on knowledge and goals focused on regulating emotions. A key component of this theory is *relatedness*, which refers to the relationships with other people and the choices individuals make between different types of goals. The choice of which type of goal is mediated by an individual’s perspective on whether future time is constrained or expansive. For example, an individual in their adolescent years is likely to have an expansive future time perspective, while the same individual in their old age will have a more constrained future time perspective (Carstensen 1987, 1991). When explaining how adults approach learning and how motivation influences them, Knowles (1980) coined the term *andragogy* to refer to the process of engaging adults with the structure of a learning experience. He based this on his own experience and observations rather than logical postulates and empirical research. In Knowles (*ibid*) and Knowles, Holton & Swanson (1998) andragogy is summarised in six principles:

- Principle one: the learner needs to know. An adult, when learning on their own, spends a large amount of energy and time trying to understand the value of the new learning; either the benefit from learning or the consequence of not learning. They are self-motivated and self-directed. According to Knowles *et al* (1998, p.64) ‘adults need to know why they need to learn something before undertaking it’. The adult learner needs either to be told or, even better, to be led to discover why certain knowledge is worth learning. An adult learner will be brought from non-motivation (*amotivation*) to motivation when the benefit of learning something is connected to goals that they value. Making clear the connection between learning something and a goal is an ideal example of telling an adult why they need to know something.
- Principle two: self-concept of the learner. ‘Adults have a self-concept of being responsible for their own decisions, for their own lives’ (Knowles *et al* 1998, p. 65).

Following Houde (*op. cit.*), adults are more likely to pursue emotional regulating goals, while children are more likely to pursue knowledge related goals.

- Principle three: prior experience of the learner. ‘Adults bring life experiences and knowledge to learning experiences’ (Knowles *et al* 1998, p.66). This principle proposes that adults have more experience and more diverse experience than children. As a consequence, the learner’s experience is a valuable resource in the classroom. An adult derives their self-identity from their experiences, whereas a child’s identity tends to come from social connections, for example, family, school, or sports teams. Because of the integral nature of prior experience to the identity of the adult learner, when their ‘experiences are ignored or devalued, adults will perceive this as rejecting not only their experience, but rejecting themselves as persons’ (Knowles *et al* 1998, p. 67). A learner’s prior experience is likely to be full of memories of activities that fulfilled the competence need. These experiences will be in multiple domains, both relevant and not relevant to the classroom.
- Principle four: readiness to learn. Adults are living their lives while learning. The contexts of life-demands lead adults to prioritize different learnings at different points. At any given point in life, adults are ‘ready to learn those things they need to know and be able to do in order to cope effectively with their real-life situations’ (Knowles *et al* 1998, p. 67). An adult learner would like to feel that they are choosing to study a particular topic instead of being forced to study it. With this consideration, an adult learner is likely to be more motivated to learn if they choose the topic that is relevant to a current problem.
- Principle five: orientation to learning. Adult learners are life-, problem-, or task-centred in their approach to learning. In fact, they arguably build on each other: task-centred would be considered most effective if the task is relevant to an important problem, and problem-centred would be most motivating when that problem is a life issue, rather than a trivial matter. According to Knowles (1980, p.44), adult learners become ready to learn when ‘they experience a need to learn it in order to cope more satisfyingly with real-life tasks or problems’ and they generally prefer a problem solving orientation to learning as opposed to subject-centred learning. Adults learn best when information is presented in real-life contexts.
- Principle six: motivation to learn. Adults tend to be more motivated toward learning that helps them solve problems in their lives or results in internal gratifications. This

does not mean that external satisfactions have no relevance, but the internal need is the more compelling motivator (Knowles *et al*, 1998).

The views that adult learners have the potential to become self-motivated and self-directed informed the design of a teaching approach as discussed in section 4.5 on page 110. Andragogy, as used in such approach, emphasises student-centeredness and learners' capacity to participate in collaborative discourse as they are capable of individual agency and reflective thinking (Merizow, 1991, 2000; King & Wright, 2003; Merrian, 2004). Additionally, an important contribution of andragogy is related to the role of the teacher. Andragogy views the teacher as a facilitator of learning and a co-learner simultaneously who negotiates curricular activities. In practice this means that the learner sets the agenda and the teacher negotiates and facilitates learning.

2.11 A critique of the traditional view of motivation

An important critique of motivation is that it has been traditionally focused on learners' individual differences within the framework of intelligence and personality, as argued by Dörnyei (2010) and has tended to ignore the social context. These views include *L2 motivational self-system* (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009) where the learner is seen as an individual making decisions about how to act primarily with reference to an ideal self, in other words, the imagined person they would like to be. This perspective indicates that when this ideal self is a proficient L2 user, learners are more likely to invest the necessary effort to become so (Mitchell *et al*, 2013).

This position, however, seems less concerned with factors such as those emerging from the social context which I have taken into account in the current study. Lave & Wenger (1991) point out that motivation to learn stems from participation in culturally collaborative practices in which something useful is produced. According to Cook (2008) there are two versions of a model based on the social aspect: one is that L2 learning where learners interact with each other in a classroom or outside with learners interacting with one another. The second version indicates that L2 learning takes place within a society and has a function within that society. Gardner (1985; 2005) takes a different socio-cultural understanding of motivation. He explains that this consists of two main factors: attitudes to the learning situation and *integrativeness*. This latter component relates to an intricate set of situations referring to how the learner regards the culture reflected in the L2. Gardner (2007) explains that the educational setting and the cultural context within which the learners are placed trigger attitudes and integrativeness. In the same vein, Cook (2008, p.223) acknowledges that 'a society sets a particular story by L2

learning; it has stereotyped views of foreigners and of certain nationalities, and it sees the classroom in a particular way'. This means that one key factor is how the learners regard the target language speakers and how highly they value L2 learning in the classroom. This influences L2 teaching and learning as 'one way of predicting if students will be successful at L2 learning is to look not at the attitudes of the students themselves, but those of their parents or indeed the society at large' (*ibid*).

Gardner's socio-cultural model of motivation has many implications for teaching, which are summarised as follows:

The total situation in which the students are located plays a particular part in their learning. If the goals of teaching are incompatible with their perceptions of the world and the social milieu in which they are placed, teaching has little point. Teachers either have to fit their teaching to the roles of language teaching for that person or that society, or they have to attempt to reform the social preconceptions of their students. If they do not, the students will not succeed (Cook 2008, p.224).

In summary, studies of motivation have tended to be carried out with a focus on the individual rather than on the context. In the model I discuss in chapter four, I have used the considerations discussed in this section to design a teaching and learning approach based on the use of language learning strategies to promote the development of motivation from a socio-cultural perspective as discussed by Gardner (2005). In order to encourage an active engagement in the experience of learning languages, I considered three aspects when designing the intervention used in CS1 and CS2, namely: (a) *level of challenge* to ensure that tasks were neither too difficult nor too easy, (b) *affect* to instil a feeling of security to counteract feelings of stress and anxiety, and (c) *agency* to give the trainees the responsibility to manage their own learning allowing them to be involved in the decision-making process over the choice of what to learn and how.

2.12 Developing L2 subject knowledge for teaching through the use of language learning strategies

This section presents an overview of language learning strategies and a teaching approach based on their use, which I have reinterpreted in the light of the perspectives discussed earlier in this chapter and which led to the design of the two interventions tried out in CS1 and CS2. Language learning strategies have been defined as 'activities consciously chosen by learners for the purpose of regulating their own learning' (Griffiths, 2007, p. 2), 'techniques or devices a learner may use to acquire knowledge' (Rubin, 1975, p. 43), or 'specific actions, behaving as

former steps or techniques students employ to improve their progress in internalising, storing, retrieving, and using the L2' (Nyikos & Oxford, 1993, p. 17). Cohen (1984, p. 101) states that language learning strategies include 'how learners attend to language input, how learners arrive at spoken utterances, how readers process a text, how writers generate a text, and how vocabulary is learned initially and retrieved subsequently'; this process develops in tandem with that of language acquisition thus developing specific linguistic skills.

Grenfell & Harris's argument (2004) that L1 acquisition involves a natural biological processing, which is part of the innate language ability of the mind, is well-acknowledged in a strategy-based approach. However, the latter adds that language strategies in L2 involve a habit-forming practice, as it is basically considered a process of skill-acquisition. Following the observations of the different behaviours put into practice by a 'good language learner', Stern (1991), as cited by Rubin (1975), identifies ten strategies: planning, active, empathetic, formal, experimental, semantic, practice, communication, monitoring, and internalisation. Rubin (*ibid*) contextualises these ten strategies, and further adds that good language learners like to communicate with others (communication strategy), and are tolerant and outgoing with native speakers of the language they are learning (empathetic strategy). They plan according to a personal learning style (planning strategy) and practise willingly (practice strategy). They do have the technical know-how concerning language (formal strategy), and develop an increasingly separate mental system in which they are able to brainstorm ideas in the foreign language (into novelisation strategy), and also search for meaning (semantic strategy). At the same time, although they are methodical in approach, there is the willingness to be flexible and they constantly look to revise their linguistic understandings (experimental strategy).

Similarly, Oxford & Crookall (1989) complement the list of strategies identified by Stern (1991) and add even more to the list. These are classified as follows:

- Cognitive strategies: skills that involve the manipulation or transformation of the language in some direct way, such as through reasoning, analysis, note-taking, functional practice in naturalistic settings, and formal practice with structures and sounds.
- Memory strategy techniques specifically tailored to help the learner store new information in memory and retrieve it later.
- Compensation strategies: behaviours used to compensate for missing knowledge of some kind, such as inferencing (guessing) whilst listening or reading, or using synonyms or circumlocution whilst speaking or writing.

- Communication strategies: typically taken to mean only those compensation strategies used when speaking; however, communication occurs in the three other language skill areas (reading, listening, and writing) as well as in speaking, and so the popular term ‘communication strategies’ is a misnomer.
- Metacognitive strategies: behaviours used for centring, arranging, planning, and evaluating one’s learning. These ‘beyond-the-cognitive’ strategies are used to provide ‘executive control’ over the learning process.
- Affective strategies: techniques such as self-reinforcement and positive self-talk, which can go some way to helping learners to gain better control over their emotions, attitudes, and motivations related to language learning.
- Social strategies: actions involving other people in the language learning process. Examples are questioning and cooperating.

When learning another language (L2) in a formal setting, such as a classroom, learners can be made conscious of these *unconscious* cognitive processes used in L1 by reflecting on them. The move from one familiar language (L1) to an unfamiliar one (L2) can be enhanced further by using experiential knowledge or knowledge of the world to encourage language comprehension first and support L2 production at a later stage. This can be achieved by a process of verbalisation where learners explain what they are doing whilst using a strategy and how they have achieved a particular language outcome.

2.12.1. A historical overview of the research on language learning strategies

Oxford (2011) indicates that the focus on learning strategies developed as a result of a change in paradigm when the stimulus-response perspective was challenged by the emerging views of cognitive psychology. During the 1950s and 1960s, although strategy as a concept was not mentioned as such, Piaget (1954), when describing cognitive processes, identified certain behaviours, such as recognising logical relationships, classifying, ordering, analysing, problem-solving, which are similar to the cognitive strategies mentioned in the Oxford & Crookall taxonomy (1989). Other contributions came from Miller (1956), Miller, Galante & Pribam (1960), Mandler (1967) and Rothkopf (1970). Miller (1956) indicated that because of the limited nature of memory, it was necessary to chunk information by classifying and synthesising items, whilst Miller, Galante & Pribam (1960) acknowledged that planning was necessary to meet simple and complex goals, including learning. Mandler (1967) developed Miller’s information-chunking theory further by discussing organisational strategies for

memory, whilst Rothkopf (1970) analysed intentional learning-creating (mathemagenic) behaviours, such as querying a text.

A further influence came from Vygotsky's (1978) notion of *self-regulation*. He emphasized the importance of the learning context in asserting that learners internalise cognitive processes, such as analysing, synthesising, planning, monitoring and evaluating, through social mediation when interacting with more knowledgeable others or by mediation by a cultural tool such as language, books, and technologies until the processes become inner speech.

During the 1970s, Selinker (1972) proposed a distinction between language learning strategies and language use strategies, but other researchers, such as Rubin (1975), Naiman, Frohlich & Tedesco (1975) and Stern (1975), focused on the identification and description of the strategies used by a prototypical good language learner, typically corresponding to an extroverted and uninhibited individual who is not afraid of making mistakes.

In the late 1970s and early 1980s there were further developments with O'Neil (1978) and O'Neil & Spielberger (1979) emphasising the importance of cognitive strategies (for the development of information-processing and mental schemas), metacognitive strategies (for the executive control over the cognitive strategies) and affective strategies (for the management of emotions and motivation). Flavell (1979), elaborating on the metacognitive strategies, such as planning, monitoring and evaluation, referred to *metacognitive regulation*, which requires *metacognitive knowledge* (or knowledge of the self, the task and strategies) and defined metacognition as the combination of metacognitive regulation and metacognitive knowledge.

The research undertaken during the 1980s was largely based upon three areas: L2 learner autonomy, the good language learner, as opposed to less effective learners, and theory-building and testing (Oxford, 2011). Holec (1980) elaborated on the concepts of *autonomy* and *self-direction*, the former referring to the L2 learner's attitude of responsibility, whilst the latter was used to refer to the learning mode, situations or strategies in which the attitude was manifested. A major development in the understanding of the use of language learning strategies was facilitated by Holec who maintained that L2 learners, in self-study modes, can make major decisions about learning, from objectives through to evaluation. Bialystok (1981) found that the strategies which were pertaining to functional practice remained useful at all levels of L2 proficiency, whilst others required for formal practice (such as grammar-based ones) were less effective as learners advanced in their L2 knowledge. Reiss (1985) revisited the theme of the good language learner to find that less effective ones apply strategies randomly and desperately; however, they generally use as many strategies as the good language learners. Reiss (*ibid*) argued that a good language learner is neither extroverted nor mistake-uninhibited

as first proposed by Stern (1975). Anderson (1983) discussed a model of cognitive information-processing, identifying two general types of knowledge, which were referred to as ‘declarative’ (for facts, definitions and rules, stored in the memory as ‘nodes’) and ‘procedural’ (for automatised skills, stored in the memory as ‘if-then’ production systems).

During the 1990s and 2000, Cohen (1998) proposed a distinction between language use and language learning following Selinker’s (1972) views; however, he focused on learning strategy instruction and assessment, where teachers play a very important role in supporting learners become more aware, autonomous and proficient. Grenfell & Harris (1999) presented a multistage strategy model of instruction, highlighting the internalisation of strategies leading to their automatic use. McDonough (1999) argued that although the teaching of L2 learning strategies is not universally successful, success can be achieved when strategy instruction is embedded into regular teaching. Oxford (1999), drawing on a Vygotskyian perspective of learner self-regulation, discussed that overt strategy instruction is often necessary and presented quantitative findings on the relationships between L2 proficiency and assessed strategy use. Ryan & Deci (2002) focused on the relationships between self-determination (a concept related to self-regulation) and motivation, but they did not discuss the role of strategies in L2 learning.

During the decade of 2000, Hurd, Beaven & Ortega (2001) investigated autonomy-stimulating, strategy-rich courses linking learning strategies to task needs in an online environment. Rubin (2001) focused on the role of metacognitive learner self-management in distance learning and Schramm (2001) encouraged the development of new strategy phenomena, in particular those related to dissociated translation and compensatory elaboration.

2.12.2 Chamot’s strategy-based instruction (SBI) model

Chamot’s (2004) SBI model uses L1 strategies to support L2 learning and is made up of three major stages with the assumption that strategies can be taught. Before the lesson, during the preparation stage, the teacher decides: (a) which strategies to use based on the needs of the group; (b) the type of practice opportunities to give the students; and (c) follow-up activities to consolidate learning. The teacher considers the needs of the teaching group in relation to the complexity of the task and their current ability and, on this basis, decides on the strategies to teach. In the next stage, the teacher undertakes an initial presentation of the new strategy, or a combination of strategies, including a brief statement about why the strategy is important and how it is expected to assist students. Providing such information allows the learner to consider the new strategies in context. The teacher models the strategy using think-aloud protocols,

demonstrating the steps involved in approaching and completing the language task. Immediately after, the teacher moves to the practice stage. During this last stage, learners practise the new strategies in class, and are asked to reinforce learning through a piece of homework.

The SBI approach is based on the notion that comprehension is a pre-requisite for independent language production. According to Paribakht & Wesche (1993) this means that an initial period of *incubation* or *internalisation* where learners concentrate on understanding the meaning of oral and written texts is thought to help them ‘formulate a map of meaning and form in their minds and to internalise the associations between form and meaning’ (Swaffar 1986, p.9).

The SBI approach, which follows the premise of cognitive processes taking place in the mind, fails to consider the influence of the social context and the role of communication in language learning. In the following sections, I present and discuss the theoretical framework which I used to reinterpret the SBI model but from a socio-constructivist point of view.

2.12.3 A critique of the theoretical approach underpinning language learning strategies

McLahlan (2009) explains that language learning strategies, from a cognitive perspective, enable learners to process the input they receive allowing them to perform a task successfully. This explanation follows the claims of cognitive psychology, which sees language as a variable that can be manipulated in a classroom to foster effective acquisition (Eysenck, 2012).

As implied in the discussion above, cognitive theory views L2 learning as a conscious and reasoned thinking process which involves the deliberate use of learning strategies. These strategies are special ways of processing information with the aim of enhancing comprehension, learning or retention of information. According to Eysenck (*ibid*), cognitive theory considers that knowledge systems can be built and called on automatically. For this to happen, it is necessary for learners to focus on the aspects of the L2 they are trying to understand or produce. Proponents of the SBI approach acknowledge that it is through experience and practice that learners can use certain parts of their knowledge in an automatic way without them being aware of it.

The models of L2 teaching currently in place in England to teach young learners, discussed in section 2.5 on page 27 in this chapter, are mostly based on a cognitivist perspective with an emphasis on the teacher, or a facilitator, carefully selecting the language to be taught as well as the tasks to be performed, enabling learners to put the linguistic knowledge into use. According to Dakin (1973), a cognitive approach to L2 teaching and learning can be

summarised as developing an awareness of the rules of language. This means that learners' responses to language tasks are the result of insight and intentional patterning. Dakin (*ibid*) argues that insight can be directed to (a) the concepts behind language (traditional grammar) and (b) to language as an operation (sets of communicative functions).

The planning of learning an L2 incorporates a range of activities which are practised in new situations simulating real life. The cognitive approach views this practice as a way to facilitate assimilation of what has been learned or partly learned. At the same time, planning creates further situations for which existing language skills are inadequate and required to be modified or extended. This is seen as accommodation. The resulting product ensures the development of L2 awareness and a continuing supply of learning goals, developing learners' motivation.

This perspective also considers learning and the environment as variables that can be handled to obtain effective results. Zheng (2010) argues that the cognitivist paradigm relies on the manipulation of variables in order to understand the relationships between the context and the learning process. If we are to follow this view, then a scope of the multiple factors occurring with the learner and his/her environment would be overlooked. Also, if learning is the resultant of the input-process-output sequence taking place at the level of the mind then we could argue that learning becomes *mechanistic* and *deterministic*, as Cook (2008) explains and, ultimately, does not consider the cultural and social factors influencing individuals' behaviours. In the field of second language acquisition, Spolsky (1989), cited in Mitchell *et al* (2013, p.5), argues that the research in this field 'has historically been too preoccupied with the cognition of the individual learner, and sociocultural dimensions have been neglected'. McGilly (1996) maintains that the cognitive approach to L2 learning limits students' learning experience simply because they employ memory procedures in the classroom. The author claims that these skills are not enough and that learners need to be prepared for higher language learning skills evolving from the cognitive approach.

In fact, the traditional cognitive perspective for second language learning, according to Mitchell *et al* (*op. cit.*, p.186) 'pays no attention to learner identity or the learning group as a community, sociolinguistic and cultural dimensions of learners' language practices are not usually seen as relevant', with Gass & Mackey (2007) asserting that the sociocultural context is beyond the scope of a cognitive interpretation of second language acquisition and development. Acknowledging this limitation and, in order to produce a more accurate interpretation of L2 learning, Firth & Wagner (2007, p.807) claim that 'language is an essentially social phenomenon, and second language learning itself is a social accomplishment, which is situated in social interaction'.

Another criticism of the cognitive approach emerges from the relationships between learners with other peers within a learning context. A language strategy, according to the cognitive view as explained early, is only seen as a behaviour that can be manipulated first by a teacher and then by an archetypal good learner. The context of any learning situation is created intentionally by the teacher. If we are to follow this view, then learners' individual differences or indeed the relationships between them would be ignored. Greeno (1997) and Lave & Wenger (1991) acknowledge that learning is situationally grounded, indicating that '[it] is an integral part of generative social practice in the lived-in world' (p.35), pointing out that learning is distributed amongst learners. Lave & Wenger (*ibid*) also claim that it is not possible to separate learners from their learning environment and acknowledge that all learning activities, either individual or collective, entail a social context. This social context reflects the social practice of human beings.

A further criticism of the cognitive approach is the fragmentation of language to develop accuracy and proficiency. The cognitive perspective considers that competence in another language involves the mastery of discreet units of grammar (syntax, morphology and lexis) and holds that these units need to be carefully graded in such a way that simple linguistic structures lead to more complex ones following sets of rules (Hicks & Young, 1973; Lim, Reiser & Olina, 2009). This view presumes that complex cognitive skills can be learned if independent sub-skills are learned first in situations involving individual practices. This perspective, however, does not take into consideration the presence or the absence of a social need to use the L2. Cobb & Bowers (1999), Choi and Hannafin (1995) and Greeno (1997) emphasise the fact that everyday cognition involves authentic and collaborative environments and that learning should develop students' abilities to participate in valued social practices. In this sense, the development of learners' identities is more important than the mere collection of cognitive sub-skills.

In summary, a major weakness of the cognitive approach is the failure to acknowledge that language and learning entails a particular view of how language and social interaction are intertwined. The learning of an L2 has to take into consideration the view that:

Language production is not a memory exercise but that the process has a profound effect on the development of thinking as it is not possible to understand the nature of thinking, learning and development without taking account of the intrinsically social and communicative nature of human life' (OpenLearn available at <http://labspace.open.ac.uk/mod/oucontent/view.php?id=445539§ion=1.1> [accessed 28th May 2013]).

This shift in perspective from the cognitive realm to a social context offers new possibilities to study language learning as a social practice whilst considering learners as active participants in the construction of the learning. This is the theoretical stance which I used to re-interpret Chamot's (2004) strategy-based approach discussed in section 4.5 on page 110.

2.12.4 Overview of research on the nature of teacher-pupil and pupil-pupil interactions in primary schools in England

A wide range of research on the interactions that take place between teacher-pupil and pupil-pupil in primary classrooms indicates that these are mostly directed by the teacher (Tharp & Gallimore, 1988), and are ineffective (Smith *et al*, 2004) as most of the time pupils are passively listening to the teacher in whole-class sessions or working individually (Galton *et al*, 1999) whilst the majority of pupils and teachers have no preparation or training for group work (Blatchford *et al*, 2006). Research has also shown that even in cases where group work was used, interactions did not contribute to promote learning. For instance, the first large-scale study of primary classrooms in England (ORACLE – Galton *et al*, *op. cit.*) using systematic observation techniques showed that although children were seated in groups, there was little real collaboration in evidence. Wolfe & Alexander (2008) acknowledge that the dominant pattern of communication in primary classrooms consists mainly of teachers talking with little uptake of children's contributions and despite calls for teaching to become more *interactive*, research suggests that the *standards drive* in literacy and numeracy has been counter-productive with traditional patterns of communication reinforced rather than diffused (Moyles *et al*, 2003; Smith *et al*, 2004).

Alexander (2008) emphasises the need to create interactive opportunities in the classroom where dialogue is used as a tool for learning (Mercer, 2000). He goes on to say that in dialogic interactions, children are exposed to alternative perspectives and required to engage with another person's point of view in ways that challenge and deepen their own conceptual understandings. It is the element of 'dialectic', understood as logical and rational argument, which distinguishes dialogue from mainstream oral or 'interactive' teaching as currently understood by many teachers (Alexander, 2008, p.27).

The findings of Blatchford *et al*'s study (2006) in the context of social pedagogic research into grouping (SPRinG) showed that all group members were more likely to be involved in the learning tasks. Also, the amount of negative behaviours amongst pupils was considerably low

whilst pupil-pupil interactions in the groups were more productive and there was less need to help others. When pupils worked in groups, lessons tended to be more task than person focused. Blatchford et al (ibid) concluded that a programme like SPRinG encouraged more connectedness amongst pupils whilst increasing opportunities for pupils to learn one from the other as a direct result of the type of talk they used, which Wegerif (2008) calls *exploratory*. The revised strategy based approach for learning an L2, as discussed in section 4.5 on page 110, follows this interactive and dialogic rationale.

2.12.5 Exploratory talk and the role of learners' mother tongue

Talk as a form of collaboration, has been identified as a tool which facilitates learning and the views of Bruner (1966), Halliday (1993), Mercer (2000) and Alexander (2003) in the context of L1 are of particular relevance to this study.

Bruner (1966) observed that the individual development of young children is shaped by their dialogues with people around them. Halliday (1993, p.97) argues that 'when children learn language... they are learning the foundation of learning itself' and Alexander (*op. cit.*) explains that talk should be considered as a means of learning rather than an object of learning in its own right'. In the same vein, Mercer (2000, p.4) claims that 'language is not just a means by which individuals can formulate ideas and communicate them, it is also a means for people to think and learn together'.

These claims support the view that talk is a necessary tool for learning to take place. Mercer (*ibid*) identifies a particular type of talk, which he refers to as *exploratory talk*, as the one encouraging learning and defines it as:

[the type of talk] in which partners engage critically but constructively with each other's ideas. Relevant information is offered for joint consideration. Proposals may be challenged and counter-challenged, but if so reasons are given and alternatives are offered. Agreement is sought as a basis for joint progress. Knowledge is made publicly accountable and reasoning is visible in the talk, (p.98).

Wegerif (2008) distinguishes *exploratory talk* from other types of peer talk, such as *cumulative talk*, in which the speakers build positively but uncritically on what the others have said, and *disputational talk*, which is characterised by disagreement and individualised decision-making. Wegerif (*ibid*) goes on to acknowledge that *exploratory talk* can also be characterised as an orientation towards shared inquiry beyond a group or individual identity, and towards reaching understanding, for example, by exploring viewpoints in a group. This is what leads Mercer

(*ibid*) to use the term *interthinking* to refer to ‘the joint, coordinated intellectual activity which people regularly accomplish using language’ (p.98).

Research carried out by Wegerif, Mercer & Dawes (1999), Rojas-Drummond *et al* (2003), Mercer, Dawes, Wegerif & Sams (2004) and Mercer & Sams (2006) has shown that exploratory talk facilitated problem-solving, whilst also fostering achievement in mathematics and science.

Although there are some L2 teaching approaches, such as the communicative language teaching (CLT), the content and language integrated learning (CLIL) model and the task-based approach, which actively encourage learners to use the target language for the purpose of problem-solving, there seems to be a gap in research focusing on the productivity of exploratory talk in learning modern languages and how learners jointly construct meaning and understanding as Lewis (1993) indicates.

If exploratory talk is to be used when learning languages, then it is important to consider when and how –that is at which stage of learning- this is to be employed, as the experience of beginner learners with limited fluency may be different from that of most advanced learners, consequently limiting or increasing opportunities for talk. One feature of the approaches mentioned above is the exclusive use of the target language for all purposes of communication. Although this can be seen as a necessary requisite for learning by some L2 approaches, it is possible to argue based on the literature reviewed so far that learners need to use their L1 as a tool to scaffold their understanding of the target language as not using their mother tongue would not simulate real life. Prohibiting the use of L1 would not only act as a barrier for learning, but it would also contribute to disengagement and a natural loss of interest, in particular when the learning takes place in an environment where the L2 is not the native language of the community.

Research carried out by Anton and DiCamilla (1998) demonstrated that the use of L1 was a useful psychological tool in the early stages of second language learning, and that the use of L1 helped students psychologically in providing help to one other. This implies that the use of L1 for the purpose of L2 comprehension is necessary for learners to engage in *interthinking* and I concur with the principles of the community language teaching approach, as discussed in section 2.3.3.5 on page 22, where learners are encouraged to talk to each other spontaneously in L2, but with some mediation of their L1. As learners become more proficient in L2, they become less dependent on the use of the L1.

Taking this view from the community language teaching model, I have included an element of collaboration in L1 when designing a revised SBI approach in order to allow learners to provide

support to one another by becoming engaged in exploratory talk and use their existing linguistic knowledge in L1 to scaffold their comprehension of L2. I see this as a pre-requisite for L2 production to take place at a later stage in the learning continuum. Snowball (2005) claims that an effective technique for encouraging exploratory talk in L2 learning is the use of think-aloud protocols.

2.12.6 Think-aloud protocols and self-regulated learning

Think-aloud protocols (TAPs) have traditionally been used as a tool to retrieve information retrospectively. McCabe *et al* (2011) call this use *remember-know judgements*, as the learners explain their reasoning once a task has been completed. This technique, which is discussed in detail in section 3.8.4 on page 89 seeks to gather data about underlying thinking activities and processes.

Additionally, TAPs can also be used by learners to show task awareness, whilst continuously reporting whatever thoughts pass through their working memory as they complete a task. Snowball (*op. cit.*) acknowledges that this use of TAPs has been applied as a strategy for reading comprehension when readers, for instance, recognise and talk out loud the processes occurring in their minds, a use related to metacognition. Theories about metacognition and self-regulated learning stress the need for learners to adapt their learning strategies to the demands of a task in order to optimise their learning performance (Pintrich, 2003; Butler & Winnie, 1995; Boekaerts & Corno, 2005). Butler & Winnie (*op. cit.*) explain that attuning to task demands does not occur as a matter of course and, consequently, self-regulation seems to be necessary. According to Winnie & Hadwin (1998), self-regulated learning starts with some kind of task orientation and during the execution of the task, learners should keep the task demands in mind. Snowball (*op. cit.*) claims that think-alouds improve learners' comprehension in two instances: first, whilst learners themselves think aloud as they read their own text and secondly by modelling think-alouds when reading with other learners.

By using TAPs to trigger exploratory talk learners, working in pairs or in small groups, have an opportunity to develop a joint understanding developing shared cognition encouraging inquiry, as Moskowitz (2005, p.2) explains:

Social interaction is an essential part of human existence and we need to understand the characteristics and motives of those around us. The behaviour we observe creates a need to understand the behaviour, with each new event bringing a need to understand whatever changes that behaviour has produced... [this leads us to the question] *why* has the behaviour occurred?

2.13 Developing professional knowledge for teaching

This section explores the model of cognitive apprenticeship (CA) to develop professional knowledge for teaching and provides the theoretical foundation upon which the intervention in case study two (CS2) was designed.

2.13.1 Cognitive apprenticeship in teacher training

According to Evensen & Hmelo (2000) learning is a process of enculturation which results from the relationships between the socio-cultural setting and the activities that people carry out within that setting. They acknowledge that ‘learning is not an accumulation of information, but a transformation of the individual who is moving toward full membership in the professional community’ (p.127). A common approach of teacher training incorporating these views has been based on the acquisition of pedagogical knowledge and skills involving a mentor or an experienced teacher becoming a role model for trainees to follow (King 2004, Harrison & McKeon 2008, NCTE 2010, Stevens 2010). Wilkins (1996) claims that one problem with this model is *simplification*, arguing that the mentor-mentee relationship tends to develop the trainees’ skills only mirroring the models provided by the mentors without considering the social context as a legitimate source for professional learning.

Additionally, Brown, Collins and Duguid (1989) criticised the decontextualized learning resulting from separation between learning and doing in teacher training and argued that ‘activity and situations are integral to cognition and learning’ (p.301). Following this view, they proposed a model of CA arguing that this can provide ‘the authentic practice through activity and social interaction in a way similar to that evident-and evidently successful-in craft apprenticeship’ (*ibid*).

Within this perspective which acknowledges learning as a situated practice, a school is seen as a system structure where professional knowledge, conceived as a meaning-making product, cannot be separated from the context of its use or the situation where it takes place (Brown, Collins & Duguid, 1989). Wilson & Myers (1999, p.322), in turn, indicate that ‘situations shape individual cognition [as well as] individual thinking and action shape the situation. This reciprocal influence constitutes an alternative conception of systemic causality to the more commonly assumed restricted object causality’. This view emphasizes the relational nature of at least four elements enabling learning to take place namely, the individuals, the setting, practice and cultural artefacts. CA is rooted in the belief that learning is a social product that emerges in a community as a result of individual membership to a community and their participation (Lave & Wenger, 1991). Arnseth (2008) acknowledges that two key concepts in

Lave & Wenger's (*op. cit.*) theory are *community* and *participation*, and in relation to communities, explains that:

These [communities] are constituted by practitioners who are equipped with shared procedures for talking and acting. To learn therefore is to gradually become able to master these procedures through participation, and at the same time learn to master the semiotic and technological tools of the community (p.295).

In a teacher training model based on the notions of community and participation, CA becomes fundamental as it is seen as a means of coaching learners through authentic activities, tools and culture so that trainees can perform targeted tasks on their own effectively (Collins, Brown & Newman, 1989). *Apprenticeship* implies that learners acquire knowledge and skills from an expert, partly as a result of direct teaching (through instructional demonstration, practice and feedback) and partly by incidental observation of what the expert does. Collins, Brown & Newman (*ibid*, pp. 481-482) provide six stages in CA:

1. Modelling: an expert carries out a task so that the students can observe and build a conceptual model of the processes that are required to accomplish the task.
2. Coaching: consists of an expert observing a novice while they carry out a task and offering hints, feedback, modelling, reminders, and new tasks aimed at bringing their performance closer to the expert performance.
3. Scaffolding: refers to the support the expert provides to help the novice carry out a task taking the form of suggestion or help.
4. Articulation: includes any method of getting the novice to articulate their knowledge, reasoning, or problem-solving in a domain.
5. Reflection: enables novices to compare their own problem-solving processes with those of an expert, another novice, and ultimately, an internal cognitive model of expertise.
6. Exploration: involves pushing novices into a mode of problem-solving and their own. Exploration is the natural culmination of the fading of support.

Learning in a CA occurs through legitimate peripheral participation, a process in which newcomers enter on the periphery of a community of practice whilst gradually moving toward full participation. This is characterised by:

An interactive process in which the apprentice engages by simultaneously performing in several roles –status subordinate, learning practitioner, sole responsible agent in minor parts of the performance, aspiring expert and so forth- each implying a different set of role relations and different interactive involvement (Hanks, 1991, cited in Lave & Wenger, 1991, p.18).

White, Frederiksen & Collins (2009) argued that sharing and collaboration are important activities to develop and sustain metacognition, whilst Garrison & Akyol (2013) acknowledged that ‘the activation and development of metacognition is dependent upon cognitively and motivationally engaged learners’ (p.84), and concluded that the regulation of cognition must consist of two distinct dimensions: self (individual) and co-regulation (shared cognition). These authors claimed that:

Metacognition enhances and refines the inquiry process in a collaborative constructivist learning environment. From the perspective of the community of inquiry (CoI) framework, metacognition is manifested at the convergence of the social, cognitive and teaching presences in proportions reflective of the nature of the task and the capabilities of the participants. Social presence creates a purposeful environment in which students can have a connection to what others are thinking. Through cognitive presence, students have an increased understanding and awareness of the inquiry process (i.e., metacognition) which, in turn, helps them improve their regulation of cognition by enabling them to select the appropriate learning strategies corresponding to the level of inquiry. Teaching presence [metacognitive awareness] encourages participants to become metacognitively aware and develop regulatory skills for self and other's learning throughout the inquiry process. At the intersections, metacognitive activities appear as students openly communicate to support each other's engagement in, and progression through, the inquiry process (*ibid*, p.85).

2.13.2 Learning in communities of practice

This section explores the concepts of community of practice, practice, learning, and a relationship amongst them. It also discusses the role of the teacher as a practitioner in a community of practice and explains the role of inquiry as part of professional practice. These views informed the design of the current study and the intervention employed in case study two (CS2) where the workplace learning was seen as part of the curriculum for the development of teaching expertise.

2.13.2.1 Communities of practice

As a social learning theory, communities of practice frame learning as occurring in the context of lived experiences of participation in the world. Learning in communities of practice occurs

through social engagement and collaborative working in an authentic practice environment (Wenger, 1999). A community of practice is made up of social sub-groups, such as the tailors and the butchers, mentioned by Lave & Wenger (1991), who are engaged in a common activity. Apprentices acquire the skills required in these activities by engaging in the practices together with expert members rather than being explicitly taught. Lave & Wenger (*ibid*) indicate that learning to participate in the activity is not ‘merely a condition for membership, but is itself an evolving form of membership’ (p. 53). Such authors use the term *situated learning*, which takes place under conditions of legitimate peripheral participation referring to the multiple and varied ways in which a learner or an apprentice can be located authentically in a social practice. Lave & Wegner (*ibid*) explain that legitimate peripheral participation is not ‘a pedagogical strategy or teaching technique’, but is ‘an analytical viewpoint on learning, a way of understanding learning (p. 40). In the perspective of communities of practice, learning is seen as a situated activity and as ‘an integral and inseparable aspect of social practice’ (p.30). Learning, from a social perspective, in particular learning in communities of practice, occur through ‘social engagement and collaborative working in an authentic practice environment’ as mentioned by Andrew *et al.* (2009), cited in Berry (2011, p. 608).

2.13.2.2 *What is practice?*

Arnseth (2008) argues that when considering *practice* we are ‘stepping away from taking social structure or individual cognition as the primary constituents of the orderliness of educational phenomena’ (p.289) and citing Cole (1996), Lave (1988) and Säljö (2000), he asserts that ‘social practices are and should be the primary objects of inquiry’ (*ibid*). Arnseth goes on to discuss that a distinction should be made between *practices* in the plural, understood as patterned sequences of actions and activities, and *practice* ‘as the work of cultural extension and transformation in time’ (p.290). Practice is then the context where learning takes place as explained by Lave & Wenger (1991, p.35) who acknowledge that ‘learning is not merely situated in practice... but [it] is an integral part of generative social practice in the lived-in world’.

Arnseth (2008) explains that the notion of practice underpinning Lave & Wegner’s theory emerges from the pragmatist theory of Mead (1934),and Dewey (1988) and from Berger & Luckmann’s (1966) and Schutz’s (1967) neo-phenomenological tradition which views *experience* as experience of meaningfully structured situations and not of an independently and objectively given world. According to Arnseth (2008), experience is conceived as a kind of problem solving posed by problem situations.

2.13.2.3 *What is learning?*

Practice involves learning how to problem solve in the *lived-in world*, this is, the world as it is experienced in social practice, which is relational and agency driven. Lave & Wenger (1991) argue that ‘learning as increasing participation in communities of practice concerns the whole person acting in the world (p.49) and ‘conceiving of learning in terms of participation focuses attention on ways in which it is an evolving, continuously renewed set of relations’ (p. 49-50). This means that an agent, the world and an activity are all integrated in practice regarding learning as ‘relations among people in activity in, with, and arising from the socially and culturally structured world’ (Lave & Wenger 1991, p.51). Arnseth (2008) concludes that ‘Lave & Wenger (1991) treat learning as changing participation in changing practice. According to them, practice is something which is developed and challenged in and through social relationships’ (p.294). This means then that practice is given a primary role in shaping and constituting knowledge and knowing with roles, identities, rules and social structures being realised in everyday activities.

2.13.2.4 *Learning, teaching and practice*

Jaworski (2006) indicates that over the years different explanations have been offered to analyse and explain the nature of knowledge and learning, especially by ‘big theories’ (p.188) but, she argues, these theories do not provide direct guidance for teaching practice. The author argues that theory fails to show what teaching should involve and that teachers can search for clearer understandings of what teaching might involve by learning about teaching with the intention to develop teaching. Following this idea, Jaworski (*ibid*) defines teaching as *learning-to-develop-learning* (p.191).

2.13.2.5 *The teacher as a practitioner*

Drawing on Lave & Wenger (1991), Jaworski (2006, p.189) explains that:

Like the novice tailor, being drawn into the (community of) practice of tailoring from a (legitimate) peripheral position, practising alongside old-stagers in the community, perfecting processes and skills, learning the trade, we might see the novice teacher being drawn similarly into the practice of teaching. Here we see teaching as a social practice in which teachers are practitioners. The process of legitimate peripheral participation is one of continuous development, not a sudden move from novice to experienced practitioner on the completion of a module or the passing of a test. The process of growth continues throughout practice.

By becoming engaged in practice, the practitioner develops his/her identity and Wenger (1999, p.215) views learning as a ‘process of becoming’; ‘learning as developing identity through participation in a community of practice’.

However, arguments against learning in communities of practice indicate that communities reduce learning and knowing to participation, privileging reflection and social interaction over cognitive learning, and minimise the importance of content learning (Yakhlef, 2004). Cognitive learning supporters argue that ‘the main actor in organisational learning is always the individual’ (*ibid*, p. 409). Berry (2011) explains that such critics of communities of practice argue that there is an overemphasis on community, to the detriment of practice. Additionally Roberts (2006), quoted in Berry (*ibid*) argues that learning in communities of practice does not recognize issues of power, trust, individualism, and competitiveness, all of which impact quality of provision and professional identity’.

2.13.2.6 *The teacher in a community of practice*

Wenger (1999) explains that a practitioner establishes ‘modes of belonging’ (p.174) by developing processes of engagement, imagination and alignment to facilitate negotiability. Jaworski (2006, p. 190) explains that ‘we engage with ideas through engagement in communicative practice, develop those ideas through exercising imagination and align ourselves with respect to a broad and rich picture of the world’. According to Wenger (1999) alignment is the process of coordinating activities and resources to fit within broader structures and achieve results, involving convergence, coordination, and jurisdiction. A practitioner aligns with a community of practice by finding common ground, defining visions, establishing procedures and structures, and exercising power to focus efforts.

Jaworski (*ibid*) indicates that inquiry is ‘a form of critical alignment in which it is possible for participants to align with aspects of practice while critically questioning roles and purposes as a part of their participation for ongoing regeneration of the practice’, facilitated by reflection. Alignment without any critical dimension (this is, without inquiry) prevents transformation and, on the contrary, promotes the perpetuation of undesirable states. The same author (*ibid*, p.191) claims that ‘critical alignment include teachers critiquing and trying to develop, improve or enhance the status quo, alongside enculturation into existing social norms’.

2.13.2.7 Teachers in a community of inquiry and action research

Teachers engaging in critical reflection become researchers of some aspects of their own teaching in an attempt to develop their practice. Jaworski (*ibid*) indicates that initiatives of teachers inquiring classroom processes and practices encouraged the development of the action research movement (Elliott, 1991; Stenhouse, 1984; McNiff, 2002) and she indicates that ‘action research formalizes inquiry approaches to understanding learning and teaching in classrooms’ (p. 199). According to Wells (1999), dialogic inquiry represents ‘a willingness to wonder, to ask questions, and to seek to understand by collaborating with others in the attempt to answer them’ (p.122) to ensure continuity in education. This author (*ibid*) also acknowledges that ‘this continuity is shown through the use of inquiry by students in classrooms, teachers responsible for their education, and those who are responsible for teachers’ initial preparation and continuing professional development’.

According to Jaworski (*op. cit.*, p.201) ‘in a community of inquiry, the novice practitioner is drawn into the community through processes of observation, action, questioning of actions, and inquiry into actions’ in a collaborative manner with an expert teacher. Inquiry is seen as a tool to promote critical alignment and in communities of inquiry all the members of the community engage with inquiry as a tool to develop meta-knowing, which the author (*ibid*) claims to be ‘a form of critical awareness that manifests itself in inquiry as a way of being’ which ‘becomes a norm of the community of practice’.

Jaworski (*ibid*, p. 204) argues that ‘in a community of inquiry, inquiry is more than the practice of a community of practice: teachers develop inquiry approaches to their practice and together use inquiry approaches to develop their practice’. These processes show a reflexive relationship between inquiry (research) and development (that is, learning and deeper knowledge). The author (*ibid*) also acknowledges that inquiry as a tool for transforming practice presents a shift from community of practice to community of inquiry, where reflective development of practice by practitioners, individually or in groups, can be seen to result in a developing community. This is facilitated by individuals (educators, teachers or students) looking critically at their own practices to modify these through their own learning-in-practice.

The above considerations were taken into account when designing the intervention used in CS2 (see chapter five) and used as a research framework for this study, which is further developed in the Methodology chapter. In CS2 a model of community of inquiry whose members included myself, mentors, trainees and pupils, was implemented where the prime focus was the learning of languages based on collaboration amongst the members where inquiry was prompted by reflection.

2.14 Summary

This chapter has presented the views on language acquisition and language learning from the perspective of three major theories of learning (Behaviourism, Cognitivism and Socio-constructivism) and explored the implications for teaching and learning another language following the tenets of Structuralism, Transformational Generative Grammar and Systemic-Functional Linguistics.

An account of the situation regarding modern languages in primary schools in England was provided, followed by a discussion of the role of age and motivation in language learning. In particular, I examined adult learning and referred to the principles of andragogy to shed light on the relationships between motivation and adult learning in an academic context.

I considered the principles of situated learning in communities of practice and cognitive apprenticeship (CA) to develop teaching skills. Finally, I presented a model based on language learning strategies within a socio-constructivist approach using CA to support the development of L2 subject knowledge situated in the context of a school placement.

The previous sections provided the background for the formulation of a revised SBI approach, which I summarise as follows:

1. L2 learning is a shared collaborative experience.
2. L2 learning within the model of CA is facilitated by collaboration and by inquiry which transforms learning.
3. Learners bring experiential knowledge (this is knowledge of the world and knowledge of their L1) to the learning experience thus making the learning experience relevant and motivating.
4. Learners engage in meaningful communicative tasks based on their own interests and needs and these increase engagement and motivation.
5. The use of learners' L1 knowledge scaffolds L2 learning.
6. L1 strategies can be transferred on to L2 facilitated by processes of negotiation and transaction.
7. Learners develop autonomy by focusing on learning outcomes and use shared cognition to determine future learning goals.
8. The participation of learners in a community prompts learning, which is social and situated. By reflecting on their practice through a process of inquiry learners develop meta-knowing (Jarowski, 2006).

These theoretical principles, which Richards & Rodgers (2010) call *approach*, were used to inform the *procedure* that I used as interventions in CS1 and CS2. These are presented and discussed in chapters four and five respectively.

CHAPTER THREE METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This project set out to investigate the following research questions:

Q1. Can language learning strategies that are used by generalist primary trainee teachers in L1 be used to develop their linguistic competences and skills in an L2, using collaborative learning?

Q2. Is there a relationship between anxiety and L2 learning?

Q3. Can a strategy-based approach to L2 learning be used during trainees' school experience?

Q4. Can a strategy-based approach to L2 learning be used to teach young learners?

In order to answer the above questions, I followed a reflective practitioner research approach that emerged as a result of the reflection on my own practice and experience. This approach is linked to Schön's (1987) views on reflection on action where a practitioner consciously considers the situation, reflects on this and experiments to reframe the problem in order to find a solution. The approach followed in this project comprised three case studies where the results of the first study (CS1) were used to inform and develop a second case study (CS2), with a third one (CS3) designed for the purpose of comparison and contrast of information.

In this chapter I discuss the theoretical background underpinning the case study approach with an understanding of the research design that I followed. I also discuss how practitioner inquiry was used to provide a methodological basis for this study, whilst referring to a dialectical approach which underpinned the analysis of information whilst encouraging reflection on my teaching.

This chapter also presents the techniques I employed to gather information, which included scheduled observations, semi-structured interviews, think-aloud protocols, focus groups, questionnaires, trainees' reflective journals and emergent critical features. Finally, this section also includes a discussion of the methodological limitations as well as an account of the ethical considerations that were observed and followed during the course of this study.

3.2 Case Study

I followed a case study approach as this enables a detailed examination of a situation in one or more settings (Burton, Brundrett & Jones, 2008). Freebody (2003, p. 81) explains:

...human behaviour, people's practices and experiences in particular educational contexts have been described as displaying uncertain, complex, messy and fleeting

properties... Case study methodologies stress that teachers are always teaching some subject matter, with some particular learners, in particular places and under conditions that significantly shape and temper teaching and learning practices. These conditions are not taken to be 'background' variables, but rather lived dimensions that are indigenous to each teaching-learning event.

However, what constitutes case study is contested. According to Savin-Baden & Major (2013), there is a lack of clarity in the literature about what a case study is as there is a lack of agreement amongst scholars working within different perspectives. Newby (2010) explains that the case study was, for a long time, subjected to heavy criticism as it was considered that results were descriptive and unable to provide insights to offer general explanations of individual or organisational behaviour. However, as a result of the reaction against scientism in social science, Newby (*ibid*) argues, there has been a revival in the use of case study resulting from a growing interest in the individual and the local.

Heigham & Croker (2009) consider that providing a definition for a case study is elusive and Flyvbjerg (2006), cited in Denzin & Lincoln (2011), acknowledges that this is so because 'case study is often looked at as a research method, rather than a research focus' (Heigham & Crocker 2009, p.68) thus making definitions rather inaccurate. Burton *et al* (2008) explain that case study can be seen as a process of defining the scope and scale of the research population as well as an approach to the research. However, Paltridge & Phatiki (2010, p. 66) argue that 'a case study more accurately refers to a research tradition or an approach in which the object of inquiry is unique ... in which the researcher's interest is in the particular rather than the general'. In the same vein, Burton *et al* (2008) state that a case study 'is a concentration on the specific rather than the general –a choice of depth over breath' (p.66). The purpose of a case study, in this view, is to undertake a detailed examination of one or more settings, a single subject or one particular event in action in 'its real life context' that belong to 'a bounded system' with a high degree of ecological validity (Cohen *et al* 2007, p. 138, p.170 & p.253). Burns (1997, p.364), cited in Kumar (2011, p. 126), explains that 'to qualify as a case study, it must be a bounded system, an entity in itself. A case study should focus on a bounded subject/unit that is either very representative or extremely atypical'.

Savin-Baden & Major (2013) make a distinction between *case* as the focus of research and *study* as a research approach. They explain that a case 'is a particular situation or instance that researchers will investigate' (p.152), but it can also be a 'unique form of qualitative research' that 'investigates a contemporary phenomenon (this is learning modern languages for teaching in this case) within its real-life context (in the PGCE course), especially when the boundaries

between phenomenology and context are not clear', Yin (1994, p.13), cited in Savin-Baden & Major (*op. cit.*, p.153).

Shulman (1996, p.207-208) outlines four central attributes of an educational *case* and explains that a case for study is available when there is:

- Intention: a plan, itinerary or purpose, however explicit or formal.
- Chance: an intention that is interrupted by a surprise, a glitch, something unexpected.
- Judgement: the exercise of judgement, when no simple answer is available in the face of the glitch.
- Reflection: examination of the consequences of action taken in the light of the judgement in a way that produces the basis for a new intention.

Cohen *et al* (2007) indicate that some of the advantages of case studies are, amongst others, the potential to explore situations beyond the scope of numerical analysis, a focus on real contexts determining causes and effects and the boundaries defined by temporal, geographical, organisational and institutional factors. Also case studies focus on the participants' roles and functions in the case where the researcher has little control over events. Additionally, Hitchcock & Hughes (1995), cited in Cohen *et al* (2007, p.253), indicate further advantages of a case study, namely:

- 'It is concerned with a rich and vivid description of events relevant to the case.
- It provides a chronological narrative of events relevant to the case.
- It blends a description of events with the analysis of them.
- It focuses on individual actors or groups of actors, and seeks to understand their perceptions of events.
- It highlights specific events that are relevant to the case.
- The researcher is integrally involved in the case.
- An attempt is made to portray the richness of the case in writing up the report'.

However, as with any other research methods, the constraints of case studies as summarised by Nisbet & Watt (1984) are related to generalizability of results, reliability and validity:

- The results may not be generalizable except where other readers/researchers see their applications.
- They are not easily open to cross-checking; hence they may be selective, biased, personal and subjective.
- They are prone to problems of observer bias, despite attempts made to address reflexivity.

Newby (2010) argues that one limitation of case studies has to do with their boundaries in the sense that ‘in the real world, one thing leads to another’ (p.54) and claims that the case studies which emphasise uniqueness are not helpful because ‘what is valuable about a case study is what can be transferred to other situations’ (*ibid*).

The case studies used in this project required a mixed method approach in order to elicit and analyse sufficient rich data to address the research questions. According to Punch (2009, p.288) ‘mixed methods research is empirical research that involves the collection and analysis of both qualitative and quantitative data’. In this type of research qualitative and quantitative methods and data are mixed, or combined in some way. Punch (*ibid*) also explains that a single study that combines qualitative and quantitative data is mixed methods, but this can also refer to several studies that combine both types of data as in the case of this research. The use of a mixed-method approach facilitates a deeper exploration of the research issue and increases the potential for data triangulation (Newby, 2010).

For the purpose of this project, I have followed the view of Nisbet & Watt (1984), cited in Cohen *et al* (2007, p.253), who consider case study to be ‘a specific instance that is frequently designed to illustrate a more general principle’, and as an *instance in action* by Adelman, Jenkins & Kemmis (1980, p. 122). My research project made use of three case studies, often referred to as multiple case studies (*op. cit.*), where the first was designed to test out elements of the proposed intervention; the second one was to implement and evaluate the intervention and the third was carried out for the purpose of comparison and contrast. As Newby (2010, p.54) comments multiple cases studies can be used for comparative purposes as a process in which ‘the characteristics of the cases are deliberately and knowingly varied in order to assess the significance of the differences’.

The plan emerged as a result of noticing trainee teachers feeling apprehensive about learning and teaching modern languages which led to the implementation of an intervention (*intention*), which I monitored to track changes in the trainees’ perceptions (*chance*). The analysis of outcomes of the intervention (*judgement*) informed subsequent stages (*reflection*) in the inquiry process (see chapters four and five). In order to address the limitations mentioned by Nisbet & Watt (1984), this study aimed to gain a better understanding of how trainees could learn and teach modern languages during their training in a specific context (this is a PGCE course within a particular institution), adopting a research-from-within perspective. Smyth & Holian (2008, p. 34) acknowledge that research from within:

Forces us to ground our work in everyday issues as those involved experience them, it confronts us and others with our assumptions, perceptions and their consequences, it

enables us to learn, reflect and act and it insists that we engage with what and who we are curious about.

I used within-method-triangulation facilitated by a mixed method approach, peer-debriefing and member checking to provide rigour (discussed in section 3.4 on page 73) and I followed a process of self-examination encouraged by the use of a dialectal approach as part of the inquiry to develop reflexivity.

3.3 Reflexivity and inquiry

Russell & Kelly (2002), cited in Litchman (2006, p.206), define reflexivity as ‘a process of self-examination primarily informed by the thoughts and actions of the researcher’. Lichtman (*ibid*) argues that the researcher acts as a filter through which data are collected and indicates that qualitative researchers involve themselves in every aspect of their work as it is through their eyes, that data are developed and interpreted and ideas are generated. Longhofer & Winchester (2012) define reflexivity as the individual’s response to an immediate context and making choices for further direction. Reflexivity is encouraged by a dialectical process, discussed in section 3.6 on page 77, whereby the researcher engages with the research context (including setting and participants) prompting internal deliberations that encourage researchers to question certain practices. In this report, as I have indicated in the Introduction, I used the first person singular ‘as a reflexive account that incorporates a critique of the research process’ (Somekh, 2011, p.6). Additionally, Longhofer & Winchester (2012), citing Nightingale & Cromby (1992), argue that:

Personal reflexivity requires attention to the meanings produced between researchers and their participants and ‘acknowledgement of the impossibility of remaining ‘outside of’ one’s subject matter... to explore the ways in which a researcher’s involvement with a particular study influences, acts upon and informs such research’ (p.228).

Throughout this research project I developed reflexivity in the form of reflection-on-action following Ghaye’s (2011) model which builds on Schön’s (1987) work in characterising reflection as being cyclical, flexible, focused and holistic. I used Ghaye’s four areas, namely: (a) context (partnership, institutional culture, empowerment), (b) values (self, others, action), (c) improvement (construction, interpretation, validation) and (d) practice (political, professional, personal) to focus my reflection whilst considering the impact that these areas had as the study unfolded and in the process of decision and meaning-making (Clayton, 2013). The relationships and tensions between, for example, such attitudes as “*here we do things in this way [sic]*” were used to interpret, interrogate and re-interpret my teaching practice through

the use of a dialectical approach to encourage inquiry and scrutiny and develop my ongoing self-awareness. Ghaye (*op. cit.*) argues that such an action is reflection-with-action which is used to weigh up the available options, contributing to make a decision to act in a particular way and then doing it either alone or with others.

Whilst undertaking the research I was confronted with various dilemmas emerging from my personal values, beliefs and professional practices. According to Berlak & Berlak (1981, p. 127):

The dilemmas are a language of acts, a means of representing the diverse and apparently contradictory patterns of schooling. Dilemmas do not represent static ideas waiting at bay in the mind, but an unceasing interaction of internal and external forces, a world of continuous transformations. Because they are capable of becoming aware of these internal and external forces that bear on their own *de facto* solutions, persons are capable of altering their own behavioural patterns and/or acting with others in efforts to alter the circumstances in which they act.

As these dilemmas occurred, I developed different responses and alternated roles during the research process. For instance, I became a facilitator of learning in my role of *the more knowledgeable other* when introducing the revised SBI approach. I also enacted the role of *a learner in a community of enquiry*, aligning my practice to the practices of the community by interrogating my teaching, formulating and testing micro-hypotheses and learning how to develop enquiry from more experienced colleagues. This process was made possible by creating an internal space where I was able to distance myself from the study and from the situations that arose as the research unfolded. Hunt & Sampson (2006, p.4) posit that reflexivity allows us ‘to switch back and forth fluidly [from ‘inside’ and ‘outside’ ourselves] and playfully from one position to the other, giving ourselves up to the experience of ‘self as other’, whilst also retaining a grounding in our familiar sense of self. The use of a personal diary, where I recorded my thoughts resulting from key dilemmas, some of which are discussed in more detail in section 3.9.2 (second limitation) and also referred to in section 8.4, 8.5 and 8.6, enabled me to experience the ‘self as other’ as I kept my familiar ‘sense of self’.

3.4 Triangulation

Traditionally, triangulation has been used in research to ensure validity and reliability and to remove bias. However, a qualitative approach acknowledges that ‘participants reflect their subjective views of their social world, and that researchers also bring their subjective influences

to the research process, particularly during data collection and interpretation', as explained by Hennik, Hutter & Bailey (2011, p.124). Merriam (2009) calls for a re-conceptualisation of validity and reliability and argues that credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability should be used instead of internal and external validity, reliability and objectivity, also discussed by Lincoln & Guba (1985). This is because of the nature of qualitative research, which is based on different subjective assumptions about reality and different worldviews. Paltridge & Phakiti (2010) refer to Denzin's (1997) term *legitimation* rather than validity. These authors acknowledge that 'from his critical post-structural perspective, Denzin sees the 'crisis of legitimation' in qualitative inquiry as one in which we can no longer rely on traditional scientific claims of authority and empirical credibility' (p.74). The purpose of triangulation, according to Casey & Murphy (2009, p.42), is to 'achieve completeness of data to enable a more holistic and contextual portrayal of phenomena, which may enrich understanding'. They quote Shih (1998) to explain that 'completeness of data is concerned primarily with gathering multiple perspectives from a variety of sources so that as complete a picture as possible of phenomena can be built and the varied dimensions revealed' (Casey & Murphy *op. cit.*, p.42).

I followed this perspective by applying methodological triangulation with data emerging from different sources. Bekhet & Zauszniewski (2012, p.40) claim that 'methodological triangulation has been found to be beneficial in providing confirmation of findings, more comprehensive data, increased validity and enhanced understanding of the studied phenomenon'. Along with the use of different research techniques, which Denzin (1989) calls *within method triangulation*, I also employed peer-debriefing and member-checking as suggested by Barusch, Gringeri & George (2011). I discussed my research plans and actions with a peer who was not part of this study and also engaged with participants seeking to confirm, clarify or develop thoughts to strengthen findings. This process promoted participation and the co-construction of meaning thus fostering 'the close collaboration between the researcher and the participants while enabling participants to tell their stories; participants are able to describe their views of reality, and this enables the researcher to better understand participants' actions' (Klein 2012, p.71). Finally, Altrichter *et al* (2011, p.147) identify three main benefits of applying a triangulation technique, as follows:

1. It gives a more detailed and balanced picture of a situation.
2. The contradictions that are often hidden in situations become visible, enabling a more profound interpretation.
3. It breaks the 'hierarchy of credibility', which limits our understanding, by giving equal

status to people from different ranks.

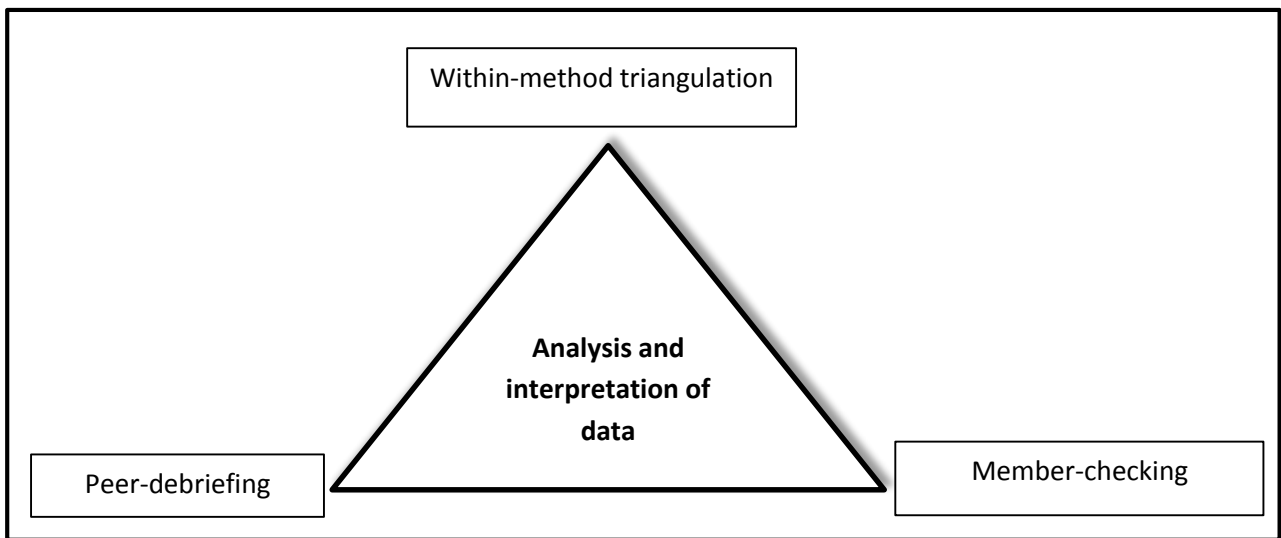


Figure 2 Triangulation techniques used in the study

3.5 Practitioner inquiry research

I carried out this study using the framework of a community of inquiry whose members consisted of University tutors, trainees, school mentors and pupils. Lave and Wenger (1991) argue that when developing membership of a community of practice, practitioners (this is myself as the researcher, the trainees and the mentors) align themselves with conditions or characteristics of practice. As they become aligned within a community, practitioners question the purposes and implications of the norms of a community in a critical manner.

Jaworski (2006, p. 190) explains that ‘through the exercise of imagination during engagement, alignment can be a critical process in which the individual questions the purposes and implications of aligning with norms of practice’ leading to a process of inquiry.

She also explains that the notion of *inquiry* becomes both a theoretical principle and a position useful to investigate teaching practice as this perspective views ‘teaching as a learning process’ (*ibid*, p. 191). Consequently, inquiry enables the regeneration of teaching practice, activating the process of legitimate peripheral participation and moving it forward. Jaworski (*ibid*, p.189) explains that ‘the process of legitimate peripheral participation is one of continuous development’; a process of growth that continues throughout practice. The theoretical perspectives underpinning this methodology have already been discussed in detail in section 2.13.2.7 on page 65 in the literature review.

In this thesis, case study one and two followed the principles of practitioner action research. This method can be defined as ‘a small-scale intervention in the functioning of the real world to address practitioners’ own issues, and a close examination of the effects of such an

intervention' (Cohen *et al.* 2007, p. 303), aiming at improving practice and coming to a better understanding of it (Altrichter *et al.*, 2011). Also, Menter *et al.* (2011, p.3) defines practitioner research as 'a systematic inquiry in an educational setting carried out by someone working in that setting, the outcomes of which are shared with other practitioners'. However, practitioner research, as explained by Menter & Murray (2011), may or may not be action research as this could adopt different models, such as a case study or an impact analysis where successive iterations are not pursued. Practitioner research aims to empower teachers to become agents of change in their own settings (McNiff, 2002). Although there are some opposing views in relation to the epistemological basis for practitioner research and action research, Menter & Murray (2011, p.7) acknowledge that '[action research and practitioner research] both share a concept, similar to reflective teaching of cyclical or spiral development, often going through several iterations'. Heigham & Crocker (2009, p.116) explain that:

Many teachers find action research an engaging way to refresh their teaching and extend themselves professionally. It is highly conceptualised within the personal daily workplace and provides a way to open up, question and investigate the realities of the teaching situation.

Altrichter *et al.* (2011) indicate that 'action research is characterised by a close interrelationship of action and reflection' (p.198) and contributes to the development of the teachers' social identity (Altrichter, 2005). Paltridge & Phakiti (2010) state that this type of research provides practitioners with an opportunity for self-reflection on their behaviours, actions and interactions with others; deliberate interventions to question and enhance current practices; adaptation of research processes and methods to address emerging issues, unpredictability and openness to change in research goals and questions as the knowledge of the social situation expands and deepens.

Practitioner research, according to Kumar (2011) is collaborative in nature, where participants holding differing views can contribute to the process of meaning making. In the three case studies I sought the collaboration of trainees, school mentors and pupils in schools who shared their experiences with me and co-participated in the research process by providing information and supporting the interpretation of data. Altrichter *et al.* (2011) indicate that all the participants in the situation being studied must be included in the process of research; however, Apple, Au & Gandin (2009) point out that the degree of collaboration in a practitioner action research can be questioned and this constitutes a potential limitation, which is discussed in section 8.4 on page 183.

One of the purposes of action research, as explained by McNiff (2002) and Newby (2010), is

the enhancement of professional development in an attempt to bridge theory and practice. This use of action research, according to Carr & Kemmis (1986), cited in Kumar (2011), corresponds to the British tradition which is different from the American tradition, where action research is considered as a systematic collection of data to provide a basis for social change (Bogdan & Biklen, 1992). Reflexivity and action research were used in combination in the current project because, as discussed by Somekh (2006), continually exploring the assumptions that underpin any research can change the shape of the research activity itself, leading to the formulation of new micro-theories, to be confirmed or rejected, as the study unfolds.

3.6 Dialectical approach

A dialectical approach where decision-making and information were probed underpinned the use of both inquiry practitioner to explore the thinking process and the interpretation of data. A dialectical approach to data analysis, as explained by Buss (1979), focuses on the possibilities for change that exist within a situation, involving the notion that the ‘*truth* is increasingly approximated through a clash of opinions’ (p.76). A dialectical approach means that:

Any object, person, a practice or a social situation is only understood by taking into account the sets of relationships which comprise it: the relationship between the elements of which the phenomenon is constituted and the context in which it exists (Winter 1989, p.46).

The processes of collection and analysis of information using a dialectical approach were undertaken following Winter’s model (1989), as described below:

1. Initial surface analysis: this included the gathering of views and perceptions that participants brought to the learning process.
2. Deeper analysis: the issues underpinning the initial surface analysis were interrogated and their implications were then identified.
3. Sympathetic analysis: the outcomes of the previous stage were confronted with participants’ views in order to check validity of my personal interpretations of their views.
4. Critique: a more detailed and analytical assessment was undertaken in a process of meaning making by categorising information.
5. Response: this stage included the design of an intervention informed by the outcomes of the previous stage.
6. Self-critique: included an interrogation of the processes used to arrive at particular interpretations of events and how effective my responses were.

7. Reply: this allowed me to make revisions, re-interpret events, compare and contrast information in order to provide a new response,
8. and so on.

The process of becoming engaged with data was two-fold: first, it facilitated discoveries by leading to an evidence-based understanding (Hennink, Hutter & Bailey, 2011) and secondly, it encouraged the design and use of action strategies. Action strategies are defined by Altrichter *et al* (2011, p.200) as ‘actions that are planned and put into practice in order to improve the situation or its context’. The reply stage in the model of dialectical approach provided an opportunity to design and implement action strategies. Altrichter *et al* (ibid) acknowledges that these strategies ‘are always relevant to the theory because the process of carrying them out throws light on the practical theory of the situation’ (p.201).

To summarise, the figure below shows the stages of practitioner action research that were used in this study in CS1 and CS2, as indicated by the darker segments, where the direction of actions is shown by the inner arrows. The outer cycle, in turn, represents the stages of the dialectical approach which were employed to interpret the resultant data from the inquiry research.

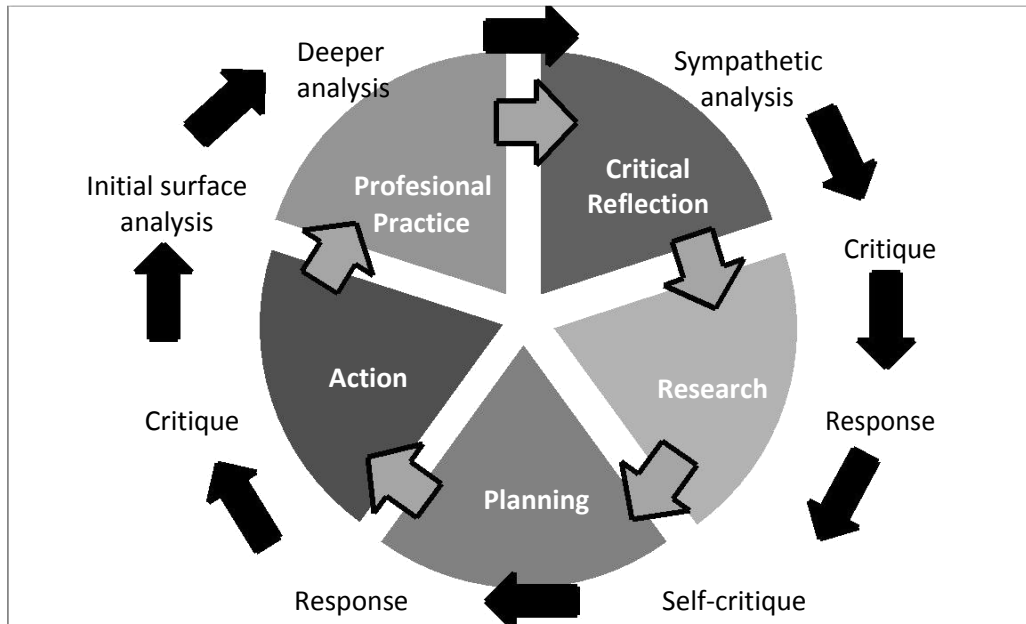


Figure 3 Dialectical approach and stages of practitioner inquiry

3.7 An overview of the case studies

My starting point for this research was my understanding from years of experience in initial teacher training that there was a problem with some trainees' apparent anxiety about learning modern languages that needed to be addressed. I therefore started the inquiry process by taking the following actions:

3.7.1 Formulating the research question

This stage drew on areas of my personal and professional experience, which I combined with some findings emerging from primary research to formulate a question in order to guide the research process. First, I considered my personal and professional backgrounds and how these informed my understanding of the problem. These areas were:

- i. My personal experience as a trilingual speaker, which provided me with the linguistic knowledge and experience to reflect upon the benefits of being knowledgeable in another language,
- ii. My experience as a secondary modern languages teacher, which gave me the necessary knowledge and understanding of pupils' attitudes towards learning foreign languages,
- iii. My role of teacher trainer which enabled me to model teaching practice sharing my professional knowledge with trainee teachers, especially in the area of modern languages.

Understanding my own background allowed me to focus my initial inquiry on two aspects which I explored further by undertaking an initial bibliographical research focused on:

- i. The profile of the 'adult learner' and the role of experiential knowledge in shaping individuals' life-long learning skills, and
- ii. The individuals' L1 existing linguistic competences and how these could be transferred on to an L2 to support learning.

From this bibliographical research I identified four areas that would assist me in the design of an intervention:

- i. The role of language learning strategies
- ii. A teaching approach based on the use of language strategies
- iii. A socio-constructivist approach to language learning
- iv. Language learning in communities of practice as a model for developing trainees' subject and professional knowledge in the context of a learning school.

The findings from the above stage were used to refine the research question. Taking into account the characteristics of the group of trainees as well as the setting for this study (the PGCE course) helped me formulate secondary questions in relation to:

- i. The identification of the reasons for trainees' perceived anxiety when learning an L2 leading to an exploration of possible causes.
- ii. How the learning setting/environment can support trainees in the development of L2 subject knowledge and teaching skills.
- iii. The use of a teaching approach based on language learning strategies to teach *ab-initio* adult and young language learners.

Following the results of the bibliographical research, I then designed an intervention based on the use of a strategy-based approach, including elements of cooperative learning to be implemented and tested out in CS1.

Below I offer an outline of each of the three case studies:

3.7.2 Case study one (CS1)

a) Analysis of the problem

A series of workshops on teaching modern languages to children was organised as part of a PGCE course induction. The sessions consisted of twelve hours of training which ran over a period of two weeks. I used an audit to explore trainees' views in order to understand their perceptions using a standardised questionnaire based on the Foreign Language Anxiety Class Scale (FLACS, Horwitz, Horwitz & Copas, 1986, discussed in section 3.8.1 on page 84). I also carried out interviews and gathered evidence from trainees' reflective journals which I then compared with the results of the questionnaire.

b) Design of the intervention

I designed an intervention to address the outcomes of the previous stage employing a revised model of an approach based on the use of language learning strategies to include an element of collaboration between learners and a focus on learners' interests, which I called a revised strategy-based approach.

c) Action

This required me to model the teaching approach by taking up the role of the more knowledgeable one with trainees working in a collaborative manner using talk partners and exploratory talk. Whilst teaching sessions, I gathered information by observing and recording

trainees' participation during the workshops, using their interactions and opinions to assess the impact of the intervention.

d) Analysis

The use of a revised strategy-based approach was successful in challenging trainees' views on L2 learning by addressing stress and anxiety issues and developing subject knowledge; however, the results obtained led to the identification of a new problem related to the type of support available to the trainees to continue to develop L2 knowledge and skills whilst in their school placement and whether the same approach would be useful to develop pupils' L2 skills within the classroom.

3.7.3 Case study two (CS2)

a) Context

This case study took place during trainees' school experience in Key Stage Two where they taught a modern language amongst other subjects, as part of the school placement one extending over a period of eight weeks.

b) Participants

There were three groups of participants in this study:

- (i) The trainees who had been trained in the use of the modified strategy-based approach.
- (ii) The mentors who were experienced generalist teachers.
- (iii) The pupils who were taught by the trainees and the mentors.

Details of these groups are offered in chapter four.

c) Analysis of the problem

The new problem prompted some bibliographical research on two areas:

- i. The role of situated learning and cognitive apprenticeship (CA) in teacher training.
- ii. The role of communities of practice in transforming learning.

I modified my initial intervention as a result of the bibliographical research and included CA to enable the mentors and the trainees to learn from one another in a reciprocal manner, including an element of collaboration.

d) Action

The trainees, following my guidance, modelled the use of language learning strategies for their mentors who, in turn, modelled effective teaching practice for the trainees to follow. The trainees taught the mentors how to use a strategy-based approach and the latter, incorporating the target language, taught the trainees how to embed the new knowledge in their teaching. Both the trainees and the mentors used each other's expertise to teach the pupils, both using a modified strategy-based approach.

I used observations of lessons where a modified strategy-based model was in the following sequence: (a) trainees teaching the mentors, (b) trainees teaching pupils, (c) mentors teaching pupils, (d) mentors teaching the trainees as well as focus groups with the trainees, the mentors and the pupils. I recorded interactions between the trainees, the mentors and the pupils, conducted interviews and focus groups and used entries in reflective journals to gather information. I also used a standardised language audit in order to determine the development of receptive (listening and reading) skills and productive (speaking and writing) skills.

e) Analysis

The results obtained for this study led to the identification of two further questions: (a) which model of training more effectively enabled the trainees to develop L2 subject knowledge and teaching skills simultaneously (either one based on collaboration between mentors and trainees or one led by the mentors) and (b) which approach was more suitable to be used with young learners: a revised strategy-based or a more conventional one known as presentation, practice and production (PPP)?

3.7.4 Case study three (CS3)

a) Context

This case study focused on trainees who had been trained in the use of a strategy-based approach during the course induction but who were coached by specialist modern languages mentors using the model known as presentation, practice and production (PPP) to teach L2 to pupils in the classroom. The focus of this study was placed on the development of trainees' L2 subject and teaching skills and on pupils' achievement.

b) Participants

There were two groups of participants in this study:

- (i) The trainees who, following the advice of their mentors, taught pupils.
- (ii) The pupils taught by the trainees.

Details of these groups are provided in chapter five.

c) Identification of a problem

The purpose of this case study was three-fold (a) to gather information to allow a comparison and contrast with a strategy-based approach, (b) to assess whether the model of CA created opportunities for the trainees to develop their L2 skills and teaching confidence during the school placement, (c) to determine which teaching approach was more suitable to develop pupils' L2 skills.

d) Action

Mentors, who were modern languages specialists, shared their expertise with trainees supporting them in planning and delivering lessons. The trainees applied the guidance and the teaching strategies modelled by the mentors who provided the trainees with feedback on their performance and guided them in the learning of the target language.

I used scheduled lesson observations, recorded classroom interactions between the trainees and their mentors and between the trainees and the pupils as well as focus groups, entries of reflective journals and standardised language audits.

e) Analysis

The findings of this case study were used for the purpose of comparison and contrast with the results obtained in case study two, focusing on advantages and disadvantages of using a strategy-based approach and PPP, whilst concentrating on the trainees' professional development and pupils' achievement. I used Winter's (1989) dialectical approach to analysing the outcomes.

3.8 Research techniques

3.8.1 Questionnaires

Menter *et al* (2011) argue that questionnaires are one of the most frequently used methods in educational research and are often used as part of a survey. Newby (2010) acknowledges that questionnaires are amongst the most popular of data gathering instruments and can be used to ‘gather information about people's factual knowledge, about what people understand, about people’s schemas or mental constructs, information arising from people's analysis of situations, information exploring implementation of ideas: capability and values in action and information about values and judgements’ (p.301-303). Also, Burton *et al* (2008) considers that questionnaires ‘can generate a lot of information very quickly and easily, can be structured to provide comparable information in an easily collatable form’ (p.74). Cohen *et al* (2007) indicate that there are several types of questionnaires ranging from highly structured, made up of closed questions, to unstructured questionnaires consisting of open-ended questions. Closed questions prescribe the range of responses from which the respondent might choose and they can generate results which can be used for statistical analysis. On the other hand, open-ended questions enable respondents to answer as much as they wish, and are particularly suitable for investigating complex issues, to which the simple answers cannot be provided. Questionnaires can take different formats including scales. According to Newby (2010) these are used to differentiate the strength and intensity of a person’s response. He indicates that ‘the concept of scale works because it draws on a set of common experiences, expectations and beliefs’ (p.315). Cohen *et al* (2007) links scales with the concept of analytical surveys explaining that:

The attractions of a survey lie in its appeal to generalizability or universality within given parameters, its ability to make statements which are supported by large data banks and its ability to establish the degree of confidence which can be placed in a set of findings (p.207).

In this study I used a standardised questionnaire known as Foreign Language Anxiety Class Survey (FLACS) designed by Horwitz, Horwitz & Copas (1986) to determine the levels of anxiety in the foreign language classroom (see Appendix VI). These authors (*ibid*) treated foreign language anxiety as a special phenomenon influencing performance in academic contexts. The FLACS consists of thirty three items and uses a five-point Likert scale (“strongly disagree” to “strongly agree” with a neutral category in the middle) related to three main types of causes of foreign language classroom anxiety: communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation. Possible scores on the FLACS range from thirty three to one

hundred and sixty five. The higher the score, the higher the level of foreign language anxiety experienced. The questionnaire was administered to the thirty trainees taking part in CS1 during the second workshop with a 100% return rate. The FLACS has been used by many researchers whom have reported on its validity and reliability, in particular studies undertaken by Price (1991), Sparks & Ganschow (1991), Aida (1994), Phillips (1992), Pérez-Paredes & Martinez-Sanchez (2000), Chen & Chang (2004).

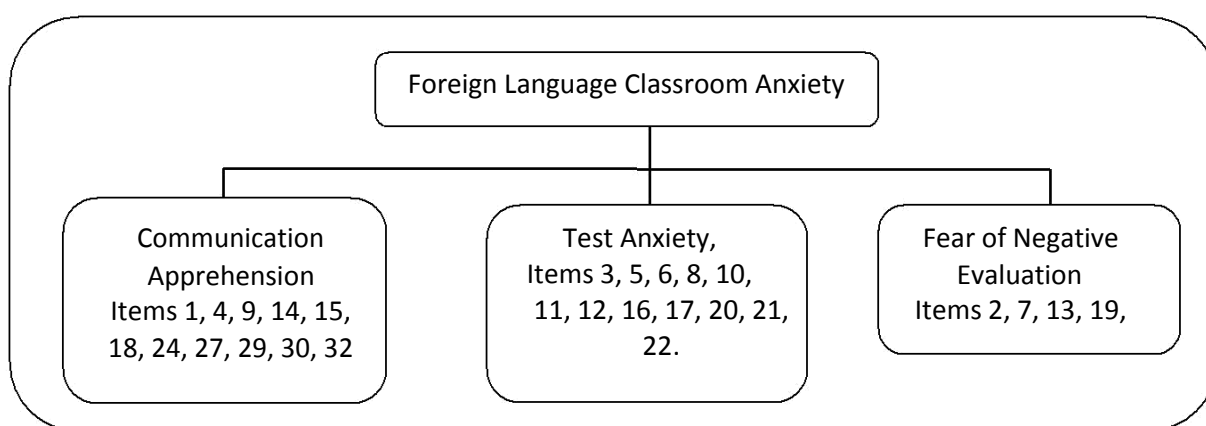


Figure 4 Structure of the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Survey (FLACS) (Horwitz, Hortwitz & Copas, 1986)

3.8.2 Language audit

This tool (Little, 2005; Mansilla & Riejas, 2007) is an instrument designed by the European Commission for Education and Culture based on the language levels of attainment of the Common European Reference Framework (CERF). The CERF was developed by the Council of Europe following the call of the Barcelona European Council (March 2002) to measure the foreign/second language proficiency of pupils at the end of compulsory education. According to the COE website (http://www.coe.int/t/dg4/linguistic/cadre1_en.asp, accessed 17 October 2012) ‘the purpose of the survey is to establish a European Indicator of Language Competence, providing member states with internationally comparable data on the results of foreign language teaching and learning in the European Union’. The structure of the audit follows the CERF descriptors and is divided into levels (A1, A2, B1, B2, C1 and C2) covering the skills of listening, reading, spoken interaction, spoken production, language strategies and writing (see Appendix II). Each level is subdivided into two areas indicated by 1, which means *low* and 2 *high*. For example, level A1 refers to the language competences related to learners with very limited L2 communicative skills. The audit based on the levels descriptors are used in work and educational environments to assess linguistic competences and in the context of the current study it enabled an examination of outcomes at set periods. The information collected was used to track the development of reading, speaking, listening and writing skills.

A2	Can understand sentences and frequently used expressions related to areas of most immediate relevance (e.g. very basic personal and family information, shopping, local geography, employment). Can communicate in simple and routine tasks requiring a simple and direct exchange of information on familiar and routine matters. Can describe in simple terms aspects of his/her background, immediate environment and matters in areas of immediate need.
A1	Can understand and use familiar everyday expressions and very basic phrases aimed at the satisfaction of needs of a concrete type. Can introduce himself/herself and others and ask and answer questions about personal details such as where he/she lives, people he/she knows, and the things he/she has. Can interact in a simple way provided the other person talks slowly and clearly and is prepared to help.

Figure 5 Examples of levels of attainment in the language audit

An abridged version, written in a pupil-friendly language, was used by the children in the form of *I can do* statements (see Appendix III). The layout of the audit enabled respondents to identify whether they had achieved outcomes by themselves or with the support and guidance of a more experienced individual. A further option was included under a sub-heading of *my objective* to aid learners to develop an action plan so that with extra practice the objective can be met. This was an essential stage in the development and use of metacognitive strategies as this tool prompted learners to think about their learning. The audit was administered at the beginning and end of case study one and was used at four set periods in case study two and three. The audit was completed by the trainees in case study one, by the trainees, mentors and pupils in case study two and by trainees and pupils in case study three.

Self-assessment Checklist

Level **A1** **2**
3.1

Language: _____

Use this checklist to record what you think you can do (Column 1). Ask someone else, for example your teacher, to also assess what they think you can do (Column 2). Use Column 3 to mark those things that you cannot yet do which you feel are important for you (Column 3 = Objectives). Add to the list – perhaps with your teacher – other things that you can do, or that are important for your language learning at this level.

Use the following symbols:

<i>In columns 1 and 2</i> ✓ I can do this under normal circumstances ✓✓ I can do this easily	<i>In column 3</i> ! This is an objective for me !! This is a priority for me
--	---

If you have over 80% of the points ticked, you have probably reached Level A1.

		Me	My teacher/another	My objectives
Listening	1	2	3	3
I can understand when someone speaks very slowly to me and articulates carefully, with long pauses for me to assimilate meaning.	1	2	3	3
I can understand simple directions how to get from X to Y, by foot or public transport.	1	2	3	3
I can understand questions and instructions addressed carefully and slowly to me and follow short, simple directions.	1	2	3	3

Figure 6 Sample of language audit tool
Appendix II

3.8.3 Observations in primary classrooms

Kumar (2011) acknowledges that observation is one way to collect primary data and defines it as ‘a purposeful, systematic and selective way of watching and listening to an interaction or phenomenon as it takes place’ (p.140). Schensul, Schensul & LeCompte (1999, p.91), cited in Savin-Baden & Major (2013, p.392), ‘suggest that observation may be used to accomplish the following goals:

- To identify and guide relationships with informants.
- To help researchers get the feel for how things are organised and prioritised, how people interrelate, and the cultural parameters.
- To show the researcher what the cultural members deem to be important in manners, leadership, politics, social interactions and taboos.
- To help the researcher become known to the cultural members, thereby easing facilitation of the research process.
- To provide the researcher with a source of questions to be addressed with participants’.

The observation of a phenomenon or group depends on the role the researcher adopts. Heron (1996), cited in Paltridge and Phakiti (2010), explain that this depends on the *emic* (participant) or *etic* (non-participant) perspective: ‘researchers who try to get an inside view of what is happening in the classroom take an emic perspective, whereas researchers who take more of an outside view on the event take an etic view of this’ (p.277). However, Angrosino & Rosenberg (2011), cited in Savin-Baden & Major (2013, p.394), explain that the research can take up to five different roles when undertaking observation:

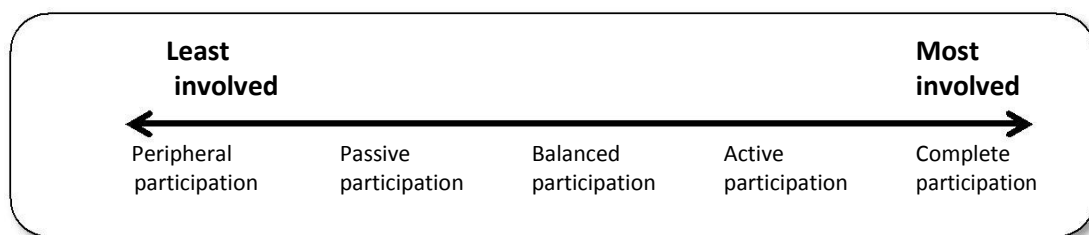


Figure 7 Observation continuum (Angrosino & Rosemberg, 2011)

During this study my role as an observant moved from that of complete participation (CS1), balanced participation and passive participation (CS2) to peripheral participation (CS3).

Richards (2003), cited in Paltridge & Phakiti (2010, p.89), ‘suggests four main areas for focusing observations: (i) the *setting* (e.g., contexts, spaces, locations), (ii) the *systems* (e.g., typical routines and procedures); (iii) the *people* (e.g., roles, relationships, responses); (iv) the *behaviours* (e.g., timings, activities, events)’.

There were different observers observing different settings, systems, people and behaviours, for example:

- (a) I observed trainees as part of the instructional process in case study one.
- (b) I observed trainees teaching the mentors and the pupils in case two.
- (c) I observed the trainees teaching the pupils in case study three.
- (d) Trainees observed mentors in case studies two and three.
- (e) Mentors observed trainees in case studies two and three.

Classroom observations were carried out using Allen, Frohlich & Spada (1984) Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching (COLT) model designed by Allen *et al* (1984), cited in Nunan (1992) and Paltridge & Phakiti (2010). The COLT model is rooted within a theory of communicative language teaching and focuses on the situations leading to the use of L2 and on the interactions between learners in the classroom that prompt learning. This observation model was used in several studies, in particular Leung (1993), Meara, Lightbown & Randall (1997), Lightbown & Spada (1994), Kumaravadivelu (1999), Ranta, (2002), Aliponga, Williams & Yoshida (2008), and Rondon-Pari, (2012). The COLT observation model consists of two parts. Nunan (1992) explains that part A focuses on the description of classroom activities and consists of five major parts: the activity type, the participant organisation, the content, the students' roles, and the materials or resources. Part B relates to communicative features, and isolates seven of these: the use of the target language, information gap, sustained speech, responses, incorporation of new vocabulary, discourse initiation and use of expected or unexpected language.

In order to ensure consistency, the model was piloted where observers, in pairs, viewed a series of lessons, making notes, following the prompt questions in Table 4. The results were discussed so that where there were differences in the observations noted, they could be reconciled by reflecting on each observer's own notes. Each pair would then come to an agreement based on the evidence in their notes, as to whether such observations remained pertinent. The pilot proved workable and was therefore adopted.

Table 4 COLT observation schedule (adapted from Allen et al, 1984)

<i>Feature</i>	<i>Questions</i>
<i>Part A: classroom activities</i>	
1a. Activity type	What is the activity type? Reading, speaking, game, role-play?
2a. Participant organisation	Is the teacher working with the whole class or not? Are students working in groups or individually?
3a. Content	If group work, how is it organised? Is the focus on classroom management, language (form, function, discourse) or other? Is the range of topics broad or narrow? Who selects the topic –teacher, students, or both?
4a. Students' roles	Are students involved in listening, speaking, reading, writing, or a combination of these?
5a. Materials/resources	What types of materials or resources are used? How long is the text/listening task? What is the source/purpose of the resources? Who controls their use? Teacher or students?
<i>Part B: classroom language</i>	
1b. Use of target language	To what extent is the target language used?
2b. Information gap	To what extent is requested information predictable in advance?
3b. Sustained speech	Is discourse extended or restricted to a single sentence, clause or word?
4b. Responses	Does the interlocutor/peer react to the message in the target language?
5b. Incorporation of new vocabulary	Does the speaker incorporate prior vocabulary in their contributions?
6b. Initiation-Response-Feedback	Do students have the opportunity to initiate discourse and engage themselves in conversation?
7b. Use of expected/unexpected language	Does the teacher expect the use of a specific form, or is there no expectation of the use of a particular linguistic form?

3.8.4 Think-aloud protocols (TAPs)

Hyland & Hyland (2001), cited in Paltridge & Phakiti (2010), defines think-aloud protocols, or verbal reports, as retrospective accounts of thoughts which occurs simultaneously with the completion of a language task. This is an elicitation technique that provides the researcher with

opportunities to gain deeper insight into the processes of problem-solving. For example, in a writing task Hyland & Hyland (*ibid*) explain that ‘protocols involve participants writing in their normal way but instructed to verbalise all thinking at the same time so that information can be collected on their decisions, their strategies and their perceptions as they work’ (p.196). Spranger, Daniel & Ferrari (2011) identify three main uses of TAPs: (i) to gauge the depth of learners’ understanding of a task, (ii) to observe behaviours and the use of cognitive strategies, and (iii) to determine the extent of learners’ metacognition –that is, their conscious awareness of sense-making strategies and how these help them to learn.

TAPs are verbal reports used to determine the use of strategies which cannot be identified through simple observation. In the current study, the verbal reports adopted the form of self-report interviews and questionnaires following the models provided by Adams (2003), El-Dib (2004), Chen (2007) and Riazi (2007), with participants either using a chart (see Appendix IV) about the use of language strategies they employed or taking part in an interview immediately after the completion of a task.

Authors such as Cohen (1990), Green (1998), Gass & Mackey (2007), Bowles & Leow (2005), and Bowles (2010) report on the use of think-aloud protocols to obtain insight into the strategies used by learners before, during and after a language task. Leow & Morgan-Short (2004) explain that there are different types of verbal reports and that they are not equal. Cohen (2011) classifies them into three groups, namely self-revelation, self-observation and self-report. These types of verbal reports are retrospective and can be used to aid the understanding of how people learn. This is because TAPs are able to reveal data that otherwise may remain hidden to the researcher whilst the participants are performing a task collaboratively. Although the cognitive processes involved in solving a language problem might not be available for inspection through verbal reports, the cognitive events, as mentioned by Steinberg (1986), allow the psychological phenomena to be easily accessible by direct introspection (Bakan, 1954). Ericsson & Simon (1993) and Pressley & Afflerbach (1995) showed that the use of verbal reports are a valuable and reliable source of information relating to cognitive processes when elicited with care and interpreted with full understanding of circumstances under which they were obtained—a view echoed by Bowles & Leow (2005). Other studies in L2 acquisition using verbal reports have demonstrated their usefulness to reveal cognitive processes, mainly those of Cohen & Aphek (1981), Smagorinsky (1989) and Cohen (1990). TAPs have been used extensively in research to understand how learners relate and resolve new learning situations (Li, 2004; Migyanka, Policastro & Lui, 2006; Cotton & Gresty, 2006; Woore, 2010), and have been very useful in developing learners’ awareness of their own learning, as verbalising their

thoughts provides them with the opportunity to internalise and self-regulate learning (Nunan, 1992). Verbal reports were used by the trainees in CS1 and by the mentors, the trainees and the pupils in CS2 as a technique to promote exploratory talk and as a research technique to elicit information to analyse the content of interactions. The use of TAPs within a talk partner technique was one of the main features of the modified strategy-based approach (see comprehension stage, Table 7, p. 106) and a random collection of recorded TAPs from CS1 and CS2 was gathered for the purpose of analysis.

3.8.5 Voice recording

Recordings of interactions in talk partner and focus groups facilitated a more in-depth analysis of conversations as it was possible to play back the recordings several times. Talk partners were used frequently in CS1 and CS2 as part of problem-solving tasks and focus groups were carried out at the beginning and at the end of CS1 and CS2. In CS3, however, conversations between pupils were recorded. Further details about the contents of the recordings are provided in chapters four, five and six respectively. Participants recorded interactions using their mobile phones and these were shared with me via a Bluetooth application so that an audio archive could be compiled and stored in a password-protected computer hard drive. This was a non-intrusive way of collecting information as the participants had the control of what to record and when to share the recordings with me. Altogether two hundred and twenty six conversations were recorded, all of them varying in length (for example, there were an array of recordings ranging from forty seconds to ninety minutes long). Only excerpts showing collaborative learning following the sequence initiation-response-feedback were used for the purpose of analysis.

3.8.6 Reflective journal / logs / field notes

The reflective journals (used by the trainees), logs (used by the mentors) and field notes (used by me) broadly followed the concept of a research diary (see Appendix V). Keeping a reflective journal was a requirement of the PGCE course, and the entries written by the trainees were also used for the purpose of data collection. In the case of mentors, they were requested to keep a record of the lessons they taught in the form of a reflective journal and questions were used to prompt their writing. Further details about the content, structure and analysis of information are discussed in chapters four, five and six.

Bryman (2004), cited in Menter *et al* (2011), indicates that *diary* has a multiplicity of meanings in the field of social research and identifies three main types: ‘those written or completed at

the behest of the researcher, personal diaries and diaries used as a log of research activities and reflections' (p.185) and to record thick descriptions. Carspecken (1996, p.47), cited in Cohen *et al* (2007), explains that thick descriptions...

...involve recording, for example, speech acts, non-verbal communication, descriptions in low-inference vocabulary, careful and frequent recording of the time and timing of events, the observer's comments that are placed into categories; detailed contextual data' (p.405).

Elliott (1997), cited in Menter *et al* (2011), regards diaries as 'researcher-driven... due to the fact that the diary is devised for the purpose of gathering research data in the same fashion that a questionnaire, an interview schedule or an observation schedule are specifically created for research purposes' (p.186).

Burns (2007), cited in Paltridge & Phakiti (2010, p.89), indicates that 'field notes include reflective commentary, questions for further consideration, evaluations or self-observations, all relevant to the dynamic and evolving nature of action research'. According to Burns (*ibid*) a reflective journal or diary is a self-reflective tool written for various purposes and she explains that 'other kinds of journals are *memoirs*, [which are] more objective and factual reflections on events or people, or even *logs*, [which are] running records of what contacts and transactions occur during the day' (p.189).

Bailey & Ochsner (1983) and Rubin (2003) state that research on language strategies has relied on diaries of various kinds. The information collected by using this tool is an extension of the think-aloud protocols, and serves a two-fold purpose: first, it helps to track students' progress and secondly, it provides an indication of whether language-learning strategies are useful in developing participants' basic linguistic skills. The verbal reports written in the form of a reflective journal would constitute retrospective self-observation or self-report, as generally learners write their entries after a learning event has taken place. I anticipated that, by recording their progress in such a format, participants would be able to create a reflective portfolio through which they could see and track their progress. Ekbatani (2000), cited in Little (2005, p. 323), indicates that a portfolio 'enables instruction to be linked to assessment, promotes reflection, helps learners to take responsibility for their own learning, enables learners to see the gaps in their learning and enables learners to take risks'. Cohen (2011) argues that, by getting the participants to write about their L2 strategies, benefits could be garnered because regular writing can help them to become more aware of their strategies.

3.8.7 Focus groups

Punch (2009) explains that focus groups were a technique originally used in marketing and political research and that the terms *focus group interviews* and *group interviews* are now used interchangeably (p.146). Gibbs (1988), cited in Arthur *et al* (2012), argues that ‘focus groups and group interviews are methods often used synonymously to mean an organised discussion with a selected group of individuals to gain collective views about a research topic’ (p.186). Gibbs (*ibid*) indicates that the main feature of focus groups is the interactive nature where ‘the group opinion is at least as important as the individual opinion and the group itself may take a life of its own not anticipated or initiated by the researcher’. Punch (2009) argues that ‘well facilitated group interaction can assist in bringing to the surface aspects of a situation that might not otherwise be exposed’ (p.147). Other benefits of focus groups are the involvement of diverse groups of people and access to potentially a large number of participants (Arthur *et al*, 2012).

Two focus groups were set up for each case study. One collected initial views on learning L2 and the other final views at the end of the study. Participants consisted of trainees in CS1 and trainees, mentors and pupils in CS2. The questions used for discussion are explained in chapter four and five. When used with children, these were constructed around the discussion of metaphors (for example, ‘*Learning languages is like ...*’). Schön (1993) explains that metaphors help us make a transition between the source domain (the familiar) to the target domain (the less familiar), and this contributes to the assimilation of new concepts into existing conceptual structures, and accordingly creates new structures through which new concepts are accommodated. Lakoff & Johnson (1980), cited in Price & McGee (2009), argue that metaphor is fundamental to thought, indicating that people interpret images and sensations from the physical world through metaphors. They explain that metaphorical concepts inform, not only our perceptions of the world and the people in it, but also the ways in which we interact with others. In particular, when used with pupils, metaphors are more suitable to explore children’s experiences of learning languages as the feedback they provide can be much richer than the one resulting from discussion (Price & McGee, *ibid*).

3.8.8 Taught sessions

Taught sessions took place in all three case studies and these are described in detail in chapters four, five and six. These sessions provided an opportunity to test out an intervention in CS1 and CS2 whilst in CS3 they enabled the comparison of two distinct teaching approaches and training models. Taught sessions took the form of workshops, twilight sessions after school or

during the school day as timetabled lessons and were led by me in CS1, by the trainees and the mentors in CS2 and by the trainees in CS3. These sessions provided the setting for the collection of information focused on the role of teacher, the role of the learners, and the role of the resources. The interactions taking place in the classroom environment were recorded using observations or were captured in digital recordings for analysis.

A summary of the case studies and the research techniques used to elicit data is shown in Figure 8.

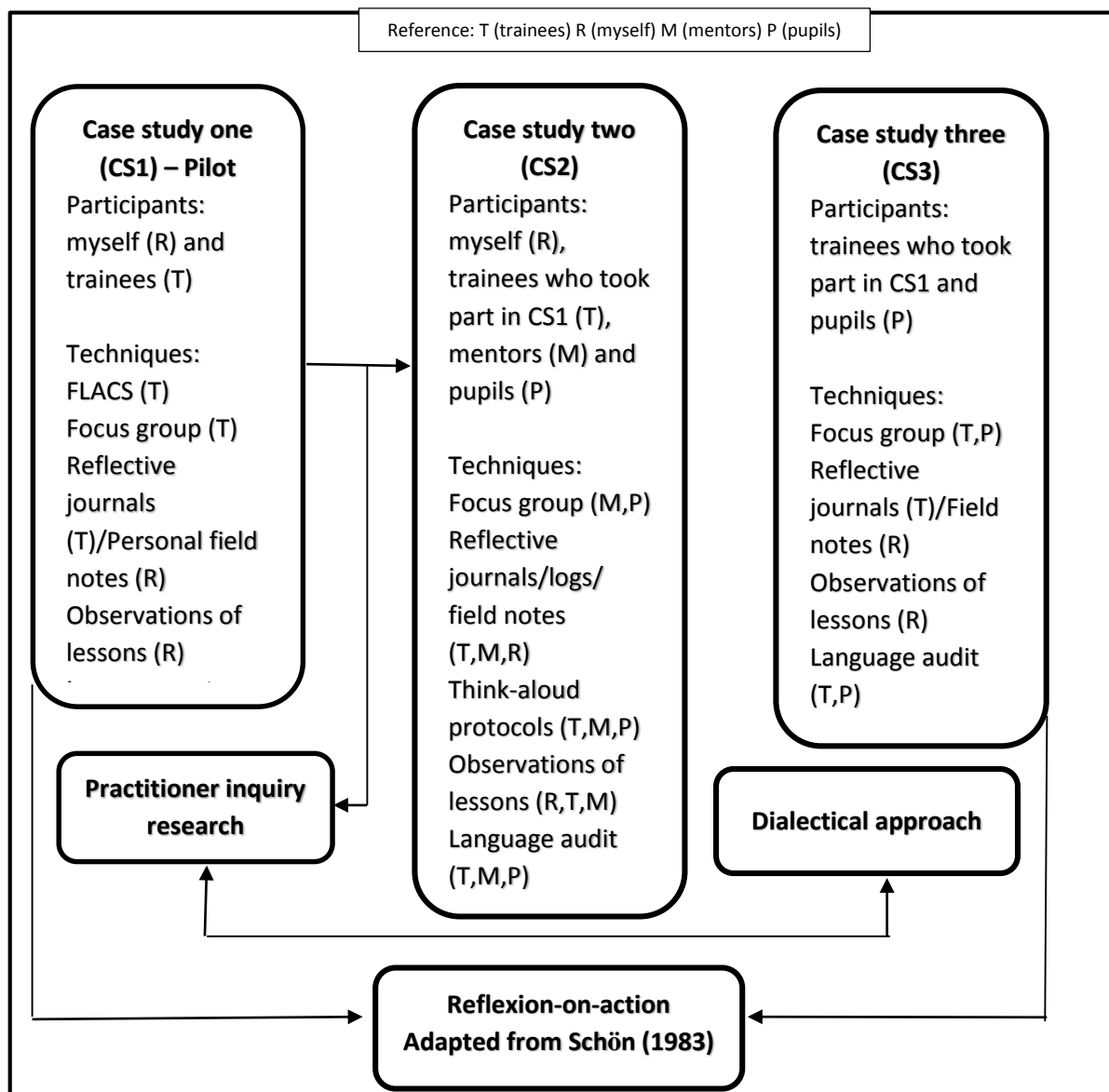


Figure 8 Summary of research methods and techniques used in the three case studies

3.9 *Limitations*

3.9.1 *Methodological issues*

According to Newby (2010), inquiry research deals with participants with a personal and institutional history, and the relationships between them are interpreted in the context where studies are carried out. People and institutions are characterised by constant change and this is one of the variables that needs to be taken into consideration in an interpretive approach in order to understand how meaning is socially constructed. Plowright (2011) argues that as human beings' behaviours are unlikely to remain stable because of different factors, such as volition, feelings, and points of view, it is necessary to adopt a mixed approach procedure to add rigour to the interpretation of these situations. To minimise this limitation, the current study focused on a particular situation (training teachers to teach modern languages) within a specified timeframe (school experience, placement one) by collecting views from different informants (trainees, mentors and pupils) to obtain a holistic view using a variety of techniques to collect information. Triangulation as explained in section 3.4 on page 73 was also used to add trustworthiness to the findings.

The second limitation I attended to was the dynamics of the different groups where my study took place (University setting and schools) and, in particular those referring to relationships of power amongst individuals. As both the researcher (myself) and the research population were drawn from the same institutional context, it was necessary to understand how the social and institutional setting influenced the views of the participants. Again, in order to capture a snapshot of the institutional view as a whole rather than the opinion of individual participants, the study followed the stance of *researching from-within*. As such, there was an acknowledgement of a multiplicity of voices informing the research process and contributing to the co-interpretation of data and meaning making. This position relates to the democratic nature of action research as discussed by McNiff (2002 and Cohen *et al* (2007). With this in mind, it was necessary to ensure that no particular individual view—such as cultural and social positions—dominated or unduly influenced the study by ensuring that all stakeholders' views (trainees, mentors and pupils) were taken into consideration. Finally, because the inquiry research, as used in this study, was participatory, it was essential that stakeholders held an unbiased position in relation to the topic being studied. This did not mean, however, that participants had to compromise their teaching practices or syllabus delivery to fit in with the research agenda pursued by this project. In fact, to minimise bias and increase objectivity, stakeholders were encouraged to take a flexible approach to pedagogy, making informed

decisions concerning the best approach to adopt in their classrooms, and accordingly deciding on their preferred method of instruction.

3.9.2 Observations

Three limitations were identified when undertaking observations, namely, (a) the observation focus, (b) the type of participants and (c) the researcher's bias. The first limitation referred to the fact that only observable behaviours were recorded, which could have produced inaccurate interpretations of cognitive processes as these were not directly accessed, consequently, resulting in incomplete accounts. Another limitation was that, on many occasions, the observations only focused on those participants who were the most outspoken or extroverted, thus leaving aside the less vocal participants. A third limitation was associated with the researcher's bias (Chapelle & Duff, 1983) as the interpretation of the observed phenomena 'is always affected by prior expectations' (Cohen 2011, p. 77). In order to minimise these limitations, the observations used in this study followed a particular focus or schedule, and were used alongside other research techniques, such as focus groups and questionnaire.

3.9.3 Verbal reports

One of the main criticisms in relation to the use of verbal reports, such as TAPs, comes from Seliger (1983), who acknowledges that much cognitive processing is inaccessible because this is basically unconscious; therefore, he claims that the information obtained, if any, is merely anecdotal. Dobrin (1986) considers that cognitive processing is very complex to be captured using verbal reports, and believes that learners' memories may have an influence on the process of verbalisation producing inaccurate and unreliable information. The TAPs, as used in this study, proved too reliant on retrospection, and participants, especially children, at times, found it difficult to verbalise their thinking. It was noticed that reports that began as an introspective account became retrospective and, on average, it took twenty minutes to report on a single language strategy. Boring (1953), as cited by Cohen (2011, p. 83), states that 'it can take 20 minutes to report on 1 ½ second of mental processing'. Finally, it was noted that some participants were perhaps keen to impress their excitement in recollecting their experiences and some exaggerations may have occurred to impress or to please the researcher. When this was obviously the case, anecdotal accounts were discarded from the analysis. However, there may have been some accuracy errors when reporting events.

3.9.4 Focus groups

Although focus groups provided the advantage of saving time and reducing costs, the responses obtained seemed to align to those belonging to the most outspoken participants. Cohen (2011) explains that ‘some subjects’ responses may be affected by social desirability’, and explains that ‘respondents may be fearful of producing a socially unacceptable answer’ (p. 71) reproducing or building up on other participants’ responses. Another limitation was that the introverted participants did not have the same opportunities to express their views as the more extroverted ones did, and possibly my interventions to keep the discussions going may have had an effect on the content and the quality of the information collected.

3.9.5 Reflective writing

Two drawbacks in relation to the use of journal-writing were noticed. On the one hand, some entries were a random recollection of events listed in the form of a personal diary and some of them were extensive, requiring a very long time to read, not providing relevant information. It would have been more appropriate to direct participants to write about specific topics within a certain word limit to avoid random accounts or descriptive language.

It was noticed that, once participants moved away from the completion of a task or the use of particular language strategies, they became less accurate in the recollection of the cognitive processes they employed. This was also identified by Cohen (1998), who also acknowledges that ‘learners may overestimate or underestimate the use of strategies’ and that ‘they may also be unaware of when and how they are using a strategy’ (p. 72). It is because of this lack of conscious training in the identification and use of strategies that some information the participants provided could have been inaccurate.

3.9.6 Memory recalls

Once a language task has been completed, recall would appear to deteriorate almost immediately after a lesson. This was shown by the accounts provided in focus groups where participants found it difficult to be precise about details when answering questions as time went by.

Cohen (2011, p. 90) asserts that, ‘the time lapse opens the possibility of the subjects’ creative reinterpretation on what took place during the learning experience’, which could be understood as adding meaning to the experience; for example, when the individual doing the recollection does not recall everything in the order and shape in which the event was originally received. Video-recording the participants and then playing the recording back would have been a more

effective way to recall information with greater accuracy. This assisted recalling technique would have worked as a tool to prompt the participants' memory and would have served to focus their attention to particular details which otherwise would have been difficult to capture. Also, if the recording had been watched first by the researcher and then watched it again together with the informant, recalling information would have provided greater insight into the cognitive processes involved in the process of meaning making.

3.10 Ethical considerations

Eliciting data from student teachers, teachers, and pupils for the purpose of this study presented three major issues, as follows:

- a. The role and power of the researcher in relation to the information provided by the participants, influenced by my role of lecturer, my experience as a linguist, and my views on learning languages other than English, and
- b. the participants' view that the information collected might contribute to passing a judgement on their performance and values and beliefs, and subsequently affect their grades in the course.

In order to address such issues, this study abided by the BERA guidelines (available at <http://www.bera.ac.uk/publications>, accessed April 3, 2011) on educational ethics and research procedures, and the ethical principles for the guidance of action researchers, as outlined by Hopkins (1985) cited in Kemmis & McTaggart (1992, pp. 134-136) namely:

1. A research summary was submitted to participants and to their institutions for consent along with a research consent form for them to sign.
2. The invitation to take part in this study was open, and the trainee teachers were not coerced to join.
3. All the participants (trainees, school leaders, mentors and pupils) were informed of the aims and purposes of the study; it was explained to them that their participation was not going to have any influence on their performance throughout the course, and that they could withdraw from the study at any point without any consequences for such a decision.
4. The participants were kept informed about the progress of the study, and were updated on a regular basis via face-to-face conversations.
5. The participants were allowed to have access to the information collected, and were also able to modify the opinions that had been given if they considered that these did

not fairly represent what they had expressed. They had the chance to reformulate their views upon reading conversation transcripts.

6. The participants were allowed to amend written transcriptions of focus groups for the purpose of fairness, relevance and accuracy.
7. The participants were approached for authorisation concerning the use of quotations.
8. The participants were informed of the principle of confidentiality and anonymity, and were assured that the information collected would be disposed of at the end of the study. For the sake of organisation, pseudonyms were used protecting the identity of the informants.
9. The participants were informed that they would have the right to check the final report of this study, and to make amendments to ensure fairness, relevance, and accuracy.
10. Permissions were sought from the schools in which the study took place about the use of children as respondents, and in so doing, it was emphasised that there would be no harm of any kind involved. The pupils were told that they would be able to leave the study if they wanted to do so, and that there would be no consequences for such a decision. Parental permission was deemed not necessary as the pupils were met in groups and with the presence of their class teachers.
11. The schools and teachers involved were assured that the purpose of this study was not to comment on their professional capacities or aptitudes; the study did not attempt to pass any judgement on the participating schools or any of their members of staff or pupils. Moreover, they were allowed to abandon the study, as and when they decided, without any consequences.
12. There exists a mutual agreement between the Partnership Office of the University and all participating schools whereby the parties regard this study as an opportunity for members of staff to see their participation as part of their continuous professional development.
13. Information was stored in password-protected computer only accessed by the researcher.

A copy of the consent letter sent to the participants is provided in Appendix I.

3.11 Summary of research approach

Stage one: Formulating the general research question

Sources

My personal experience:

- (a) Trilingual background
- (b) MFL teacher
- (c) Teacher trainer

Bibliographical research:

- (a) Profile of the 'adult' learner: role of experiential learning.
- (b) Adult learners' linguistic experience in an L1: role of linguistic executive knowledge (metacognition).

Bibliographical research:

- (a) Language learning strategies
- (b) Strategy-based approach to language learning
- (c) Language learning within a socio-constructivist approach
- (d) Language learning in communities of practice

General research question

Can language learning strategies that are used by generalist primary trainee teachers' in L1 also be used to develop their linguistic competences and skills in an L2, using collaborative learning?

Stage two: Refining the main research question

1. Identify reasons for trainees' perceived anxiety when learning an L2 and explore possible causes.

Q: *Is there a relationship between anxiety and learning an L2?*

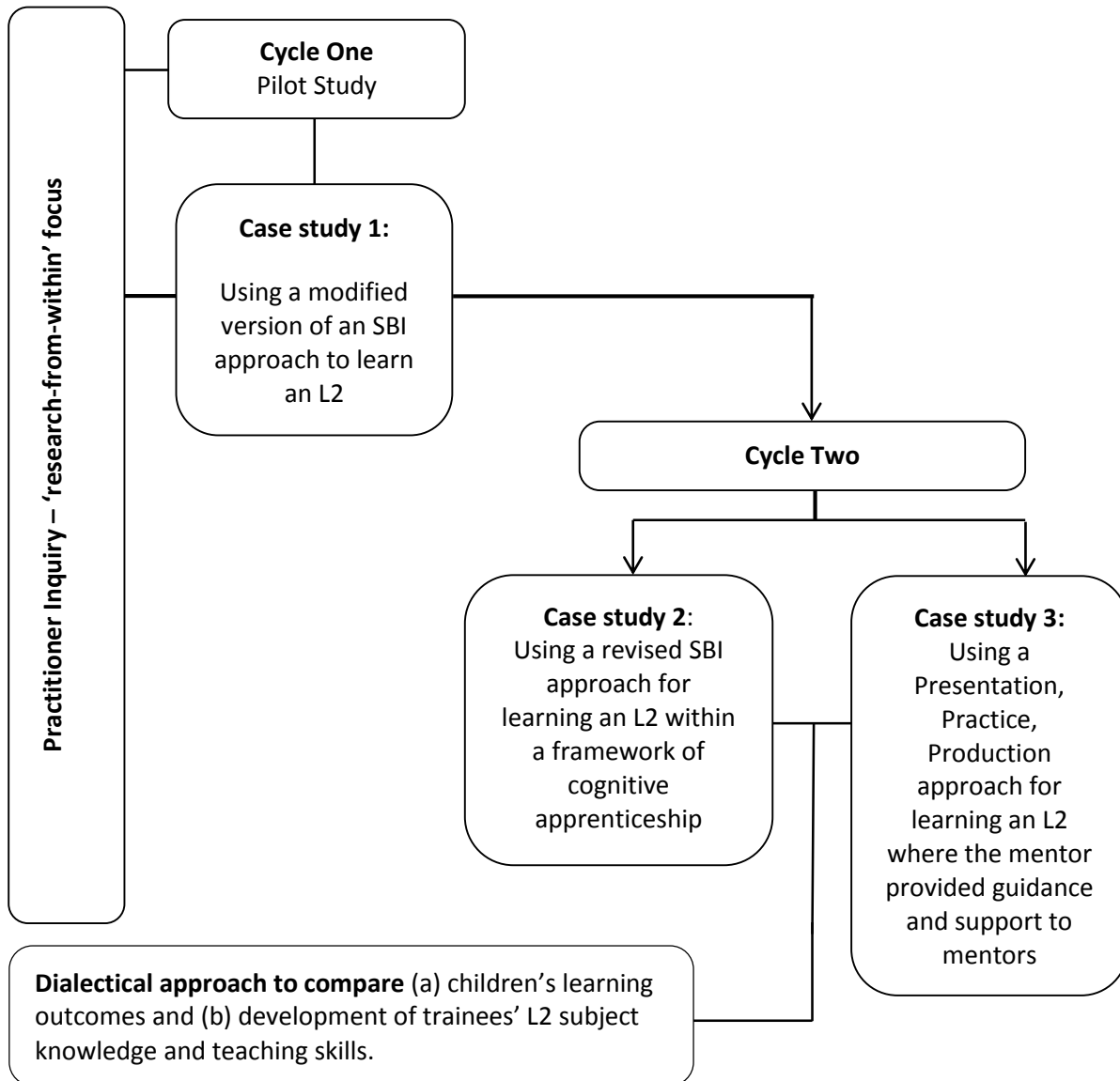
2. Explore how the learning environment can support trainees in the development of L2 subject knowledge and teaching skills.

Q: *Can a strategy-based approach to L2 learning be used during trainees' school experience?*

3. Determine if language learning strategies can be used to teach ab-initio adult and young L2 learners?

Q: *Can a strategy-based approach to L2 learning be used to teach trainees and young learners?*

Stage three: Selection of research methods



CHAPTER FOUR

CASE STUDY ONE - PILOT

4.1 Context and identification of a problem

The purpose of CS1 was to trial a teaching method based on the use of language strategies to learn an L2 using collaboration between myself, the trainees, their mentors and pupils within a framework of communities of practice. The study took place at a relatively new university with a long tradition as a teacher training college that had served the local area. Historically, it had been attended and staffed by individuals, mainly from a White British middle class background with a minority from other ethnic groups. By the time of this study such population homogeneity had changed, with more students and members of staff coming from a greater variety of backgrounds.

The duration of the course at the centre of study was thirty eight weeks, consisting of twenty eight of school-based training and the remaining as university taught sessions, leading to the award of qualified teacher status (QTS). Trainees were coached by mentors who modelled teaching practice and provided guidance and support to develop teaching skills during the school-based training. This study focused on one aspect, teaching modern languages, within the one year Post-Graduate Certificate in Education (PGCE) course.

Upon being offered a place in the PGCE course trainees had to choose a specialism, which included Extended Professional Practice (or generalist strand), Early Years, and Modern Languages including English as an Additional Language. The trainees pursuing the Modern Languages strand were required to have some previous knowledge of an L2 at GCSE level grade C or above.

As the Government had announced that the study of languages would be introduced in KS2 during the academic year of 2011- 2012, the trainees following the Extended Professional Practice strand were also offered the opportunity to develop their understanding of approaches for teaching languages to children.

A series of sixteen workshops of two hours each were timetabled: six of which took place during the first two weeks of induction, whilst the rest were distributed at different times within the course calendar. These workshops, which I led, were not compulsory and the thirty places available were offered on a first-come, first-served basis. The trainees, when signing up for these sessions, had indicated that they either had no knowledge or a very basic experience of

another language or considered themselves beginners, although three had achieved C/D grades at GCSE in French and German (see Participants).

The content of the Induction workshops included the modelling of teaching, followed by a discussion of the lesson structure and micro-teaching activities where the trainees had to apply the newly acquired skills. Each workshop focused on a different topic, as indicated below:

- Workshop one: developing language awareness in the classroom.
- Workshop two: developing children's interest in languages.
- Workshop three: developing oracy skills (listening and speaking).
- Workshop four: developing literacy skills (reading and writing).
- Workshop five: developing children's intercultural understanding.
- Workshop six: integrating languages into the wider school curriculum.

When interacting with the trainees, I noticed that whilst they collectively agreed that learning modern languages would contribute to the intellectual and social development of children, their individual opinions, however, did not reflect this. An initial focus group (details in section 4.3 (b) on page 104) provided greater insight into their opinions, which are exemplified in the following three comments:

I had French at school but never learnt anything, we only copied words from a book or from the board and lessons were very boring (NC).

It [Spanish] was very difficult to get the pronunciation right and was hard to memorise long lists of words (PJ).

What! (giggles) No, I can't do that! [using a puppet] I feel silly and it's worse with my rubbish French (LR).

These views showed some apprehension which seemed to be related to stress and anxiety in three areas that I identified as: (a) attitudes: NC thought that French was a boring subject; (b) ability: PJ indicated that learning Spanish was very difficult and (c) self-esteem, LR feeling silly when teaching French.

4.2 Participants

The participants consisted of a random sample of trainees within a group in which there were twenty three female and seven male trainees. Seven were mature individuals (over forty years old) whilst the mean age of the group was twenty six years of age. The trainees came from a range of backgrounds, and had different individual L2 learning experiences. The sample was selected by randomly assigning numbers to names on the attendance register and then choosing

the first twelve odd numbers. The composition of the sample in terms of age, sex, and L2 learning history were used as categories for analysis.

Table 5 Sample of participants in case study one

Participants	Age	Sex	L2 personal history
1 (LC)	23	F	Studied French up to GCSE level and achieved a D. Did not see the point in studying another language as she believed it was a 'waste of time'.
2 (AK)	28	M	Studied French up to GCSE level, worked in Spain and Germany. He thought it was important to learn languages but he believed he lacked the ability to do so.
3 (MM)	24	F	Studied French at secondary school but did not choose languages as she never enjoyed it. She believed languages were difficult to learn.
4 (AR)	46	F	Studied French up to O level but never got the chance to use the skills; consequently, she forgot. She believed it would have been wiser for her to study other subjects rather than languages.
5 (TW)	24	M	Studied Spanish up to GCSE level and achieved an E. He thought Spanish was uninspiring because of the teacher but later he realised that learning a language was important.
6 (GD)	25	F	Bilingual, studied German up to GCSE level and achieved C. She thought it would have been better to study Punjabi as this was more relevant for her personal development.
7 (BM)	32	M	Studied French and lived in Holland. He thought that English was the international language if living in an English speaking setting.
8 (TR)	28	M	Studied French up to GCSE level and achieved a grade C. He never used his linguistic skills and thought that learning another language was time consuming and difficult.
9 (CF)	26	F	Studied Spanish because she felt fascinated by the culture but she could not speak the language because she dropped the subject at secondary school.
10 (NV)	34	F	She never studied a language but she would insist that her children do so not to miss out on job opportunities.
11 (JW)	29	F	Studied French but she felt that the only thing she really learnt was grammar. She could not use French confidently to hold a conversation with a native speaker.
12 (RK)	24	F	Studied French at secondary school, a language she did not want to learn. Although she wanted to learn Spanish, she said she was not talented in languages, a thought that held her back.

4.3 Data collection and analysis

The following techniques were used to gather information:

- (a) **Observations of trainees:** I used informal and unstructured observations of the group following a range of foci as listed below:

Table 6 Observation foci in case study one

<i>Workshops</i>	<i>Observation Foci</i>
One	Identification of individual needs and group dynamics
Two	Personal views on teaching and learning modern languages
Three	Participation and engagement in language tasks – Talk-partners
Four	Participation and engagement in language tasks – Think-aloud protocols
Five	Participation and engagement in language tasks – Learning outcomes
Six	Views on language learning: has anything changed?

The information was recorded in the form of field notes and three questions were used to analyse the information gathered:

- (a) What was the initial scenario?
- (b) How engaged were the trainees during tasks? What was the evidence?
- (c) What were the learning outcomes? What changed in relation to the initial scenario?
What prompted the change?

(b) Focus groups: volunteers were invited to attend two focus groups, one after workshop two and the other after workshop six. The first one was made up of twelve participants and the second consisted of sixteen trainees. In both instances, the participants were randomly chosen. The topics for discussion in both groups were based on the information gathered from observation reports and journal entries. In the first group the questions asked were:

1. Learning languages increases children's future prospects. Please discuss.
2. Learning to speak another language is difficult and time consuming. Please discuss.
3. A language specialist teacher has to teach modern languages in the primary school. Please discuss.
4. A generalist primary school teacher can teach languages. Please explain.

In the second focus group questions two, three and four were repeated and a fourth one was introduced: 'I feel I can teach the basics of another language. Please explain'.

The discussion in both groups lasted forty five minutes and the views provided by the trainees were summarised and recorded on flip-chart sheets which the trainees were asked to go through to check accuracy. The comments were summarised into statements which I grouped into the categories of positive, negative and neutral in relation to the trainees' perception of L2 learning. In the case of negative views, I sub-divided them according to those relating to (a) attitudes, (b) ability and (c) self-esteem resulting from a previous thematic analysis on the views discussed. Those views containing a settled way of thinking or feeling were grouped under the attitude sub-category, for example '*Learning German*

requires a lot of concentration and it is hard to pronounce’; ability referred to those comments indicating the possession of skills or proficiency or lack of them, for example *‘I can hardly speak English let alone another language’* and finally self-esteem was linked to the views referring to beliefs and confidence (or lack of it) in one’s own ability and worth, for example *‘I am not good at languages’*.

(c) Voice recording: discussions in talk-partners using think-aloud protocols, as explained in 3.8.4 on page 89, were recorded using mobile phones which I then collected via a Bluetooth device. Recordings were undertaken in workshops two, three, four, five and six and in total sixty eight recordings ranging from two to twenty minutes long were collected. For the purpose of analysis, I focused on instances where the use of the initiation-response-feedback (I-R-F) sequence was clear. As the number of recordings was still significant, I randomly selected five recordings and transcribed the interactions which I then analysed following the categories of (a) negotiation, (b) identification of strategies and (c) use of strategies for problem-solving which resulted from a prior thematic analysis.

(d) Reflective journals: keeping a webfolio consisting of a series of folders, one of which was a reflective journal, was a course requirement. The trainees were asked to reflect on a particular incident taking place during workshop one and refer back to it after workshop six. The intention was that they could explore how the learning experience gained during the series of workshops helped them change their perceptions whilst encouraging them to identify and use new teaching and learning skills. The trainees had been previously introduced to writing reflectively and they were familiar with the *structured debriefing* model (Gibbs, 1998), which consisted of four stages: description of an incident, feelings, analysis/synthesis and conclusions. For the purpose of analysis, I discarded narrative accounts, consisting mainly of anecdotal reports, and only used reflective prose where the structured debriefing model was employed applying a qualitative word count analysis to identify trends by focusing on key concepts or common themes.

(e) Questionnaire (Foreign Language Class Anxiety Survey –FLACS): As discussed in section 3.8.1, page 84, I used this tool to explore how self-esteem and ability affected trainees’ L2 learning. The questionnaire was administered in workshop one. The questionnaire (see Appendix VI) was completed before the trainees had left the session. The data collected were analysed according to Noormohamadi’s (2009) model in the following manner:

1. To determine validity of FLACS, item analysis was applied, calculating the correlation coefficient of each item with the whole battery.
2. Statistical check for reliability of FLACS, using Cronbach alpha to estimate reliability coefficient in continuous data was applied.
3. Pearson product-moment correlation was used to determine correlation between foreign language anxiety and variables such as the type of language learning strategies used by the participants.

A median split procedure was calculated on the basis of the total scores obtained on the FLACS, which was of 0.94. According to Noormohamadi (2009), learners scoring 0.94 and above are considered a high-anxiety group whilst those with lower scores belong to a low-anxiety group (see section 4.4.2).

(f) Language Audit: this was a self-assessment tool based on the level descriptors of the Common European Reference Framework for Languages (COE, 2001). A description of this instrument was provided in section 3.8.2 on page 85. The audit assessed listening, reading, spoken interaction, spoken production, strategies and writing (see Appendix II) to ascertain the level that the trainees had reached at the end of workshop six having started in workshop one as beginners.

4.4 Analysis of trainees' views before the intervention

4.4.1 Journals

The categories of attitudes, ability and self-esteem, which had been identified in focus group one, were used to analyse journal entries. A word count inquiry technique was used when classifying the entries and the analysis was based on a logarithmic pattern calculated by software (www.wordlet.com). The results are shown in Figure 9 in a word cloud where the size of the word is proportionate to the number of times a word had been used in the journal entries.

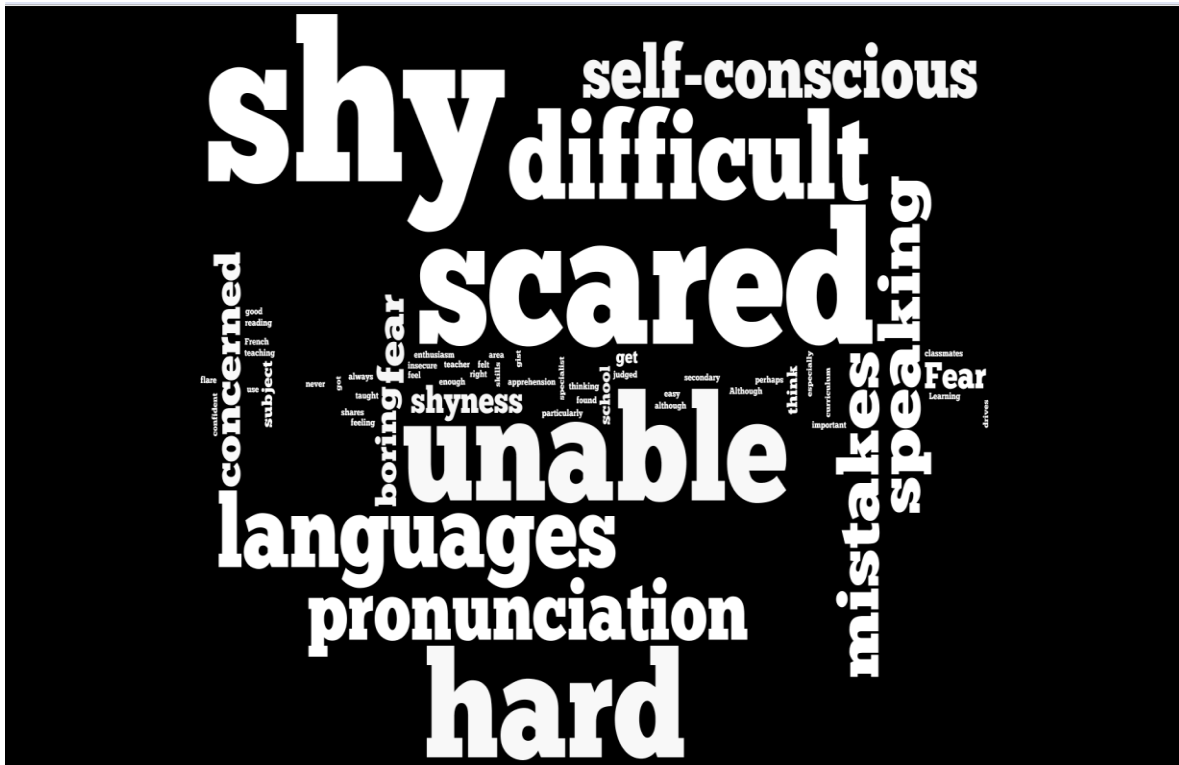


Figure 9 Word cloud based on trainees' journal entries

The categories that were referred to the most were those related to negative perceptions of self-esteem indicated by concepts such as *shy*, *scared*, *self-conscious*, *fear*, *shyness*, followed by terms denoting a lack of ability, such as *unable*, *hard*, *pronunciation*, *mistakes*, *speaking*. However, the use of concepts related to the attitudes category was significantly lower than those used for self-esteem and ability. This result indicated that low self-esteem together with a negative perception of themselves as language learners seemed to be associated with anxiety and stress. These reasons were further explored by administering the FLACS questionnaire.

4.4.2 Questionnaire (Foreign Language Anxiety Class Scale)

Analysis of the FLACS questionnaire responses indicated that fifty three per cent of the trainees (n=sixteen) scored slightly above the median (0.94) and were rated as high anxiety, whereas the results for the rest of the trainees (n=fourteen) showed scores below the median and, consequently, were rated as low anxiety.

The questions that all the trainees in the high anxiety group answered in the categories of *strongly agree* and *strongly disagree* were as follows:

<i>Category</i>	<i>Questions</i>
<i>Strongly agree</i>	1, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 20, 23, 24, 26, 30, 31, 33
<i>Strongly disagree</i>	8, 9, 10,

These items in the *strongly agree* or *strongly disagree* categories were associated with situations promoting feelings of insecurity, nervousness and embarrassment. The answers given indicated that the trainees felt upset when making mistakes and when being corrected publicly. This made them apprehensive, tense and self-conscious of their own performance because of fears of being ridiculed or failing. Also they acknowledged that they felt overwhelmed by the number of rules they had to memorise when learning an L2. The trainees strongly disagreed with feeling at ease in a language lesson, but indicated that they would not be nervous if they had to speak the target language with native speakers.

The responses provided to the above questions showed that there were three areas producing anxiety, as follows: communication apprehension, test anxiety and fears of negative evaluation. The trainees in the high anxiety group were worried about being less competent than other peers, they felt uneasy about examinations and embarrassed about using the target language in public because of fears of making mistakes. They also anticipated that they would be evaluated negatively by their peers, which reinforced their perceived language limitations and increasing their worries. Nonetheless, the difference between the high anxiety group and the low anxiety one was not significant (<7%). Oxford (1990) argues that only when the difference between the two groups is more pronounced (+26%) then anxiety is more likely to affect the whole teaching group negatively; however, the author (*ibid*) claims that such occurrences are rare and have not been sufficiently documented.

Research undertaken by Noormohamadi (2009) showed that the levels of anxiety identified in the participants of his study were not significant and did not influence learning outcomes. Noormohamadi (*ibid*) concludes that the perception of anxiety falls under the category of learners' beliefs, which he defines as 'a learning tension which is not different from any other tension identified when learning other academic disciplines' (2009, p. 432), a conclusion which is shared by other research, such as MacIntyre & Gardner (1989), Aida (1994), Saito & Samimy (1996), Na (2007), Liu & Jackson (2008), Kao & Craigie (2010), Wang (2010) and Latif *et al.* (2011).

Findings by Allwright & Bailey (1991), Chaudron (1998) and Tsou (2005) identified a combination of different emotional aspects when highly literate adults start to learn another language showing in feelings of discomfort often arising as they experience a lack of oral comprehension, and in particular when the consequences matter, for example passing an exam. These emotional aspects that trigger a negative emotional response have been identified by Shane (2010) as educational background, fear of being unable to understand, loss of face, expectations of the instructor and the availability of comprehensible input; however the research mentioned above showed that these aspects do not seem to hinder language learning. This is in line with the results obtained in the current case study where anxiety occurred before the instruction had started and dissipated as learning progressed.

Following these results, I put an intervention into practice to challenge the trainees' negative pre-conceived ideas and to support them in the acquisition of L2 knowledge for teaching.

4.5 Intervention: using a revised SBI approach

The intervention consisted of a revised version of Chamot's (2004) SBI model comprising four stages which I called comprehension, production, assisted practice and reflection. The names given to these stages are indicative of the main activities that learners engage with in the learning process. This follows the views discussed in the literature review: prior to language production, comprehension is necessary; practice requires learners to support one another and further learning is encouraged when learners reflect on their learning outcomes (see section 2.11 on page 46). This revised model was used in workshops three, four, five and six. The model included collaboration where the trainees, using think-aloud protocols, engaged in exploratory talk, worked together to understand the L2 input, produced the target language and then thought about their learning experience to develop metacognition.

The initial stage was the introduction of the L2 at a word level (for example, recognising cognates), followed by questions to elicit information and to check comprehension. The second stage included the trainees working in pairs to discuss understanding, leading to the identification of key language items or structures. Once they had worked out meanings and syntax, they practised the new language, producing their own utterances, using different strategies whilst providing peer feedback to monitor each other's performance. The last stage required the trainees to think about their learning and identify future language goals. The trainees recorded their reflections on a journal and used a self-assessment document based on *I can do* statements (Appendix III) to track their progress.

The table below shows a comparison of stages between Chamot's (2004) and my revised model and provides a summary of the learning tasks used with the trainees in this study:

Table 7 Comparison between two versions of an SBI approach

Stages	Chamot's Model (2004)	Stages	Revised Model
One	The teacher decides: (a) which strategies to use based on the needs of the group, (b) the type of practice opportunities to give the students; and (c) follow-up activities.	Presentation	The teacher presents the target language embedded in a context (see Appendix VIII), followed by questions and answers to elicit information, such as type of text, genre and content.
Two	The teacher considers the needs of the teaching group in relation to learning tasks.	Comprehension	Learners work in pairs on a focused task assigned by the teacher. For example, identification of five nouns and adjectives (see Appendix VIII). Learners discuss and agree on the strategies to use to work out the meaning of words and structures. They may use think-aloud protocols as part of the exploratory talk.
Three	The teacher undertakes an initial presentation of the new strategy, or a combination of strategies, including a brief statement about why the strategy is important and how it is expected to assist students.	Assisted Practice	Once the learners have identified key language features such as vocabulary items, grammatical structures, phonological units, etc., they practise their own utterances using different strategies, such as an online translation for vocabulary development and pronunciation model, using chanting, singing or tapping the rhythm of the words to commit the pronunciation to memory, and then assess one another, providing feedback.
Four	The teacher models the strategy using think-aloud protocols, demonstrating the steps involved in approaching and completing the language task. The teacher plans for immediate practice. The students practice the new strategies in class and are asked to reinforce learning through a piece of homework.	Reflection	Learners reflect on their learning experience recording their reflections on a journal and track their progress using <i>I can</i> statements (see Appendix III). They also discuss their performance providing feedback to one another and decide on their next learning goals.

4.6 Assessing the intervention and trainees' learning

During the intervention, observations of trainees being involved in problem solving language tasks (such as reading comprehension, role-plays, filling in blanks, amongst others) along with their own identification of strategies supported by the use of a strategy inventory bank form (see Appendix III) showed that eleven main language strategies were used. These are indicated in the table below:

Table 8 Language learning strategies used by trainees in case study one

Strategies used	Examples
Going beyond the immediate knowledge (Cognitive)	AK used cognate words and her knowledge of English and French to understand a reading extract in Portuguese. She also used textual features, such as format, headings and visuals, to guess the meaning of the extract.
Obtaining and using resources (compensatory)	MM used his knowledge of English syntax to work out a sentence pattern in Spanish. If unsure of a meaning of a lexical element in a syntax pattern, he used a pocket dictionary or an online translator engine to check.
Planning (metacognitive)	AR used a set of cards with key words to rehearse his oral presentation, which he recorded on his mobile phone and then played it back. TW brainstormed all the words with which she was already familiar in French to write an email. She was aware of her limitations in writing French, so she decided to use a Word document first to use a spell check tool. GD used a template in French as a reference to produce her own work, selecting the information she would present.
Conceptualising broadly (cognitive)	BM used super-ordinate lexical units to revise key vocabulary in Spanish.
Conceptualising with details (cognitive)	TR used her knowledge of affixes to create new words in Spanish.
Paying attention (cognitive)	CF focused on the formality rules in French to address different sorts of speakers.
Interacting to learn and communicate (social)	NV and GD used role-play situations to practise French and to discuss their learning.
Activating supportive emotions, beliefs and attitudes (affective)	JW believed that she could pronounce new words in Italian by linking them to Spanish—a language she studied at school. She thought that Italian was not a difficult language, and felt confident when reading aloud short extracts.
Reasoning (cognitive)	RK studied a grammatical example in German closely and related it to English, and then he was able to formulate a grammar rule to construct a new sentence.
Activating prior knowledge (cognitive)	LC skimmed through a text in French and stopped where she thought there was a word she knew. She wrote this word down and tried to think of another word related to the subject matter.
Overcoming gaps in communication (compensatory)	MM imitated a native speaker of Spanish by using phatic language or by using body language to round off a message.

More specific strategies were used by the trainees to develop particular skill areas, which are summarised in the table below:

Table 9 Language learning strategies used by trainees in case study one per language skills

Skill areas	Strategies used
Memory	Remembering words to a rhythm, tune or rap; read-cover-visualise-write, Repeating words over and over or saying them aloud to oneself, remembering a set of words, creating a story using key words as characters, looking out for patterns, translating.
Listening	Remembering words and phrases already known, anticipating vocabulary, identifying and copying intonation patterns, identifying speakers' mood, going for the gist by identifying the subject and the verbs in an utterance, taking notes, drawing pictures to remember the story.
Speaking	Using mental frames and formulaic language, imitating an accent, using body language and verbal fillers to keep communication going, re-telling, thinking about the structures needed for a particular type of communicative situation.
Reading	Guessing the meaning of unknown words according to the context, reading out phrases and breaking them down into smaller units, using contextual information such as pictures or diagrams, recognising the text genre, predicting what comes next in a text.
Writing	Visualising words, phrases and sentences and using a word-processor, writing new words with difficult spelling several times, using at least three words with similar meaning and three words with opposite meaning, making summaries of useful words according to topics.
Metacognition (self-assessment)	Comparing and contrasting language features between L1 and L2, deciding in advance to focus on particular language features, identifying the purpose of a particular language task; thinking about mistakes, understanding why they occurred and trying a different version, learning from mistakes, relaxing when feeling anxious about using new language, taking risks and experimenting with the language, identifying levels of anxiety and stress that may have an effect on learning a language, talking to someone about how I feel, working with others to practise and revise language.

4.7 Analysis of trainees' exchanges using talk partners

Pair talk or small group discussion enabled the development of understanding of language tasks, facilitated by exploratory talk. These learning techniques provided opportunities for one member of the group to model strategy use to peers and for the other members to try out and test, as commented by one trainee:

To start with, I was totally lost when we had to listen to the conversation for the first time. I didn't get anything at all. The second time I managed to get two or three words because they kinda sounded like English but by the third time I could identify the one

[talking about a speaker on a recorded conversation] *who was grumpy then I showed [names peers] how to do it and found myself teaching them.* (TR)

By concentrating on the speaker's tone of voice and intonation, which TR described as *grumpy*, the trainee managed to get the gist of the text. She then used her experience to model strategy use to scaffold the learning of a peer.

Exploration of a text by using think-aloud protocols collaboratively enabled trainees to develop a joint understanding of the target language as it helped trainees to learn key vocabulary and grammatical structures. This is further illustrated in the conversation in Table 11.

The trainees used their prior knowledge to make links and they supported one another by identifying different strategies, modelling strategy use and then using this knowledge to contextualise their learning. In the conversation transcript below, it is possible to notice that one trainee takes up the role of the MKO, which is then played by a different member of the group. Making links to prior knowledge was necessary for trainees to make sense of the new language and identifying similarities between L1 and L2 supported understanding.

The use of prior linguistic knowledge played a key role in developing new learning. This has been widely discussed by Ausubel (1968) and more recently by Rupley & Slough (2010) and Clapper (2012) from the perspective of classification learning, a concept used to explain how concepts are formed. The use of prior knowledge in L1 in developing awareness and skills in L2 in this study is consistent with the findings of research in the field of experimental psychology carried out by Wattenmaker, Dewey, Murphy & Medin (1986), Pazzani (1991), Heit, (1994), Murphy & Alloperma (1994), Murphy & Kaplan (2000) and Rehder & Ross (2001). The findings in these studies showed that categories that are consistent with prior knowledge are learned more quickly in supervised classification tasks than categories that are inconsistent with such knowledge, and specific features of categories that are consistent with prior knowledge are learned more quickly than features that are neutral or inconsistent with such knowledge, as reported by Clapper (2012).

The transcript of the conversation below showed four distinct phases of interaction, which I identified following Vaughan & Garrison (2005) categories, namely *triggering*, *exploration*, *integration*, and *resolution/application*. This model of understanding focuses on the interactions of three presences: social, cognitive and teaching. Social presence is described as the ability of the participants to project their personality into the community of learning whilst cognitive presence refers to the extent to which participants in the community are able to construct meaning through collaboration. Teaching presence brings together the other two elements through design, facilitation and instructional responsibilities (Vaughan & Garrison,

2005). Although the framework has been employed to analyse interactions in online communities, it was also useful to identify and analyse socio-cognitive processes taking place during interactions. Table 10 summarises the framework.

Table 10 Model of phases of interaction (Vaughan & Garrison, 2005)

<i>Categories</i>	<i>Indicators</i>	<i>Sociocognitive processes</i>
Triggering	<p>Recognising the problem</p> <p>Sense of puzzlement</p>	<p>Presenting background information that culminates in a problem.</p> <p>Asking questions.</p> <p>Messages that take discussion in a new direction.</p>
Exploration	<p>Divergences within the community.</p> <p>Divergences within single message.</p> <p>Information exchange.</p> <p>Suggestions for consideration.</p> <p>Brainstorming.</p> <p>Leaps to conclusions.</p>	<p>Unsubstantiated contradiction of previous ideas.</p> <p>Many different ideas/themes presenting in one message.</p> <p>Personal narratives/descriptions/facts (not used as evidence).</p> <p>Author explicitly characterises message as exploration – e.g. ‘Does that seem right?’</p> <p>Adds to established points but does not systematically defend/justify/develop.</p> <p>Offers unsupported opinions.</p>
Integration	<p>Convergence among group members.</p> <p>Convergence within a single message.</p> <p>Connecting ideas, synthesis.</p> <p>Creating solutions.</p>	<p>Reference to previous message followed by substantiated agreement, e.g., ‘I agree because...’</p> <p>Building on, adding to others’ ideas.</p> <p>Justified, developed, defensive, yet tentative hypotheses.</p> <p>Integrating information from various sources: textbook, articles, personal experience.</p> <p>Explicit characterisation of message as a solution.</p>
Resolution/application	<p>Vicarious application to real world.</p> <p>Testing solutions.</p> <p>Defending solutions</p>	

Table 11 Conversation transcript and analysis

<i>Exchanges</i>	<i>Strategies</i>	<i>Analysis</i>
Trainee 1: Hmm... Any ideas about it? It looks like... Erm ...		T1 starts the exchange by engaging the other members in the group. (Triggering)
Trainee 2: This is a poem, innit? Look at the... What's it? Trainee 3: The stanzas. Trainee 2: Yes the stanzas. It's got the shape of the poem.	Planning (metacognitive) Skimming Scanning Activating schemata Pointing Reasoning (Cognitive) Overcoming gaps in communication (Compensatory)	T2 uses prior knowledge to identify the source of a text pointing at features of the format. T3 supports the elaboration of the understanding of the text by providing information on the genre. T2 uses the word 'shape' to compensate for the technical terminology that she had forgotten.
Trainee 1: Has anyone got a clue about what language this is written in? It ain't French or Spanish. Trainee 3: No this is similar to German but it isn't proper German. Trainee 2: It must be one of them ...Northern European languages. D'you remember he was telling us about that tune Anna Frank used to sing?	Planning (metacognitive) Skimming Scanning Making links Recalling prior learning Reasoning (Cognitive) Discussing findings Negotiating (Social)	T1 scans through the poem and uses a process of selection based on prior knowledge to attempt an explanation. T3 appears to have set up some links and uses a prior learning event to contextualise the target language. (Exploration)
Trainee 1: Oh yeah! It's Dutch then. Look at the pictures guys. Trainee 3: Can't really see the pictures they look blurred to me ... Trainee 1: If we take for example the word rug (<i>inaudible pronunciation</i>) that sounds red to me. Trainee 3: There's an apple on the picture and look at this one (pointing at a word in the page). This looks like apple. What d'you say?	Planning (metacognitive) Pointing Making links Using clues to aid understanding Analysing written and speech patterns Reasoning (Cognitive) Discussing findings Negotiating (Social)	T1 refocuses the discussion by reading out a word whilst providing an equivalent in L1. By following the same procedure that T1 has employed, T3 studies the pictures and recognises that spelling of a word is familiar. T1 develops her understanding by associating the two words which have already been identified and provides an explanation, supporting this by exploring the text further in order to check whether she was right. (Integration)
Trainee 1: Me thinks it's about colours and objects like... Like here's white... you see? Trainee 3: That's a cloud. Well done me!	Using key pieces of information (metacognitive) Making links to prior learning Using clues to aid understanding Reasoning (Cognitive) Negotiating (Social) Activating supportive emotions (Affective)	T1 shares the process she has used with the other members of the group, which is immediately followed by T3 who also manages to identify a new word (Resolution)

The analysis of the above sequence falls into two areas, the strategies used and four distinct phases of interaction. With regard to the strategies, a number of different ones were combined and identified as follows (the classification corresponds to Oxford & Crookall, 1989):

- a. Cognitive strategies: reasoning a situation and analysing a context through text scanning and skimming, schemata reconstruction through visual prompts and cognate words, inference of meaning based on experiential knowledge and prediction of the meaning of a text by comparing and contrasting their L1 knowledge with L2.
- b. Memory strategies: based on the creation of a meaningful context (a story in this case) to situate learning; the visual aids accompanying the poem provided an opportunity for the trainees to store information and retrieve it later.
- c. Metacognitive strategies: shown in the way in which the trainees were scaffolding their learning based on questions and answers. Various behaviours, such as pointing and trying to say a word aloud, are examples of a cognitive strategy. Although not transcribed, the trainees went on to analyse the sentence structures in Dutch and came up with a grammar rule for the use of personal pronouns.
- d. Affective strategies: although less frequent, these techniques can be seen in the way in which trainees react to the task in hand and how self-reinforcement acts as a process to encourage them to continue with the task. Trainee Three commenting ‘well done me’ is an example of keeping the motivation going, which may have had an effect on Trainee Two, the least motivated one in the group.

The extract also shows a logical sequence in the use of strategies which was previously noticed in informal observations and analysis of voice recordings. The sequence consisted of six steps:

- Stage one: Activating prior knowledge by exploring a source.
- Stage two: Discussing findings by focusing on evidence to support claims.
- Stage three: Negotiating meaning (co-constructing understanding) by engaging in exploratory talk.
- Stage four: Selecting key pieces of information from the source.
- Stage five: Using those key pieces of information to produce novel L2 structures including self-assessment.
- Stage six: Rehearsing L2 production whilst providing peer-feedback.

The above conversation (Table 11) finishes with the trainees identifying nouns, verb to be, and adjectives. This enabled them to build simple sentences using the structure subject, object, verb, complement (S+O+V+C), which they used in the context of colour descriptions of an object.

Dörnyei (2005, p.191) states that self-regulation of academic learning, such as learning languages, is a ‘multidimensional construct, including cognitive, metacognitive, motivational, behavioural, and environmental processes’, which also encompasses the ‘volitional aspect of self- and task-management that provide the individual with the capacity to adjust his or her actions and goals to achieve desired results’ (Snow, Corno & Jackson 2000, p.751). The sequence of strategy use as described above is a clear example of planning and organisation of learning linking to metacognitive awareness and self-regulation. The stages identified in the resolution of problem solving in the current study are in line with the findings reported by Tseng, Dörnyei & Schmitt (2006), which focus on self-regulation capacity, which they referred to as the *strategic fuel* that enables learners to achieve positive outcomes. These researchers claim that ‘innate self-regulatory capacity fuels their [learners’] efforts to search for and then apply personalised strategic mechanism’ (Tseng *et al* 2006, p.79).

Vaughan & Garrison’s (2005) framework was applied to five recorded interactions (R1-R5) and the frequency of occurrence from these, showing the number of occurrences by phase, can be seen in Figure 10 below. With the exception of R3, the phases occur in very similar proportion. Showing that in this conversation, there is a greater number in the *exploration* phase, leading to an increase in both integration and resolution.

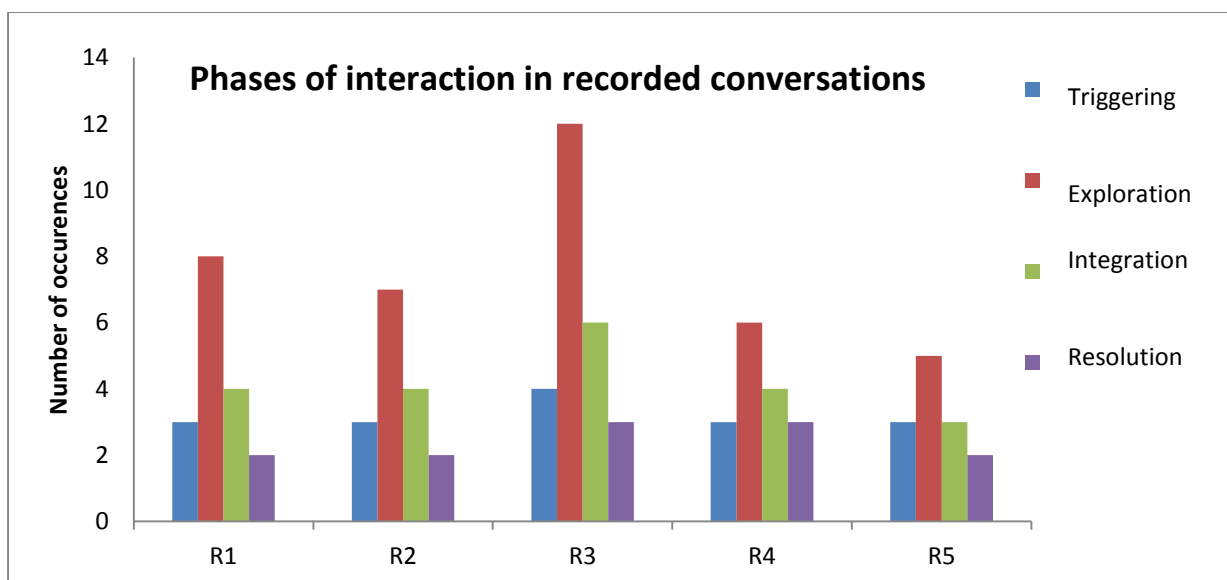


Figure 10 Phases of interaction (Vaughan & Garrison, 2005) in recorded conversations

Additionally, the number of occurrences in the *triggering* phase is almost identical to the number in the final phase, which show that collaboration in the form of *exploration* and *integration* led to a successful completion of a task.

Rajala, Hilppo & Lipponen (2012) claim that *inclusive exploratory talk* is characterized by a great number of occurrences of integration. In the interactions analysed the integration phase included convergence amongst the members of the group, convergence within a single message, connecting and synthesizing ideas and creating solutions. This was a fundamental stage in the development of collaboration which resulted in a successful completion of tasks, and incidentally, fostered learning. Research undertaken by Rajala *et al* (ibid) showed that there was a direct relationship between exploratory talk and integration, an interactional move that tends to characterize symmetrical interactions. Also findings by Linell, Gustavsson & Juvonen (1998) indicate that integration makes conversations locally coherent, mutually responsive, progressive and non-imposing as was the case with the conversations analysed in the present study.

Finally, the analysis of the five recordings (R1-R5) also showed that the trainees used metacognitive strategies, including planning, assessing one's learning, comparing and contrasting features of L1 with L2, amongst others, more often than other strategies. Cognitive strategies, such as skimming, scanning and reconstructing schemas were followed in frequency of use whilst compensatory strategies, for example, using miming or similar words to overcome gaps in communication, and affective strategies, such as managing one's emotions and activating positive beliefs and attitudes, were used to a very limited extent. This is summarised in the figure below:

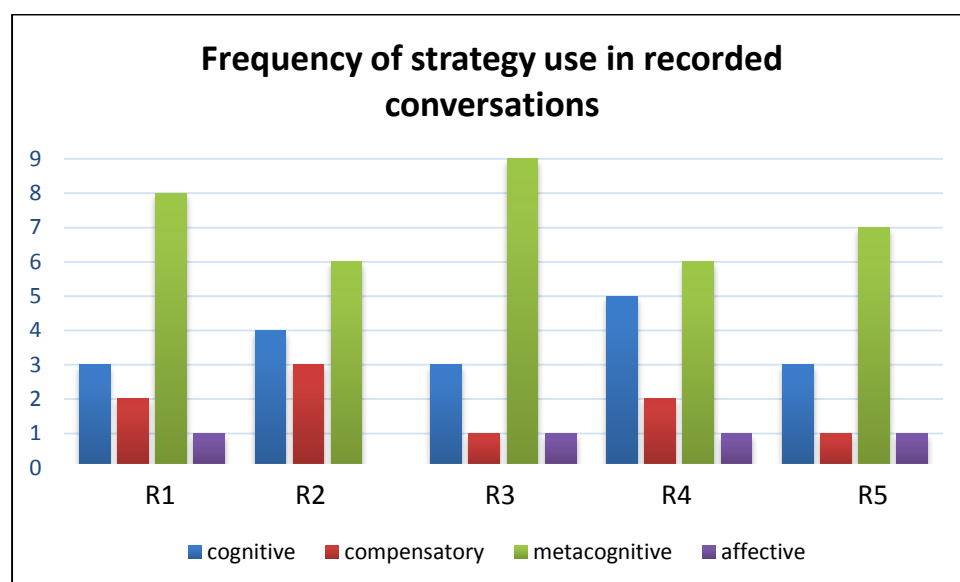


Figure 11 Frequency of strategy use in recorded conversations

4.8 Analysis of the language audit

Having started workshop one with a very limited amount of L2 knowledge at the level of single lexical units (words), by the end of workshop six, the trainees were able to communicate and exchange simple information. The results of the language audit ascertained that all the trainees (n= thirty) achieved level A1 in reading followed by listening (n= twenty two), writing (n= nineteen) and speaking (n= seventeen). On average sixty four per cent achieved level A1 with four trainees achieving A2 in reading. These results were further discussed with the trainees, who were positive about the intervention, and their comments reproduced below were representative of their views:

I was terrified at the beginning. I hated the idea of making mistakes in front of everyone! But I was gladly surprised to see how much I've learnt in these two weeks. I wish I had been taught in this way when I was in secondary school (MN).

It was very good to work with [mentions peer] because we learned from one another. If we made a mistake, it didn't matter too much. It was cool, actually. It didn't seem that we were learning as it was fun and relatively easy to be able to understand. When I read the comments on my journal I am really impressed at the amount of things I've done considering that I've always hated French (PW).

The development of reading skills in L2 over other skills was also reported by Koda (2005) and Sparks *et al* (2006). These studies showed that the development of reading comprehension in a target language is directly influenced by the existing literacy skills that learners have in L1.

4.9 Analysis of trainees' views after the intervention

The views that trainees provided at the end of this case study indicated that the intervention introduced after workshop two addressed the negative attitudes, perceived lack of ability and low self-esteem which had been identified as potential barriers for learning leading to anxiety and stress. The use of a revised model of a strategy-based approach enabled the trainees to gain basic L2 knowledge, whilst developing an interest in the process of learning facilitated by high levels of motivation resulting from the use of a collaborative approach. The trainees employed talk partners to negotiate strategies, test out hypotheses, create new language and rehearse their production in a private and more intimate setting. This was identified by the trainees as a *non-threatening way*, positively encouraging learning. A comparison of trainees' views is provided below:

Table 12 Trainees' views before and after the intervention

Problem	Before intervention	After intervention
Attitudes	<i>I had French at school but never learnt anything, we only copied words from a book or from the word and lessons were very boring. (NC)</i>	<i>Working with someone else was engaging and less embarrassing...(NC)</i>
Ability	<i>It [Spanish] was very difficult to get the pronunciation right and was hard to memorise long lists of words. (PJ)</i>	<i>It was relevant to know how I can use this model to say what I want ...(PJ)</i>
Self-esteem	<i>What! (giggles) No, I can't do that! [using a puppet] I feel silly and it's worse with my rubbish French. (LR)</i>	<i>I am shy but it was positive as I wasn't put on the spot, so I relaxed...(LR)</i>

One fundamental aspect of this change of mindset emerged from the last journal entry where twenty two trainees, representing seventy three per cent of the group, indicated that they had increased their confidence and were more willing to take risks prompting a re-interpretation of their individual history of language learning. This contributed to changing their original reticence about learning an L2 whilst increasing the levels of motivation and engagement. When analysing the outcomes of a language course, Stryker & Leaver (1997, p.307) state that 'if a program meets students' linguistic, cognitive and affective needs, motivation is enhanced' and add that 'students express higher motivation when real issues become the centre of study'. Additionally, the fact that the learning experience reported in this study was self-managed by the trainees meant that they had a control of the challenges they set themselves and that these were within the range of their understanding. If the content of learning had been beyond their abilities, perhaps motivation would have suffered.

4.10 Analysis of reflective journals

After reading some random journal entries, I noticed that there was an emerging trend in relation to the trainees' perceptions of the development of their subject knowledge for teaching. In order to explore this trend, I undertook an examination of the journal entries that the trainees were requested to complete after workshop six, identifying and summarising common views. This analysis showed that twenty four trainees had a fragmented view of their training, which might have been because of the way in which the PGCE materials and course organisation had

been structured. The prevalent view was that the University-based sessions were to gain subject knowledge and that the school experience would enable trainees to apply the subject knowledge whilst developing teaching skills. This view created a new tension as the trainees felt that the school experience would not allow them to increase their L2 knowledge, as summarised by one journal entry:

Having learnt many things in French over the two initial weeks of the course, leads me to think about how I can increase my vocabulary and my confidence in my school when teaching. (JB).

4.11 Summary and reflection

The main outcomes of this case study are summarised as follows:

1. The use of a revised version of the SBI approach encouraged the trainees to challenge their original views and perceptions about learning another language, in particular, their attitudes, ability and self-esteem, which produced feelings of stress and anxiety.
2. The levels of anxiety noticed at the beginning of the study did not act as barriers for learning; rather, these levels were within an acceptable range and the behaviours associated with anxiety were a normal occurrence of a learning tension which dissipated after the intervention.
3. As the trainees gained confidence in using a revised SBI approach, they were able to use metacognitive skills to develop a sequence for the management and use of strategies enabling them to solve language problems and identify further learning needs. This sequence included the following stages:
 - Activating prior knowledge by exploring a source.
 - Discussing findings by focusing on evidence to support claims.
 - Negotiating meaning (co-constructing understanding) by engaging in exploratory talk.
 - Selecting key pieces of information from the source.
 - Using those key pieces of information to produce novel L2 structures including self-assessment.
4. Out of the different types of strategies, trainees used metacognitive ones the most to regulate their learning. In contrast, affective strategies (those regulating feelings) were the least used.
5. The use of a talking partner technique encouraged collaborative learning, including the use of think-aloud protocols to encourage exploratory talk, provided tools for trainees to develop their L2 subject knowledge. The identification of triggering events corresponded

to the resolution/application phase facilitated by collaboration in the form of *exploration* and *integration*.

6. Prior learning experiences of L1 literacy seemed to facilitate the transference of skills into L2 reading. Listening and writing were also developed to a lesser extent whilst speaking was the least developed skill.

Although this group of trainees appeared to have improved their subject knowledge and levels of confidence whilst studying at the University, a question remained for me about what would happen to their subject learning whilst they were in their school placements. This question therefore led me to consider an alternative model of training where L2 subject knowledge could be developed alongside teaching expertise. I undertook bibliographical research to find out about approaches that would encourage L2 learning in the workplace and the findings were used to make amendments to the intervention. As a result, I redesigned the strategy-based approach applying the models of cognitive apprenticeship to foster learning in a community of practice including the trainees, the mentors and the pupils, which I tested out in a second case study.

CHAPTER FIVE CASE STUDY TWO

5.1 Context

The purpose of this study was two-fold: first, it aimed to test out a revised SBI model for learning and teaching modern languages in the context of the trainees' school placement, using a framework of cognitive apprenticeship (CA) and secondly, it sought to gather information about the outcomes resulting from the use of a revised SBI approach with children in order to compare them with the learning outcomes of a more traditional L2 teaching model.

This study was carried out in an urban mixed school attended by a large number of pupils for whom English is an additional language (EAL). One hundred and eighty four pupils were on the school register and eighty per cent were classified as learning EAL, forty seven per cent were included in the special educational needs (SEN) register and seventy per cent received free school meals. Both teachers and pupils came from a range of different ethnic and social backgrounds, mirroring the demographic composition of the local area. Ofsted (2009) had praised the good quality of teaching and learning following an inspection that took place shortly before the study was carried out. The school mission statement emphasised the uniqueness of its learners and took pride in the diversity of its pupils and staff population. The senior management team was pro-active in setting up links with local agencies, in particular with complementary schools and community forums with which they had good links. The development of linguistic and cultural awareness was embedded in the school curriculum and, at the time of the study, pupils in KS2 were running a project where pupils, teacher assistants and class teachers shared their languages and cultures in lessons and in assemblies. The pupils I spoke to during this study were keen to talk about their individual identities and were respectful of others' views, taking an interest in getting to know other cultures. One pupil, whilst checking a story book in Punjabi, indicated: *"I like it when we learn about other people and how they live. I like to know about the clothes they wear and how they write and read"* (pupil JA). The school taught French in Year Three and Year Four and Spanish in Year Five and Year Six. A more detailed description of the participants' backgrounds (trainees, mentors and pupils) is provided in the next section.

This study ran from October 2011 until January 2012, coinciding with the trainees' first school placement. Nine KS2 mentors volunteered themselves and their teaching groups to take part in this study and the whole research population consisted of the following participants:

Table 13 Groups participating in case study two

Year Groups	Age	Number of children	Trainees	Mentors
Year 3	8			
Group 1		17	1	1
Group 2		21	1	1
Group 3		20	1	1
Year 4	9			
Group 4		19	1	1
Group 5		18	1	1
Group 6		20	1	1
Year 5	10			
Group 7		12	1	1
Group 8		20	1	1
Year 6	11			
Group 9		16	1	1
Total		163	9	9

5.2 Participants

There were three categories of participants in this study:

- a) Trainees who had previously participated in CS1.
- b) Mentors who provided trainees with guidance and support in the development of teaching knowledge and skills. The mentors were chosen following a purposive sampling technique which resulted from the information they provided in relation to their previous L2 learning experiences. The criteria followed in this selection consisted of three aspects: mentors who (a) achieved below a C grade in a GCSE exam in a foreign language, (b) did not have any formal training in learning modern languages since leaving secondary school or during the past twenty years and (c) had not had any contact with speakers of another language at the time of the study.
- c) Pupils who were taught by the mentors and the trainees. They represented ten per cent (n= sixteen) of the pupil population. The children were monolingual speakers and were

randomly selected. A summary of participants, including trainees, mentors and pupils, is provided in the table below:

Table 14 Sample of participants in case study two

Participants	Age	Sex	L2 personal history
PGCE trainees (x9)	between 28 and 46 years old	6 F 3 M	The trainees took part in CS1 and were familiar with the SBI approach. The trainees had shown an initial concern about developing their L2 subject knowledge as they thought that the school setting would not provide them with enough opportunities to increase and develop their L2 skills further.
School-based mentors (x9)	between 30 and 50 years old	8 F 1 M	None of these participants had tried to learn another language since secondary school. They believed that language learning, although important, was very difficult, and considered that there were people with a particular 'flair for languages' that did not include them. All the mentors were experienced teachers and also had considerable experience in supporting and developing trainees' teaching skills.
Pupils (x16)	between 8 and 11 years old	12 F 4 M	None of the pupils had attempted to learn another language or had been in contact with a non-native speaker of English and displayed a variety of attitudes towards learning an L2.

5.3 Data collection and analysis

The following techniques were used to gather information:

(a) Observations of lessons: forty three lesson observations in total were undertaken by me, the mentors and the trainees in the following sequence:

- a) Nine lesson observations where I observed trainees teaching mentors and pupils.
- b) Nine lesson observations where I observed mentors teaching trainees and pupils.
- c) Fifteen lesson observations where mentors observed trainees teaching pupils.
- d) Ten lesson observations per trainee where they observed mentors teaching pupils.

All observers followed a COLT schedule as explained in section 3.8.3 on page 87. In order to ensure consistency in the use of the COLT model, the mentors took part in a session where they received training and used the observation schedule prior to the start of the study. The observations of lessons by mentors and trainees were undertaken as part of the requirements of the PGCE course and they consisted of observations of sixty minutes lessons or parts of them. The observation reports were analysed following the same questions used in CS1 and presented

in section 4.3 (a) on page 104 as these proved to be a good way of exploring data with greater insight.

(b) Focus groups: In total four focus groups were carried out, two with the trainees and two with the pupils. These took place at the beginning (October) and at the end of the school experience (January).

1. **Focus groups with mentors:** the topics discussed in CS1 were repeated with the mentors because they had generated insightful views when first used. The topics related to (a) advantages of learning another language for children, (b) the perception of difficulty when learning another language, (c) the role of a language specialist teacher when teaching languages to children and (d) the suitability of a generalist primary school teacher to teach modern languages. A further topic was introduced in the second focus group which related to the mentors' views on the experience of learning and teaching languages and how this had influenced their original perceptions. Each focus group was attended by four mentors who volunteered to take part and lasted for approximately forty five minutes.
2. **Focus groups with children:** children were asked to complete two sentences using metaphors and were asked to discuss their views associated with the sentences. The advantage of using metaphors to engage children in discussions has been presented and discussed in section 3.8.7 on page 93. There were two focus groups, which had a duration of thirty minutes and was attended by six children each time. In the first focus group, the discussion was around "*Learning to speak French/Spanish is like...*" I wrote their opinions down on a flip-chart pad during the discussion, after which I checked that these were fully representative of their views. I did this by reading out the comments to gain the children's assent. The views they discussed in the first group, such as "*learning to speak French/Spanish is like building a house/is like going to a friend's party*" were used in the second focus group to check whether the pupils had elaborated their understanding of what they experienced when learning the target languages. The same procedure for recording views used in focus group one was repeated in focus group two as discussed in section 4.3 (b) on page 104.

(c) Reflective journals /logs/ field notes:

Trainees' reflective journals: the trainees were required to keep a reflective journal as a requirement of the PGCE course and were asked to reflect on particular learning experiences during their school placement. The number of entries written by the trainees

varied, with some producing one or two entries a week. The structure of their entries followed the model of *structured debriefing* (Gibbs, 1998) as explained on page 106.

Mentors' logs: the mentors completed an entry after each lesson they taught and the number of entries varied from mentor to mentor; however, on average one entry per week was completed. Three questions were used to organise the structure of their writing, namely: (a) What was the incident? – Description of an event, (b) What happened during the lesson and why? – Analysis, and (c) What can I do to achieve better outcomes as a language learner and as a mentor? – Actions. In total sixty two entries were completed.

My field notes: I recorded my views at different points during the study and organised the contents following three questions: (a) What happened? – Identification of an incident (b) why did it happen? – Analysis, (c) What is the relevance of the incident in relation to the aims of my study? – Synthesis. My field notes allowed me to elaborate micro-theories which I later confirmed or rejected as the study progressed. In total seventy two entries all varying in length were produced.

The understanding of an *event* or *incident* that was shared by the trainees, the mentors and myself followed broadly the concept of *critical incident* as defined by Tripp (1983). This is a problematic situation which is unique, significant and memorable and which prompts reflection (Schön, 1987). In order to manage the amount of the narrative produced by myself, the trainees and the mentors, entries were summarised into three areas: (a) identification of a learning incident, (b) how the incident was resolved and (c) the new learning emerging from the experience that enabled the mentors, the trainees, the pupils and myself to develop an understanding of learning in a model of community of practice.

(d) Voice recording of think-aloud protocols and talk partner discussions: the trainees, mentors and pupils recorded one discussion per lesson. As the number of recordings was considerable, twelve randomly selected tracks were chosen for analysis. This followed a two stage procedure: the first stage consisted of the identification of I-R-F sequences and the second involved the use of Vaughan & Garrison's (2005) analytical framework (Table 10, page 116) to explore phases of interactions and their content.

(e) Language audit: the audits, as in CS1, were completed by the trainees, the mentors and the pupils at four intervals which I called pause points. These points were arbitrary breaks taking place every three or four weeks. The outcomes of the audits provided an indication of the development of listening, reading, speaking and writing based on the CERF.

5.4 Initial problem

As a result of a disjointed perception of training noticed by the trainees in CS1, I used the modified SBI approach trialled in the previous case study but within the model of cognitive apprenticeship (CA). The rationale for the use of CA was that the trainees would teach the mentors how to learn an L2 through the use of language learning strategies, whilst the mentors would embed the strategy-based approach in the context of different school subjects when teaching children whilst modelling practice for the trainees to follow. This is illustrated in the examples provided in Figure 14 on page 127. Learning through CA would also increase the trainees and mentors' L2 subject knowledge, support the development of mentors' professional skills in the area of modern languages, enrich pupils' learning experience and contribute to the development of the international dimension of the school curriculum.

5.4.1 The cognitive apprenticeship (CA) process

The mentors met with the trainees twice a week after the school day to review performance, plan lessons and model practice. Working collaboratively both the mentors and the trainees built on each other's experience and skills: the trainees provided support to mentors in the development and use of language strategies by applying the models I had previously used with them, whilst the mentors provided support to the trainees with the development of their teaching skills. The process of collaboration and reflection undertaken by the trainees and the mentors followed the stages discussed in section 2.12.1 on page 51 and summarised in Figure 12.

The next sections present and discuss the data according to the three categories of participants: mentors, trainees and pupils.

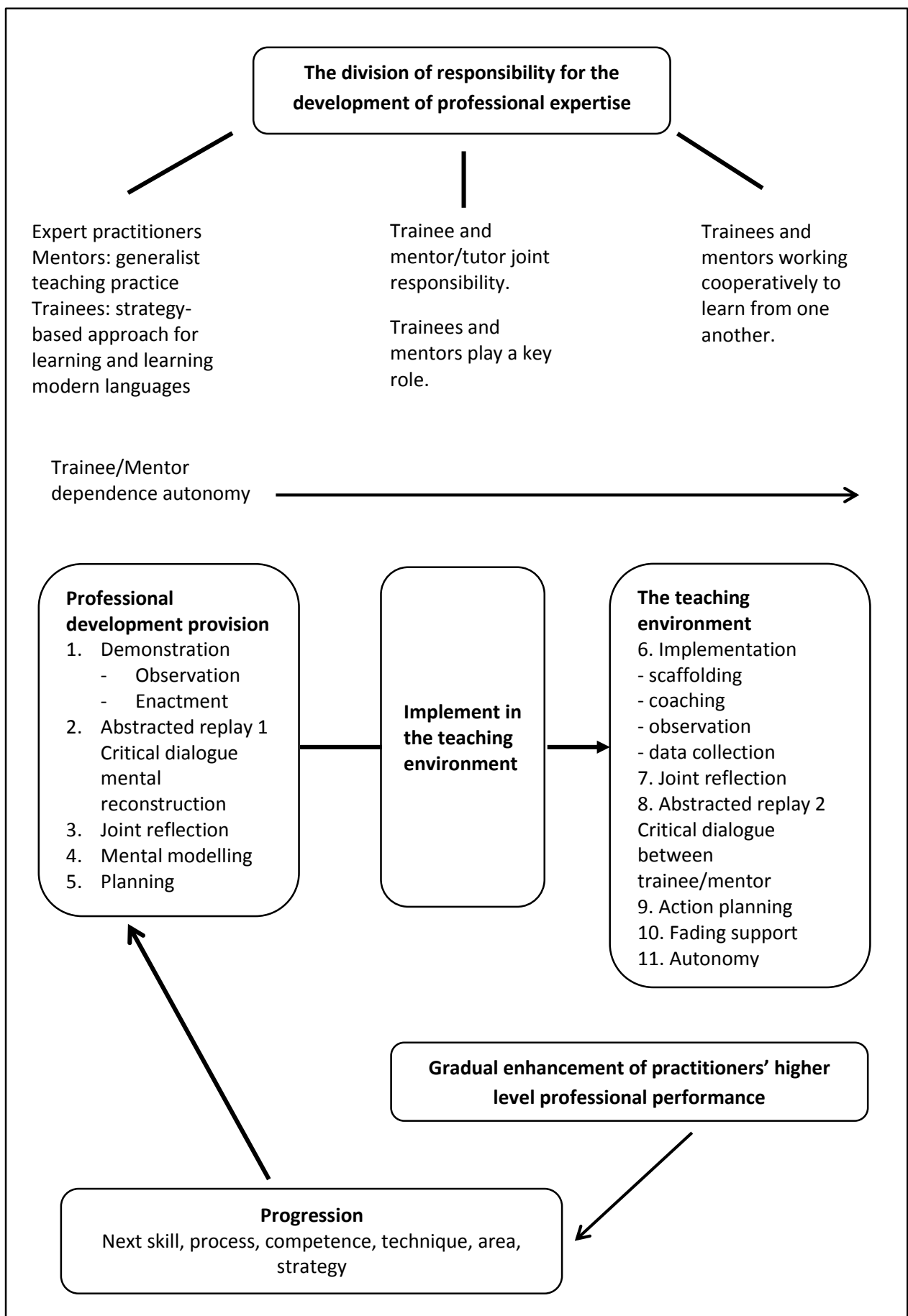


Figure 12 Model of cognitive apprenticeship used in case study two

5.5 Mentors' performance

The information on mentors' performance was obtained through focus group, observation reports, recorded conversations and language audit results.

5.5.1 Focus group and log entries

A focus group was used to explore the mentors' initial thoughts on learning and teaching modern languages. Key ideas were written down on a flip-chart pad according to the frequency of occurrences of particular views and these helped identify common topics. These topics were put into categories and summarised into ten statements, which the mentors ranked in order of importance on a scale of one (the least important) to ten (the most important). These views are presented in the table below:

Table 15 Ranking of mentors' views on teaching and learning an L2

<i>Mentors' views about L2 learning</i>	<i>Rank</i>
Learning languages widens people's horizons.	10
The best way to learn another language is to live in the country where the target language is spoken.	9
The younger a person is the better an L2 is learnt; the older a person is the more difficult it is.	8
Learning another language is difficult.	7
Accurate grammar and pronunciation are essential when learning an L2.	6
Specialist teachers should teach modern languages.	5
English speakers are not good at speaking other languages.	4
Modern languages should be taught in the primary school.	3
Modern languages should be made a compulsory subject in primary schools.	2
Modern languages should be taught by the class teacher.	1

The results showed that the mentors' initial approach to the experience of learning another language was similar to that of the trainees at the beginning of CS1. They thought that modern languages should be taught by a specialist teacher as this area was beyond the scope of the knowledge of a generalist primary school teacher. This opinion was repeated in the mentors' logs, many of which indicated a lack of expertise in the area, thus seeing language learning as

a challenge. They also emphasized the view that specialist teachers with a secondary school background were better equipped to teach languages as they were seen to possess the necessary expert knowledge, skills and competences. This perception was in line with log entries where the opinion that a secondary school teacher was better qualified to teach was unanimous. A representative sample of those views are presented below:

I don't mind trying, it's always good to learn especially something that represents a challenge, but I'm aware of my limitations and I believe a secondary school teacher should be teaching MFL. (AA)

[It] would be good to learn something. I never learnt a language because I've always thought it was difficult but I am happy to give it a go though I'm not a linguist. (BN)

It's good to have a chance to learn French. I've tried in the past but I was a bit lazy. I'm not good at it but I can learn something from others. I'm not a linguist and can only speak French with a broad Yorkshire accent. (CR)

The mentors' comments regarding the role of the specialist teacher may have resulted from a usual practice adopted by primary schools where peripatetic secondary school specialists would teach modern languages in a primary school setting. This was the case in the school where this study took place and it appeared that the mentors could have been influenced by this practice, which might have led them to hold particular beliefs which influenced their attitudes towards teaching languages. Borg (2001, p.176) defines *belief* as 'a proposition which may be consciously or unconsciously held, is evaluative in that it is accepted as true by the individual, and is therefore imbued with emotive commitment'. Lim & Chan (2007) claim that the values and beliefs of teachers affect their perceptions of learning and teaching and these have a direct impact on their understanding of the subject matter, the relationship with students and the classroom climate (Silverman, 2007). Such beliefs develop during the years teachers spend at school – first as students, then as student teachers and teachers, as discussed by Bolhuis, (2000), De Vries (2004), Hargreaves (2000), Kelchtermans (2008). De Vries, van de Grift & Jansen (2013) also argue that over time and with more use, beliefs grow robust, so the earlier a belief is acquired, the more difficult it is to alter (Murphy and Mason, 2006; Pajares, 1992). Nevertheless, and contrary to the opinions gathered in CS1, the mentors did not mention negative past learning experiences with modern languages as barriers affecting their willingness to learn and anxiety and stress were neither observed nor discussed.

5.5.2 Observations, recorded conversations and log entries

Data emerging from observations, recorded conversations and logs indicated that the mentors in this study followed the same sequence of metacognitive processes that allowed the trainees

in CS1 to process information and plan their learning. This procedure consisted of six stages, namely:

- Stage one: Activating prior knowledge by exploring a source.
- Stage two: Discussing findings by focusing on evidence to support claims.
- Stage three: Negotiating meaning (co-constructing understanding) by engaging in exploratory talk.
- Stage four: Selecting key pieces of information from the source.
- Stage five: Using those key pieces of information to produce novel L2 structures including self-assessment.
- Stage six: Rehearsing L2 production whilst providing peer-feedback.

However, whereas the trainees in CS1 used talk partners mainly for the purpose of practising L2, the mentors used this technique to discuss and agree on a next step for learning, as illustrated by the following excerpts that were typical of the mentors' views:

The good thing was that I knew what areas I wanted or needed to develop next time and I knew how to do it. (AA)

If [gives name] got stuck or if I wasn't sure about something, we could juggle different ideas and come up with an indication about what to do next. (JS)

The identification of the next step for learning became the seventh stage in the planning procedure.

The above comments also show instances of the scaffolding stage in Vaughan & Garrison's (2005) model of CA. In this framework scaffolding is preceded by the stages of modelling and coaching. These three stages, modelling, coaching and scaffolding, are 'designed to help students [trainees, mentors and pupils in the context of this study] acquire an integrated set of skills through processes of observations and guided practice' (*ibid*, p.13). The entries showed that working with a peer in solving a language task not only provided the mentors with an opportunity to discuss their understanding of the target language, but also increased their confidence to practise the language in a safe setting without being worried about making mistakes or being ridiculed.

Hortwiz *et al* (1986) explain that the reason for this apprehension emerges from adults' life experiences. When adult language learners engage in learning, they do so with a complex milieu of experiences, motivations, and expectations that affect the way in which they approach and understand their own learning processes. These authors argue that adults typically perceive themselves as reasonably intelligent, socially adept individuals, sensitive to different

sociocultural mores and they argue that these assumptions are rarely challenged when communicating in L1 as it is not usually difficult to understand others or make oneself understood. When learning another language, however, a combination of affective factors, which are unique to language learning, produce some degree of anxiety and stress leading to apprehension and reticence. This seems to explain why feelings of apprehension and low self-confidence were more frequent amongst the mentors and the trainees than amongst children who did not show signs of concern when making mistakes. On the whole, children were more eager to experiment with the new language than either the mentors or the trainees.

Nonetheless, the mentors acknowledged that they felt *less intimidated* when working with a partner or in small groups and were more encouraged to use the L2 independently, as one mentor explained:

I was terrified about making mistakes but I realised this was a bit silly and if I made a mistake or if I found something hard, I knew that [X] would help me out. In the end it was not so much about making mistakes but about experimenting and check if what I wanted to say actually made any sense. (NB)

NB's comment, which represented the views of the other mentors, is an example of the articulation stage in the model of CA. In this stage learners have an opportunity to show understanding by incorporating the outcomes of their reflection, aiming to solve problems on their own.

The collaborative work with the trainees increased their creativity and improved their planning and teaching skills. These results are in line with those of Liu (2005) who studied the advantages of using CA to improve teaching performance. One of the advantages of this model was the development of higher order thinking skills. A good example of this is shown in the journal entry below which was typical of the entries produced by the mentors:

Working together in planning French lessons was a very good experience because I learned the language and I was able to show the trainees what teaching strategies to use. Learning the language was not as difficult as I initially thought it would be and they were very good at indicating how to learn new words. Children absolutely loved French and it was really good to see them so excited about the lessons. They were particularly shocked when we told them that we were learning French with them. They liked it when we said we didn't know a word and asked them to teach us. I thought that teaching French was going to be daunting at first, but I actually enjoyed it as much as the children did. (CR)

CR's entry is an example of emerging reflection, which is a central stage in a CA as discussed in section 2.12.1 on page 49. According to these authors the active engagement with reflection enables learners to gain a better insight of their practice with the potential to transform it. Observation of mentors teaching L2 showed that, as they gained in confidence and language skills, they took increasing risks when planning and delivering their lessons showing clear evidence of transformative practice as is shown in Figure 12. They would normally apply the teaching models provided by the trainees, but making adjustments or introducing topics from a novel perspective, making learning more appealing as the target language was used in creative ways. The mentors gradually developed their confidence by linking the target language with other areas of the curriculum, making the L2 learning more meaningful for children. This is also an evidence of a *community stage* in Vaughan & Garrison's (2005) model where learners share and compare their thinking with peers and experts and introduce changes resulting from their reflection. For example, mentor JS started with the teaching of isolated words, progressively using her developing subject knowledge in L2 to plan and deliver more complex language in the context of other school subjects:

<p>Date: 06/12</p> <p>Topic: talking about pets, describing size and colour using 'and'.</p> <p>Comments: JS tended to rely on trainee to pronounce words when children asked questions. Although JS had revised the key language items in advance with the trainee, she was very concerned about making mistakes.</p>	<p>Date: 21/02</p> <p>Topic: Numeracy</p> <p>Comments: JS used numbers in French to do a mental calculation exercise as a starter activity. She modelled the activity with the trainee and then allowed the children to play a game using numbers in the target language. JS was confident with the subject knowledge.</p>	<p>Date: 18/04</p> <p>Topic: Science – The solar system</p> <p>Comments: JS introduced the words for the planets and the sun in French using inflatable props. Asked the children to use talk partners to work out meaning and then explained the topic in French followed by comprehension questions.</p>
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Figure 13 Examples of increased L2 subject knowledge and teaching creativity

5.5.3 Recorded conversations

With regard to use of talk partners, the analysis of four recordings (R1-R4) of the mentors working collaboratively on the resolution of a same task showed that they were active in the use of exploration occurrences as indicated by the number of instances that were solved successfully in the resolution/application phase. The greater occurrences of exploration,

however, might have been indicative of asymmetric interactions dominated by outspoken individuals or by a group struggling to move the discussion forward because of disagreement. Also, the number of exploration instances could have been the result of insecurities or unresolved learning tensions which prevented integration taking place thus reducing the chances of successful resolutions.

Table 16 Phases of interaction in mentors' recorded conversations

Recordings	Triggering	Exploration	Integration	Res/Application
R1	6	14	7	5
R2	5	8	5	5
R3	6	12	6	5
R4	6	10	5	5

5.5.4 Language audit

The language audit explained in section 3.8.2 on page 85 was applied at four pause points. At each of these the attainment level for four language skills, namely: speaking (S), listening (L), reading (R) and writing (W) was measured for each mentor and the results can be seen in the following table. Numbers indicate how many mentors achieved a particular attainment level per language skill at each pause point, with the darkest shade indicating the highest achievement per skills.

Table 17 Mentors' development of language skills

Results of language audit: mentors' progression per language skill

	Pause Point 1				Pause Point 2				Pause Point 3				Pause Point 4			
CERF Levels	S	L	R	W	S	L	R	W	S	L	R	W	S	L	R	W
A (Beginner)																
A1	4	4	8	4	3	4	9	4	5	6	9	4	7	6	9	5
A2	3	3	4	3	5	4	7	5	5	4	7	4	5	4	7	4
B (Intermed)																
B1	1	1	1	0	2	1	6	2	2	3	3	3	2	3	5	3
B2	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	5	1	2	1	2	1

The figures showed that reading was, by far, the skill that the mentors developed more consistently throughout the study, whilst speaking was the least developed skill. This result seems to indicate that language skills do not develop all at the same time and with the same level of competence regardless of the strategies used; an argument discussed by Cohen (2011). Another possible explanation for the results of the audit may be explained by the fact that strategies used for reading are the easiest to transfer from L1 to L2 as a result of prior literacy

experiences and skills acquired through L1. Interestingly, these results showed a similar pattern of development of language skills as identified in CS1.

5.6 Trainees' performance

The information to determine the trainees' performance in this case study was collected from journal entries, observation reports and results of the language audit.

5.6.1 Journal entries

Upon reading the journals, eight out of nine trainees had indicated some apprehension about teaching the mentors who were already seen as the experts; however, this barrier dissipated as the interaction between the two groups increased. The collaborative practice between the trainees and their mentors developed into opportunities for mutual learning as they engaged in joint activities which included lesson planning, preparation of resources, rehearsal and teaching. As the trainees and the mentors participated in these activities, the perceived social distance that separated the trainees (or novices) from the mentors (or the experts) decreased as they both adopted the same role of learners. An informal conversation with one trainee confirmed these views, which were also shared by the other trainees in their journals, and transcribed below:

Me: Tell me about one highlight...

MN: I think I was a bit worried about teaching my mentor

Me: How did that change?

MN: She was keen to learn and showed an interest so that made things easier for me.

Me: How was that easy?

MN: Well, I think that while the others only observed their mentors teach, I had the chance to teach her how to teach French to the kids. When we met after school, we all supported one another. We taught the mentors and they showed us how to develop our teaching.

Me: What did you gain from this experience?

MN: It was good to move from the observations at the beginning –which were obviously very important, to teach with my mentor together and then plan together and rehearse the lessons. I felt more confident.

Me: Was it a daunting experience to teach French in the end?

MN: no, not at all... it was because the way we worked with the lessons, planning and practising French that I think I developed my confidence.

5.6.2 Observations and journal entries

Observations of the trainees' teaching showed that they created opportunities to embed the target language into the topics of the lessons thus making meaningful links and promoting learning which was engaging, relevant and fun for the pupils. This is shown in the observations notes I gathered from lessons taught to a year three and a year six class, respectively:

<p>Date: 3/10 Group: Year 3 Lesson: Numeracy Topic: Mental arithmetic (French)</p> <p>ML introduced numbers 0 – 10 in the target language using the interactive whiteboard. She provided a model for the children to repeat. Clapping was used for memorisation. Talk partners were used for practice. Game used to revisit pronunciation.</p> <p>ML introduced number bonds in groups of 10 until 100. Modelling was followed by repetition. Talk partners used for practice.</p> <p>ML introduced simple operations (+ - x /): children asked to read out problems and solve followed by mental arithmetic exercises.</p>	<p>Date: 28/10 Group: Year 3 Lesson: Humanities – History Topic: World War II (Theme) (French)</p> <p>ML elicit today's date in the target language by using a calendar on the interactive whiteboard. Recap on numbers and months followed by asking children questions about age, birthdays, numbers of people in their families, pets and school subjects.</p> <p>ML showed a WWII photograph on the interactive whiteboard. Children were asked to focus on details (there was a calendar, a clock, a street sign). ML elicited children's views by asking questions in L1. ML switched to L2 and asked questions: what day is it today? Where do I live? What's the time?</p>
<p>Date: 20/10 Group: Year 6 Lesson: Physical Education (Spanish) Topic: Sports</p> <p>JB and class teacher modelled a conversation in L2 (what's the matter? I have a headache). Comprehension questions followed. JB introduced parts of the body using the class teacher to model and show (head, arms, legs, eyes, nose, mouth, etc.). In groups of three children practised the new language.</p> <p>JB introduced action words which the class teacher modelled in slow motion (walk, stroll, jog, run, jump, sit, stand up, stand still, relax). Group practice using actions. Total physical response followed. Game: 'Pierre says...'</p>	<p>Date: 17/11 Group: Year 6 Lesson: Literacy (Spanish) Topic: Narrative language</p> <p>JB presented a comic strip in L2 (daily routines). JB checked comprehension by asking questions in L1. Children used different clues in the pictures (such as time of the day, clothes, and characters in each frame). JB wrote time phrases on the board: In the morning; at 8 o'clock; at noon, etc. Then JB wrote action words (get up, have breakfast, go to school, etc.) using a different colour pen. Children repeated model after JB. Pair work for practice. JB read a story in L2 and children put the frames of the comic strip in the correct order. Children floated around tables to compare. RT called out an action for children to identify and show. Focus on pronunciation.</p>

Figure 14 Comments following lessons taught by the trainees

The nine trainees used both the core and foundation subjects to embed the teaching of the target language and the learning tasks they used showed an increasing awareness of the acquisition

of the L2 subject knowledge through the use of strategies. This awareness was also identified in the journals where the trainees discussed with confidence about how they articulated and managed the strategies used to gain an understanding of their own learning. The following entry was representative of the trainees' perceptions:

Reflective journal (JB)
Entry: 16/12
I found it interesting to think about those ideas or concepts that I already have as a speaker of English and how they could be used to understand another language. I can see the point of using these techniques for getting the gist of a text. I can refer to the format of a text and then, from my previous knowledge, I can concentrate on features such as headings and graphics, and accordingly build my understanding progressively. Whilst doing so, I am mentally building hypotheses which I will confirm as I progress in my understanding of the text by finding evidence. If the evidence is not so easy to find, I then may have to use some guessing or prediction to work out what the text is about; the important thing, however, is that I remain focused on building the meaning of the text and linking it with my previous knowledge.

Figure 15 Trainee's journal entry

JB's entry above provides a good example of reflection and self-regulation of learning which occurred as the trainee became engaged in a process of inquiry, showing ownership of the learning process. JB was able to identify, by means of reflection, how language strategies enabled her to learn by drawing on her L1 experience, discussing the processes she used in order to achieve understanding.

Observations of the lessons taught by the trainees showed that they actively incorporated the theoretical principles of the revised SBI approach as summarised in section 2.14 on page 66. Examples of this are provided in the table below:

Table 18 Examples of the trainees' use of a revised SBI approach when teaching

<i>Revised SBI principles</i>	<i>Example</i>	<i>Language purpose/function</i>
Exploring learners' interests and needs	<i>'You are about to complete the writing part of the task. It might be a good idea to discuss with your partner how you are going to go about doing because...'</i>	Articulating pupils' needs
Contextualising language learning and making it meaningful	<i>'By following the instructions, you will improve your speaking skills in French, get very good grades when you go to secondary school and you will feel really confident when talking to a French person...'</i>	Motivating to take action
Using and elaborating on prior learning	<i>'So, what did you do last week when you had a very similar exercise to complete? What writing strategies did you use then? Jog your memory with your partner and come up with at least three strategies that you used.'</i>	Eliciting existing knowledge
Focusing on learning outcomes and self-regulation	<i>'Fantastic...you've mentioned... those strategies can be very, very helpful' 'Ah! Be careful... I don't think this is a right strategy for this type of task. Can anyone give me the reasons why not?'</i>	Giving positive and corrective feedback
Enabling collaboration by discussing what learners already know and by peer scaffolding	<i>'Let's have a look at the strategies we can apply to work out this listening task. Look at the list on the board. You'll find some that you have already mentioned. With your partner try to find a combination of strategies, for example, listening to the tone of voice and guessing whether the speaker is happy or sad.'</i>	Raising awareness of a wide range of strategies
Developing autonomy by encouraging learners to reflect on their learning developing shared cognition	<i>'Which of the strategies in the list do you think you can use in other school subjects? Check the list with your partner and try to think of a situation where your identification of a strategy will allow you to learn better.'</i>	Raising awareness of opportunities for strategy transfer
	<i>'Can anybody tell me if there is a way to make this particular topic more enjoyable applying all the strategies you know so far?'</i>	Encouraging a strategic approach to learning

5.6.3 Language audit

Table 19 shows three different levels of attainment in the language audit which was administered at the end of the study and the number of trainees who achieved them in the skills of reading (R), writing (W), listening (L) and speaking (S). So for instance, out of nine trainees two achieved level A1 for reading and two trainees achieved level A2 for writing. It was interesting to note that out of the four language skills, reading scored the highest with two trainees achieving level B1. A possible explanation for this result may be attributed to the considerable amount of reading materials that the trainees were presented with during the course of the current study.

Table 19 Trainees' performance in language audit in case study two

Level	Description	R	W	L	S
A1	Can understand and use familiar everyday expressions and very basic phrases aimed at the satisfaction of needs of a concrete type. Can introduce himself/herself and others and ask and answer questions about personal details such as where he/she lives, people he/she knows, and the things he/she has. Can interact in a simple way provided the other person talks slowly and clearly and is prepared to help.	2	7	5	6
A2	Can understand sentences and frequently used expressions related to areas of most immediate relevance (e.g. very basic personal and family information, shopping, local geography, employment). Can communicate in simple and routine tasks requiring a simple and direct exchange of information on familiar and routine matters. Can describe in simple terms aspects of his/her background, immediate environment and matters in areas of immediate need.	5	2	3	2
B1	Can understand the main points of clear standard input on familiar matters regularly encountered in work, school, leisure, etc. Can deal with most situations likely to arise when travelling in an area where the language is spoken. Can produce simple, connected text on topics which are familiar or of personal interest. Can describe experiences and events, dreams, hopes and ambitions and briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions and plans.	2	0	1	1

5.7 Pupils' performance

The trainees and the mentors embedded the L2 input within different subjects in the curriculum, as shown in Figure 13, following the procedure presented in section 4.5 on page 110, which consisted of the stages of presentation, comprehension, assisted practice and reflection. This input was variable and dependent upon the subjects and the topics and ranged between fifteen minutes to half an hour.

5.7.1 Focus group

The information to determine the pupils' performance was collected by means of focus group, recorded conversations and results of the language audit. Pupils viewed learning an L2 as a practical activity which was linked to varied purposes, such as working, travelling, and for fun. For instance, some children commented that: *'I can use some words if I go to France'*, *'I can make new friends who speak French'* or *'I will be able to do well in French when I go to secondary school'*. These views were also indicative of their positive attitude towards L2 (French) and of their high levels of motivation. In a focus group the pupils stated that:

Me: Complete this sentence: learning French is like...

P1: Learning French is like going to a party

Me: Why?

P1: Hmm... because it's fun, you sing, dance and have a good time.

P2: It's like building a new house...because you learn few words, then you use more and then you can say lots of things

Me: So when you build a house...

P2: When you build a house you use some bricks, then more and then you build a room

P3: Learning French is like when you wear new clothes... you're a different person (sic).

Halliday & Matthiessen (2004) argued that conversations are built on particular linguistic structures through which meaning is conveyed. These authors explained that in conversations individuals use distinctive discursive features to establish different semantic relationships through the ideational function of language. Halliday (1973, p.106) claimed that 'it is in the ideational function that the text-producer embodies in language their experience of the phenomena of the real world'. The ideational function, according to Butt *et al* (2000, p.5) encodes experiences and the relationships between them through the use of particular syntactic structures and choice of words. Using this perspective of conversational analysis, the use of verbs of material process in the above exchange indicated that the children regarded the learning of French as a purposeful activity (similar to, say, going to a party, building a house, wearing new clothes) related to an object (the learning of French) where the agents (themselves) were seen as active participants in the process and engaged with the object rather

than mere recipients of it. It is important here to note that children’s views emerged within a learning environment where multilingualism was promoted and celebrated.

5.7.2 Recorded conversations

In order to explore pupils’ engagement and participation when undertaking problem-solving tasks, I used Aljaafreh & Lantolf’s (1994) regulatory scale when analysing recorded conversations. Regulation, according to them refers to the transition that an individual makes when moving from being unskilled to being skilled or from being *other-regulated* to becoming *self-regulated*. Initially, a learner requires considerable support from an MKO, but this support fades away as the learner becomes more competent (less other-regulated) and is able to do or achieve more on their own (more self-regulated). The regulatory scale ranges from *other-regulated* to *self-regulated*, where learners support one another in completing a task without the support of the teacher whilst taking turns as the MKO to scaffold one another.

Table 20 Regulatory scale for feedback from the implicit (strategic) to the implicit (with support) (Aljaafreh & Lantolf 1994, p.471)

0 Other-regulated	Teacher asks learners to work in pairs to read, identify and use strategies to understand a text, prior to the introduction of the lesson topic.
1	Construction of a ‘collaborative frame’ prompted by the teacher, who requests learners to explore an unknown text in L2 in pairs as potential dialogic partners.
2	Prompted or focus reading of the text undertaken individually by both learners.
3	Learner A underlines a sentence and identifies it as the topic sentence. ‘This is about (...) because of (...)’. What do you think?’
4	Learner B rejects unsuccessful attempts at recognising the topic sentence.
5	Learner A breaks down the parts of the text by repeating or pointing to the different parts which are linked to the underlined sentence.
6	Learner A indicates the nature of the text, but does not provide an answer. ‘I think you need to focus on this part’ (pointing at the specific paragraph where the topic sentence is located).
7	Learner B identifies the topic sentence, reads it aloud, translates it into L1 and produces another one in L2.
8	Learner A rejects Learner B’s unsuccessful attempts at producing another sentence in L2.
9	Learner A breaks down the topic sentence into smaller units and focuses on the verb form (‘it is not really past but it is about something that is still going on’).
10	Learner A provides a correct sentence.
11	Learner A provides some explanation for use of the correct verb tense.
12 Self-regulated	Learner A provides examples of the correct pattern.

As the pupils’ confidence and L2 knowledge increased they moved towards the self-regulated end of the scale. This was facilitated by the use of tasks which were similar to those used in

L1, such as filling in an application form with personal information or identifying characters in a known story. This enabled mental schemas to be activated by discussion.

When discussing their views, the pupils used higher order thinking skills to explain, discuss and infer, thus enabling *linguaging* to emerge. Linguaging is defined as the use of language to mediate cognitively demanding complex activities and affective processes (Swain, 2006) and used in activities such as think-aloud protocols that are cognitively complex and which necessitate the use of language to mediate thinking (Lapkin, Swain & Psyllakis, 2010). These features are illustrated in the conversation transcript below. The conversation was recorded when year three pupils were working in pairs to understand a story in L2 based on the Very Hungry Caterpillar (Carle, 1969), which they knew in English. The topic of the lesson was talking about food and drinks and the conversation is transcribed using Hutchby & Wooffitt's (1998) conventions for the analysis of spoken interactions. This transcription technique captures the ideational function of language by considering interactions between speakers and the role of the context where utterances have been produced for the purpose of analysis. The technique follows the principles of discourse analysis using the framework of Functional Linguistics as discussed in section 5.7.1.

Table 21 Analysis of pupils' conversation

Task	Children interactions	Strategies	Analysis
Children are presented with a set of four picture about the Very Hungry Caterpillar in French. Some key pictures have been blurred on purpose. They have been asked to predict what the story is about.	A: I like the colours...hmm. What is this? Can you see?	Skimming	Child A initiates the conversation posing a question to her peer. As they both try to make sense of a blurred picture, child B answers the question providing a reason for her opinion but child A does not seem happy with the answer as she notices that other children have different pictures so she requests support from the teacher.
	B: Looks like a train see the shape? It has sort of carriages here.	Scanning	
	A: No! Wait! They have different pictures. These ones are about food. Miss J, what do we have to do?	Planning	
	<i>Miss J provides an explanation.</i>	Organising	
	B: Ok... So I think this goes first.		
	A: No, that is probably somewhere in the middle.		

	<p>A: If we put this first here and then we put that over here it looks nice...</p> <p>B: What does it mean though?</p> <p>Is this French? Yes it is!</p> <p>A: Oh yes! Miss J, is this French?</p> <p><i>Miss J approaches and asks a question.</i></p> <p>B: [Rubs his stomach] That means eat [repeats after the teacher <i>manger</i>] I see... I think this is a story.</p> <p>A: Yes, the beginning here and that's the end because the ... The thing is getting fat...</p> <p>B: It isn't a train then.</p>	<p>Guessing</p> <p>Negotiating</p>	<p>Child B identifies a word in the target language which leads him to re-elaborate his understanding. Child A seeks reassurance from the teacher whilst child B says the word out loud following the teacher's model. Both children at this stage have developed their understanding and they are able to relate the set of pictures to a sequence in the story. Child A identifies a beginning and the end of the story.</p>
<p>The pictures contain a sentence which has been covered on purpose. The teacher instructs the children to remove the cover so that the sentence is displayed.</p>	<p>B: It is French! [Reads out <i>lundi elle a mangé one pom</i>].</p> <p>A: Un... It's un!</p> <p>B: Un... Un... What's this? [points at a picture].</p> <p>A: Looks like an apple.</p> <p>B: Apple is apple in French.</p> <p>A: [Uses an online search engine]. It's a tomato and it's <i>pomme</i>.</p> <p>B: <i>Pomme</i>.</p>	<p>Rehearsing</p> <p>Comparing and contrasting</p> <p>Using support resources</p> <p>Developing mutual engagement</p>	<p>Child B reads out the text in L2 and looks for clues in the picture. Child A corrects the pronunciation of child B. Both children use their prior knowledge to support the understanding of the task and negotiate views. Child A identifies a key word and uses an online search engine to look up meaning.</p>
<p>Children have a laptop on their desks. The teacher tells the children to use an online search</p>	<p>B: <i>Lundi elle a mange une pomme</i>.</p> <p>A: Yes...</p>	<p>Rehearsing</p>	<p>Child B reads out the sentence and child A provides positive feedback.</p>

<p>engine only twice to look up the meaning of words.</p>	<p>A: Elle is a girl so... Hmm... <i>Lundi</i> is Monday. She eats one tomato.</p> <p>B: On Monday she eats a tomato.</p> <p>This is the first picture 'cause it tells us what she does.</p> <p>A: And when... This is the beginning... Yeah?</p> <p>B: So it doesn't mean then that because the sentence is long. Here! This is the last one.</p> <p>A: Who is she?</p> <p>B: Wait! Maison is house and...</p> <p>A: This is like <i>const...</i> Construct, and <i>petite</i> is little. She constructs a little house.</p> <p>B: On Monday she eats and then she constructs a little house.</p> <p>A: I don't know the other stuff...</p> <p>B: This means two.</p> <p>A: And this is weeks. See?</p> <p>B: I know. This is what she does in two weeks.</p> <p>A: And then this goes here because she does this first, then she does that.</p> <p>B: And this is the last one, a butterfly.</p>	<p>Self-monitoring</p> <p>Going beyond the immediate knowledge</p> <p>Hypothesising</p> <p>Guessing from context</p> <p>Translating</p> <p>Think aloud</p> <p>Analysing</p>	<p>Child A moves away from the pronunciation and explores individual lexical categories. She identifies the subject of the story and this enables both children to develop their understanding further. Child B uses think-aloud protocols to explain his thinking processes using languaging. Both children explore the text in L2 and manage to identify more lexical items. They use translation to scaffold their understanding.</p> <p>Both children use the pictures as deictic references to support their understanding, for instance, child A, whilst moving the pictures to re-organise the sequence, she uses <i>this</i>, <i>that</i> and <i>here</i> revealing the mental processes that she uses in planning and executing cognitive strategies.</p> <p>Child B re-elaborate his understanding using L1, but he notices that there is something inaccurate as he recalls prior information. He uses miming to compensate for the word he cannot remember. Child A understands and</p>
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	<p>A: <i>Papillon</i>. Uh, I know, it's a butterfly.</p> <p>B: The butterfly eats, then builds the house and then flies away.</p> <p>A: Yes, we got it, we got it!</p> <p>B: But hang on... No, no it's like the hungry caterpillar! It is like a moth and it becomes a butterfly.</p> <p>A: So first the caterpillar eats one tomato on Monday so this goes here.</p> <p>B: Yes then she builds the thingy [moves arms] where she lives.</p> <p>What's it called?</p> <p>A: The cocoon.</p> <p>B: The cocoon, so this other goes after that.</p> <p>A: And then it becomes a butterfly and flies away.</p>	<p>Negotiating</p> <p>Inferring</p> <p>Overcoming gaps in communication</p> <p>Deciding</p>	<p>provides the word that Child B is thinking about. Both children achieve a common understanding, supporting one another and developing their mutual cognition. They are now ready to move from the assisted comprehension stage to the L2 production stage.</p>
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In the conversation above it is possible to see how the pupils progressively moved from the other-regulated end of the scale towards a more autonomous performance where the pupils supported one another, using both a variety of strategies and languaging to achieve a joint understanding.

The strategies used by children in this study were identified by analysing conversation transcripts as shown in Table 21. All the strategies were then grouped into five categories (memory, cognitive, metacognitive, social and compensatory) following Oxford's (1990) taxonomy of language learning strategies and a range of strategies for comprehension (memory) and for planning (metacognitive) their learning were used by the pupils. Also, the use of compensation strategies –such as gestures when they fell short of vocabulary in the target language was particularly relevant to keep conversations going. The children used the latter category of strategies, either for a phatic purpose or for sustaining communication, more

frequently than either the mentors or the trainees. Whereas these normally reverted to English when they could not think of a word in the target language, children employed pointing, signalling, or miming in order to get themselves understood. Table 22 shows the types of strategies most commonly used by the children.

Table 22 Language strategies used by pupils in case study two

Memory	Cognitive	Metacognitive	Social	Compensatory
Remembering words to a rhythm, tune or rap; read-cover-visualise-write	Repetition	Thinking aloud	Negotiating	Obtaining and using resources
Repeating words over and over or saying them loud to oneself	Summarising meaning	Planning	Participating	Overcoming gaps in communication (using gestures)
Remembering set of words	Guessing meaning from context	Inferring	Collaborating	Using miming
Creating a story using key words as characters		Analysing	Showing one's interest and an interest for others	
Looking out for patterns and memorising		Hypothesis-ing		
Translating		Deciding		
		Comparing and contrasting		
		Self-monitoring		
		Rehearsing		

In all the instances in the recorded conversations, the high level of engagement and collaboration provided pupils with an opportunity to develop their learning autonomy which also enabled them to support the learning of their peers, as one pupil explained:

I like French because we're all teachers! We teach ourselves how to learn. (P1)

The pupils were pro-active in seeking opportunities to extend their knowledge of the target language and in using support systems in order to develop their autonomy. It was frequent to

see children challenging their peers, for example using the target language during break time, when talking to one another.

Blatchford *et al* (2006, p.751) argue ‘that in many classroom settings, students are actively discouraged from interacting with their classmates and so they fail to develop skills that will help them in ways that are productive for learning’. Contrary to this, the pupils in this current study showed an awareness of how to organise and plan their learning, established ground rules for turn-taking, showed an understanding of cooperative work to achieve a learning goal and jointly managed to self-direct their learning. This way of working together produced a shift of focus from the teacher and placed it on the learner, thus making the learning experience more learner-centred. Learner-centred approaches emphasise the engagement of the learner in the educational process and focus on the student success (Huba & Freed, 2000).

The range of strategies employed by the children, the trainees and the mentors was varied and their preferences for particular strategies was also diverse. For instance, pupils used online dictionaries to find out the meaning of unknown words; however, adult learners very rarely used this strategy as for them learning the pronunciation of a new word was more important than finding meanings. Another contrast between the pupils and the mentors and trainees was the use of metacognitive strategies, such as the setting of learning goals. Whereas pupils’ goals were simpler and more straightforward than those of the mentors or the trainees, it was clear that in the latter case the goals were more demanding possibly because of different expectations and life experiences.

However, it also became clear that pupils were not aware of the full array of strategies available to them and this meant that a lot of time was spent unproductively. Clearly, they needed to learn all the strategies available, so that they could make an informed choice as to the most appropriate strategy for a particular learning context. The focus, therefore, necessarily switched from language learning to strategy learning. This was seen as a limitation as pupils required strategy practice in a familiar context prior to use for the purpose of language learning. Notwithstanding, the use of talk partners to identify, discuss and solve problems followed the same trend already identified in CS1 and also with the mentors in the current study: in a resolution of a language task, the number of occurrences for the exploration phase was considerably higher than those in the other phases, showing that through exploratory talk the pupils were able to solve most of the events identified in the triggering stage. This is shown in the figure below resulting from the analysis of four recorded conversations between pupils where each conversation is indicated by R5, R6, R7 and R8.

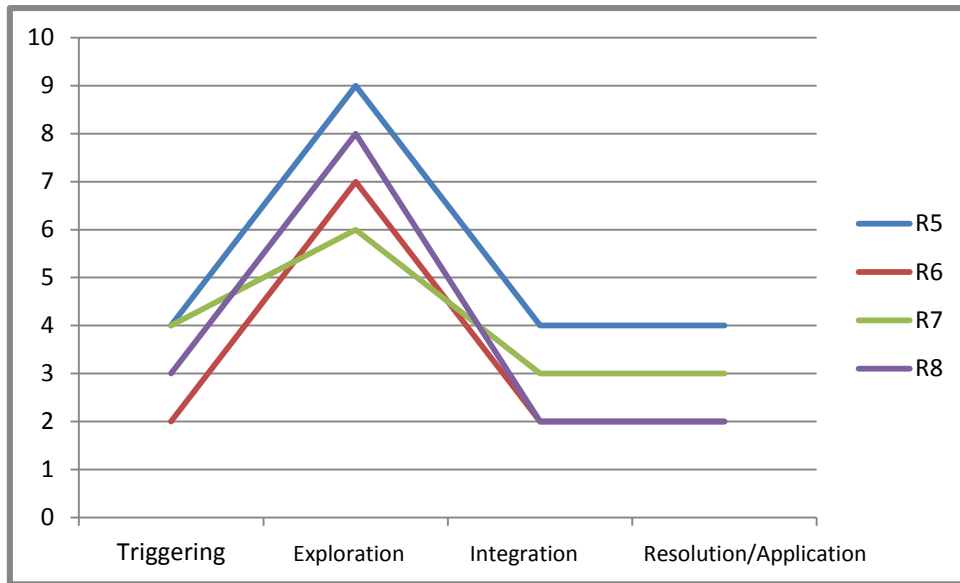


Figure 16 Types and frequency of pupils' interaction occurrences in pupils in case study two

5.7.3 Language audit

The language audit explained in section 3.8.2 on page 85 was used as a diagnostic tool to gather information about which skills the pupils developed the most during the current study and the information was useful to compare the extent of such development per individual skill. These results are shown in Figure 17 below. At the end of the current study, reading (R) was the most developed skill whilst speaking (S) was the least developed of the four skills. Writing (W), in turn, scored lower than listening (L). These results seem to suggest that the use of a modified strategy-based approach with children promoted the development of receptive skills (reading and listening) over the productive ones (speaking and writing).

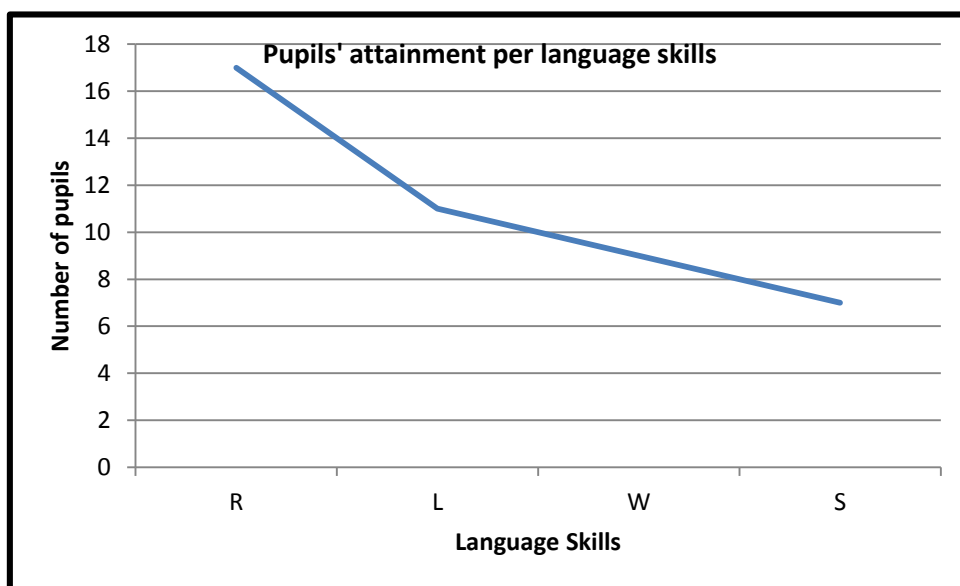


Figure 17 Pupils' development of language skills in case study two

5.8 Summary and reflections

Using a model of cognitive apprenticeship (CA) in this case study involved my participation performing the role of MKO which I took when initially teaching the trainees and introducing them to the modified SBI model. As they developed their knowledge and understanding of the strategy-based approach, my support faded away gradually and the trainees, now acting as the MKO, developed the mentors' capacity to use language learning strategies to learn and teach L2. In turn, the mentors took up the role of MKO to develop the trainees' teaching skills, using a model of CA as a tool to develop and enhance teaching. Both the mentors and the trainees became the MKO when teaching L2 to pupils, who by virtue of negotiation and interaction, alternated roles to scaffold one another's learning, thus becoming the MKO.

This model enabled the trainees, the mentors and the pupils to develop a more active role by bringing them from a legitimate peripheral participation to increased participation in the community of learning and inquiry where the core business was to learn L2 using a revised strategy-based approach. The collaborative model employed in this study, where trainees and mentors learnt one from the other, sought to develop opportunities where learning and teaching was reflected upon, discussed and enhanced by using a CA model. This enabled both the trainees and mentors to be actively involved in their professional development by interrogating their teaching through a process of inquiry and reflection. It also enabled the trainees and the mentors to develop new skills in their working/learning environment whilst encouraging pupils to support one another when learning an L2. Graphically, the model followed in this case study is represented as follows:

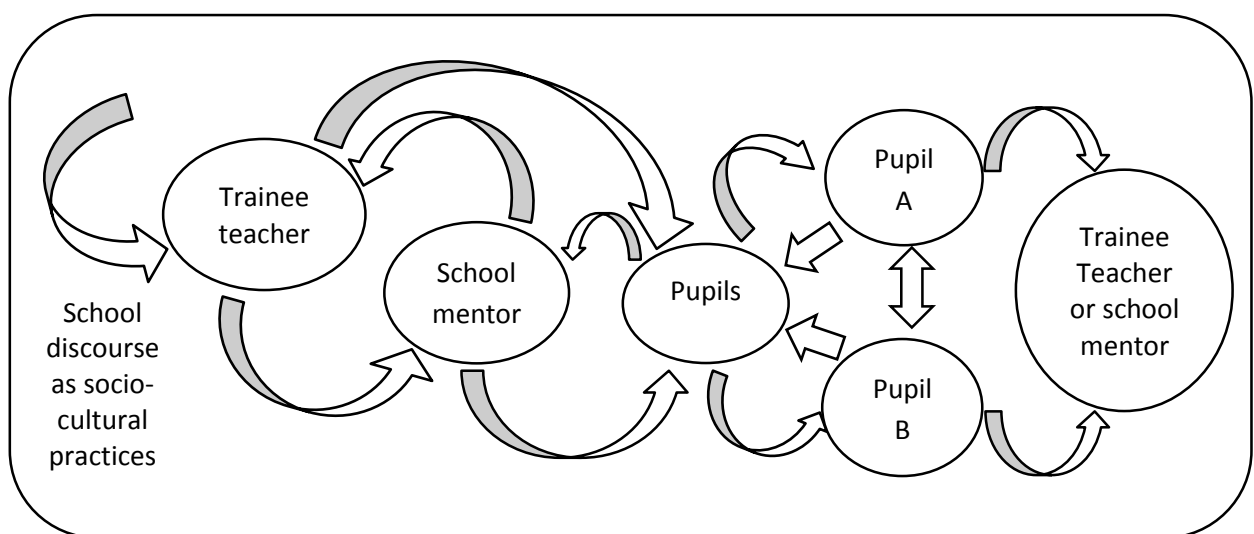


Figure 18 A revised SBI approach within a framework of a community of learning

By using the revised strategy-based approach within a framework of a community of learning, with the trainees, the mentors and the pupils I applied the concept of *brokering* (Wenger, 1999). Wenger (ibid) claims that some individuals within a community of practice take on the role of brokers, making connections to other communities of practice and translating knowledge from one domain to another acknowledging that good brokers are essential to the evolution of a community of practice. In the model employed in this current case study, the prime enterprise of the community was to learn an L2 using language strategies and I brokered the practice of the strategy-based approach to the trainees, who became experts in the practice and, in turn, brokered this to both mentors and pupils.

A summary of the outcomes of this study according to each category of participants is presented below:

a) Mentors

1. Feelings of stress and anxiety related to L2 learning were not noticed. The mentors had a positive disposition and were willing to learn.
2. The increasing expertise in the use of a revised version of the SBI approach encouraged the development of self-regulation of learning and autonomy.
3. Mentors followed the same procedures employed by trainees in CS1, consisting of six stages:
 - Activating prior knowledge by exploring a source.
 - Discussing findings by focusing on evidence to support claims.
 - Negotiating meaning (co-constructing understanding) by engaging in exploratory talk.
 - Selecting key pieces of information from the source.
 - Using those key pieces of information to produce novel L2 structures including self-assessment.
 - Rehearsing L2 production whilst providing peer-feedback.
 - Agreeing on the next stage for learning. This was a further step introduced by the mentors.
4. A collaborative approach to learning through the use of a talk partner technique enabled mentors to develop L2 skills increasing their teaching confidence and independence in the use of L2 in lessons.
5. The model of CA was a positive experience of in-house training as the mentors acquired new skills whilst sharing their teaching experience with the trainees.

6. Reading was the skill the mentors developed the most, followed by listening and writing; however, speaking was the least developed skill. These results mirrored the ones obtained in CS1.

a) Trainees:

1. A revised version of the SBI approach used within the CA model:
 - Facilitated a quick engagement in teaching, leaving the periphery of practice by teaching the mentors and the pupils. As the trainees' subject knowledge and confidence developed, so did their use of language strategies which were used creatively when teaching.
 - Allowed trainees to model the use of language strategies to mentors whilst mentors modelled effective teaching practice to the trainees.
 - Enabled trainees to continue to develop their L2 subject knowledge and teaching confidence.
 - Reading was the most developed skill, followed by listening and speaking, with writing being the least developed skill.

b) Pupils:

1. The creative use of the revised SBI approach embedding the target language into different areas of the curriculum kept pupils active whilst increasing their levels of motivation.
2. Using a talk partner technique enabled pupils to sustain their engagement and promoted their learning autonomy by using exploratory talk and alternating the role of the more knowledgeable one.
3. Limitations in the identification and use of some strategies were noticed, resulting in the pupils being unable to verbalise complex cognitive processes or support their peers because of the lack of abstract language. Consequently, training in the use of certain strategies in a familiar context before using them to learn L2 was necessary. This changed the focus of teaching as the pupils had to be familiar with strategies first prior to being taught how to use them to learn L2.
4. The most developed skill was reading, followed by listening and writing whilst speaking was the least developed skill.

In order to gain a better understanding of how effective the model of learning languages using a strategy-based approach is in a school context, a further case study was set up to compare outcomes obtained in the current study with those of a more traditional approach to language learning. The focus of the comparison was two-fold: on the one hand, it looked at opportunities for the trainees to develop L2 subject knowledge and teaching expertise and, on the other hand, it also considered the pupils' attitudes to language learning as well as the development of L2 skills and learning outcomes.

CHAPTER SIX CASE STUDY THREE

6.1 Context

The purpose of this study was to compare and contrast results with the ones obtained in CS2 to (a) identify which teaching model (either strategy-based or PPP) produced better learning outcomes and (b) determine whether the cognitive apprenticeship (CA) in CS2 or a mentor-led training model in CS3 enabled trainees to develop both L2 subject and pedagogical knowledge. The mentors in this case study were language specialists who followed the PPP approach. Whilst I will make no claims about generalisations from a comparison between single case studies, nevertheless such comparison has the potential to illustrate important issues in approaches to teaching and learning modern languages and point the way to areas for further studies discussed, which will be discussed in chapter eight.

The study took place in a large urban mixed middle school with a population of three hundred and twenty pupils coming from different social and linguistic backgrounds. Thirty two per cent of the pupils were identified as learning EAL, thirty three per cent were on the SEN register and fifty seven per cent received free school meals. The teaching staff came from White British, Black Caribbean and South Asian backgrounds. The school, by the time of this study, had a recovery plan in place for Literacy as the most recent Ofsted inspection had indicated that the reading age of pupils was considerably below the national average. The school was facing problems with pupils' attendance which teachers identified as one of the main factors preventing learning and leading to poor academic results. Some of the teachers in the upper end of the school provision also acknowledged that low level class disruption was a further problem whilst others indicated that support from parents was limited. Spanish was taught at Key Stage Two (Years Three to Six).

The data collection took place during the trainees' school placement, which extended from October 2011 until January 2012, and nine KS2 teaching groups (including trainees and mentors) took part:

Table 23 Groups participating in case study three

Year Groups	Age	Number of children	Trainees
Year 3	8		
Group 1		16	1
Group 2		19	1
Group 3		18	1
Year 4	9		
Group 4		16	1
Group 5		20	1
Group 6		18	1
Year 5	10		
Group 7		16	1
Group 8		17	1
Year 6	11		
Group 9		20	1
Total		160	9

6.2 Participants

There were two groups of participants:

- d) Trainees who had participated in CS1.
- e) Pupils in the teaching groups taught by the mentors and the trainees. They represented ten per cent (n= sixteen) of the pupils' population. The children were monolingual speakers and were randomly selected. A summary of participants, including trainees, mentors and pupils, is provided in the table below:

Table 24 Case study three sample population

Participants	Age	Sex	L2 personal history
PGCE trainees (x9)	between 28 and 46 years old	7 F 2 M	Varied experiences in relation to learning another language but at the beginning of the study all coincided that learning a L2 was 'very difficult and time consuming'. They had attended the SBI workshops during the course induction. However, they used SBI for their own subject development but employed a different teaching approach known as PPP (see literature review) to

			teach languages to children as shown by their mentors who were all Modern Languages specialists.
Mentors (x9)	between 26 and 43 years old	8 F 1 M	They were experienced classroom teachers and mentors. They all had a secure L2 knowledge gained either by studying the language or by living abroad.
Pupils (x18)	between 9 and 10 years old	10 F 8 M	None of the pupils had attempted to learn another language or had been in contact with a non-native speaker of English. Although they were eager to use the target language, children did not show a preference for the language they were learning.

6.3 Data collection and analysis

(a) Observations of lessons: followed this sequence:

- I observed the trainees and the pupils (each trainee was formally observed twice)
- Trainees observed their mentors and pupils (each trainee carried out three observations)

Observations followed the COLT schedule as explained in section 3.8.3 on page 87 and in total eighty five reports were completed. The information recorded in the observation reports was analysed following the same procedure used in CS2 to follow a consistent approach.

(b) Reflective journals /field notes:

Trainees' reflective journals: keeping a reflective journal was a requirement of the course and the trainees were asked to focus on particular incidents during their school placement. The number of entries varied according to individual trainees, some producing two entries a week whilst others wrote only one. The structure of their entries followed the model of *structured debriefing* (Gibbs, 1998) as discussed on page 106.

My field notes: I recorded my views at different points during the study following two questions: (a) What happened? – Identification of an incident (b) Why did it happen? – Analysis, (c) What is the relevance of the incident in relation to the aims of my study? – Synthesis. The view on what constituted an incident broadly followed the concept of *critical incident* as understood by Tripp (1993) that was also used in the previous case study. My field notes allowed me to elaborate micro-theories which I later confirmed or rejected as the study progressed. In total I produced seventy two entries of varying length.

The reflective writing produced by me and the mentors was summarised under three areas: (a) Identification of a learning incident, (b) How was the incident resolved? and (c) New learning emerging from the incident.

(c) Voice recording of think-aloud protocols and talk partner discussions: one task per lesson was recorded. As the number of recordings was considerable, I randomly selected eight for transcription and I applied the same procedure used in CS1, which was based on the identification and analysis of I-R-F sequences and on phases of interaction based on Vaughan & Garrison's (2005) framework.

(d) Language audit (trainees and pupils): the audits were completed by the trainees and the pupils at four intervals which I called pause points. These points were arbitrary breaks taking place every three or four weeks. The outcomes of the audits provided an indication of progress based on the CERF.

6.4 Trainees' performance

The training model used in this case study followed the mainstream practice of interaction between mentor and trainee, where the mentor was the one modelling teaching for the trainees to follow. The trainees used a medium term plan (MTP) provided by the mentors which contained a list of topics that they were required to teach sequentially under supervision. Further elaboration of each topic was made by the trainees into a lesson plan which then had to be approved by the mentors. Lessons were fifty minutes long with an emphasis on the core subjects of English, Mathematics and Science.

6.4.1 Journal entries

The analysis of the trainees' journal entries was carried out by identifying common topics among the comments. These were grouped into those referring to the advantages and the disadvantages of the training model used in the current case study as perceived by the trainees. A summary of those views are presented below:

Table 25 Advantages and disadvantages of a restricted training model as perceived by trainees

<i>Advantages</i>	<i>Disadvantages</i>
<p>Mentors provided clear guidance on the areas that trainees needed to improve by means of targets. Trainees observed the mentor teach and adopted the same techniques.</p> <p>Mentors facilitated the development of the trainees' teaching skills based on their knowledge of a teaching group/class.</p> <p>Mentors managed the training process by providing gradual challenges, ensuring all aspects of training were covered (planning, delivery, and assessment of learning).</p>	<p>The mentor was the sole role model to follow limiting opportunities for the trainees to develop their own creativity as trainees reproduced the mentors' teaching models. A social distance between mentors and trainees was apparent as the mentors were seen as the experts by the trainees whilst the trainees were regarded as novices by the mentors and other teaching staff.</p> <p>The mentors only focused on modelling teaching and did not provide opportunities for trainees to develop L2 subject knowledge.</p> <p>The mentors' judgement on the trainees' performance was critical in determining whether or not the trainees were successful.</p>

Upon reading the journal entries when grouping trainees' views into advantages and disadvantages, I noticed that an emerging key topic was that of *structure*. This was referred to as an organising principle of practice which the trainees linked to other concepts, such as *order*, *sequence* and *process* when speaking about: (a) the sequencing of teaching topics to facilitate pupils' learning, (b) a unit of organisation to guide lesson planning, delivery and assessment, and (c) an orderly sequence of tasks which had to be satisfactorily completed to pass the course. The entries showed that the trainees were more concerned about following the prescribed teaching topics in schemes of work, medium term planning documents, teaching resources and timetable than in thinking about the development of their teaching expertise and subject knowledge. These views are illustrated in the excerpts below:

Having a scheme of work for Spanish was a good idea as I was able to revisit the vocabulary in advance and plan my lessons accordingly. (TP)

My mentors' plan gave me an idea of how to organise my own resources and adapt the ones which I needed to use for a series of lessons during a week. (SJ)

I found it useful to teach Spanish on Tuesday afternoon only rather than at any other time as I knew I had to prepare myself for that lesson. (IF)

Figure 19 Trainees' journal entries: views on the development of L2 knowledge

The over-reliance on administrative aspects of teaching, such as schemes of work, units, and timetable contrasted with the approach used by trainees in CS2 who were less concerned about these. Additionally, in this study the trainees were less keen on adapting their teaching if this was not explicitly requested by the mentors, who checked plans prior to the trainees' lessons. This model of teacher training, which I refer to as *restricted*, was focused on the gradual acquisition of the mentors' very same skills in a highly structured manner with little room for the development of the trainees' creative practice and subject knowledge. It was also noted that the trainees had to learn subject knowledge for teaching prior to lessons as this was not seen as fitting in the training model. This was indicated by one trainee whose views summed up the opinion of all the trainees in this group as follows:

Me: So what happened when you had some questions about subject knowledge? What did you do?

SJ: I had my Spanish GCSE guide which I used from A to Z. I normally memorised the words I needed for my lesson but I struggled with tenses so I kept checking with my mentor that I got it right.

Learning unfamiliar topics for teaching before lessons increased levels of anxiety and stress. This was mentioned by the trainees in their journals and was also observed during lessons. Stress normally took the form of insecurity and frustration. As a result, such adverse feelings led to a progressive halt in the use of learning strategies as trainees did not feel a need to continue to improve their language skills. Instead, they prioritised the development of other areas of the curriculum, which they thought to be more relevant for them. For example, they commented that:

“I don’t think I’ve developed my Spanish any further but I feel confident about what I know so far.” (LW)

“I had to prioritise my knowledge of Maths over Spanish as Maths lessons were very challenging; however I could get by with a couple of sentences in Spanish.” (RL)

“With all the planning and the preparation, I didn’t have the time to improve my Spanish. I knew the basics so that was fine.” (KL).

The results of the language audit were broken down into language skills and are shown in Table 26 below. These results show that no significant progress was made in relation to the scores obtained in CS1 and presented in section 4.8 on page 121. Additionally, the number of trainees achieving level A2 was considerably lower than in CS2, where they achieved a higher level in listening (L) and reading (R). However, in CS3 more trainees attained level A1 for the productive skills (speaking (S) and writing (W)) than in CS2, which may have resulted from teaching the same topics that included the repetition of the same language structures and vocabulary at a very basic level of knowledge, which could have prevented the development of further learning.

Table 26 Trainees' attainment per language skill in case study three

Level	Description	R	W	L	S
A1	Can understand and use familiar everyday expressions and very basic phrases aimed at the satisfaction of needs of a concrete type. Can introduce himself/herself and others and ask and answer questions about personal details such as where he/she lives, people he/she knows, and the things he/she has. Can interact in a simple way provided the other person talks slowly and clearly and is prepared to help.	7	8	9	9
A2	Can understand sentences and frequently used expressions related to areas of most immediate relevance (e.g. very basic personal and family information, shopping, local geography, employment). Can communicate in simple and routine tasks requiring a simple and direct exchange of information on familiar and routine matters. Can describe in simple terms aspects of his/her background, immediate environment and matters in areas of immediate need.	2	1	-	-

6.5 Pupils' performance

The information on this section emerged from the observation of children during the modern foreign languages (MFL) lessons, recorded conversations and the results of the language audit. Spanish was taught twice a week in the afternoon after the lunch break.

6.5.1 Observations

The lessons included the use of visuals, long repetition exercises and singing songs using Total Physical Response techniques, explained on section 2.3.2.5, page 15. Lessons were fast paced and normally included a combination of short tasks followed by longer ones, mainly writing. Although the pupils did not show an interest in learning Spanish, they were eager to impress others with their language skills. For instance when observing one lesson, the children engaged with me in Spanish, sharing information about their names, age, family, likes and dislikes:

“No me gusta el español porque es aburrido.” (P2)
(I don't like Spanish because it is boring).

The lack of motivation led to many instances of disruption which ranged from low level noise to pupils not following instructions and becoming disengaged. The excerpts below concerned a case of disruption that occurred on the same day viewed from three different perspectives: me as an observer (MM), a Year Four pupil (P5) and the trainee (LH) who taught the lesson:

<p>Scheduled Observation (MM)</p> <p>Topic: parts of the body</p> <p>Children were keen to repeat key vocabulary but they quickly lost focus shouting out words rather than repeating as indicated by LH.</p> <p>The level of noise was too high preventing children from completing a listening task.</p>	<p>Interview between MM and P5</p> <p><i>Me: I noticed you did very well in Spanish today but you kept chatting to your friend...</i></p> <p><i>P5: I got bored.</i></p> <p><i>Me: Why did you get bored?</i></p> <p><i>P5: Cause we've been learning the same stuff all the time and we always watch the same video.</i></p>
<p>Evaluation by LH - Spanish</p> <p>The repetition game was not suitable because it made children loud. I should have kept it shorter.</p> <p>I didn't make instructions clear for the listening task and children didn't know how to answer the questions. They interrupted the task several times. I should have stopped the activity and checked if they had understood before moving on.</p>	

Figure 20 Example of an incident seen from three different perspectives

Pupils rarely worked in pairs and from time to time used role-play in the production stage for independent language practice, but only the ones who were well-behaved and more responsive were chosen to perform at the front of the class. This was seen as a reward for good behaviour; however, the children were not happy when asked to perform for their peers and had to be

encouraged several times. Their language production, albeit fluent, was formulaic and the exchanges were memorised by rote learning prompted by long pronunciation techniques.

When the pupils were requested to explain what they were doing during a language task, they rarely showed any strategy awareness and were unable to discuss procedures for problem solving. When interviewed, the children found it difficult to explain the reasons for their answers to tasks, with the most common answer being: *“you know it because there’s always one word or a couple of them which are similar to English, so you basically guess”* (P4). Although unaware of it, the pupils in this group did use some language strategies for learning Spanish; however, these were not as varied as those used by children in CS2. This result was expected as the aim of PPP is to get learners to speak rather than think about their own learning process. The language learning strategies identified and used by pupils in this group are summarised in the following table:

Table 27 Language learning strategies used by pupils in case study three

Example of language learning strategies used by pupils in case study three		
Memory	Cognitive	Compensatory
Memorising new vocabulary items	Repeating Guessing new meaning	Using bilingual dictionaries Using body language
Using mnemonics	Skimming and scanning	

6.5.2 Recorded conversations

The results of a series of recorded conversations, indicated by R10, R11, R12 and R13 in Figure 21 showed that the occurrences of working collaboratively were considerably lower in relation to the group of pupils in CS2, as only a maximum of three instances in the exploration phase were identified. There were also fewer instances of integration indicating that opportunities for making connections to prior learning or to develop learning autonomy were fewer than those identified in CS2. This could have been a consequence of the PPP approach as used in this case study where opportunities for collaboration between pupils were minimal. Results are shown in the figure below:

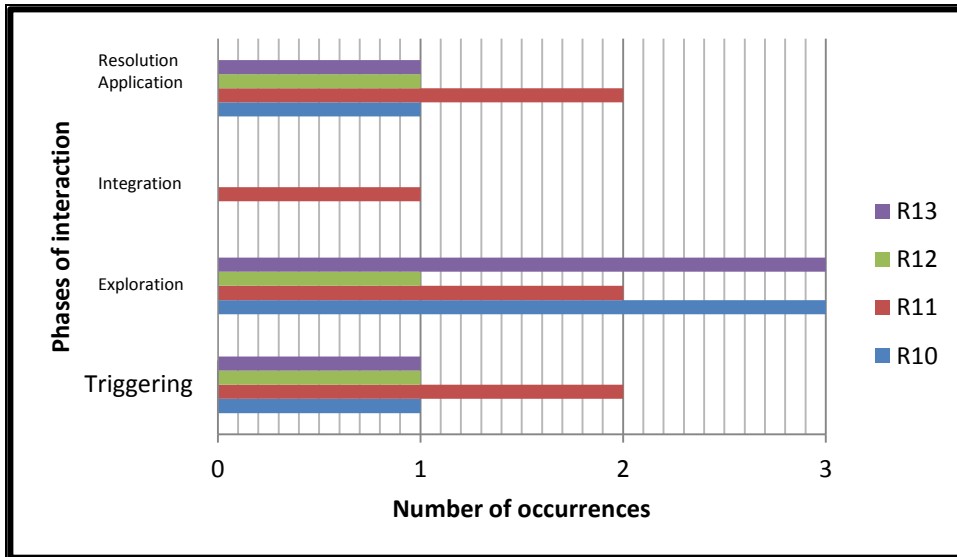


Figure 21 Types and frequency of occurrences in pupils' interaction in case study three

6.5.3 Language audit

Finally, the results of the language audit explained in section 3.8.2 on page 85, showed that by the end of the study all the eighteen pupils in the sample achieved level A2 in the four language skills. This is shown in Figure 22 below. A breakdown of attainment per language skill showed that speaking (S) was the most developed skill followed by reading (R) and listening (L) in that order. Writing was the skill that was developed the least; however, the number of pupils achieving level A2 for writing was considerably higher than those in CS2 (see Figure 17, page 151). Overall pupils in CS3 outperformed their peers in CS2 in each language skill.

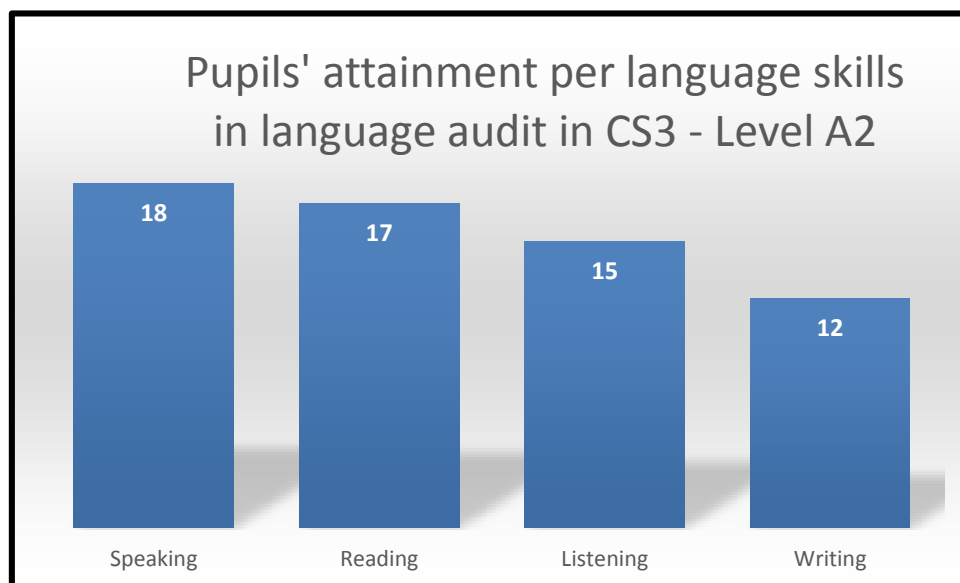


Figure 22 Pupils' performance in language audit per skill in case study three

6.6 Summary

a) Trainees:

1. They followed the mentors' guidance and direction as they were seen as the expert practitioners and teaching was focused on administrative aspects and depended on a tight structure dictated by the mentor and institutional artefacts, such schemes of work, resources, medium term planning and lesson timetables.
2. Timetabled lessons revisited the same topics contributing to a fossilisation of L2 skills as the trainees did not feel a need to continue to develop L2 subject knowledge and, as a result, they stopped developing L2 skills.
3. Revisiting topics prior to lessons developed feelings of anxiety and stress thus increasing the trainees' insecurities and frustrations.

b) Pupils:

1. They were disengaged and did not enjoy lessons possibly because these covered the very same topics which led to boredom, contributing to the development of various forms of class disruption.
2. They rarely worked collaboratively and when they did so, it was in the context of a role-play where formulaic language was used resulting from memorisation of language structures based on long repetition exercises.
3. They did not show any strategy awareness and were unable to explain the processes used when problem solving language tasks.
4. The overall achievement was considerably higher than that of the pupils in CS2. Speaking was the most developed skill closely followed by reading, listening and writing. Although twelve pupils achieved A2 for writing, this number was considerably higher than those in CS1.

CHAPTER SEVEN ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter is organised in two parts. The first discusses the main findings emerging from CS1 and CS2 whilst the second focuses on children's learning outcomes, the development of trainees' L2 subject knowledge and teaching expertise by comparing results from CS2 and CS3. Generalisation cannot be claimed as a result of the outcomes of small scale studies. Nevertheless, this chapter ends with a reflection on the implications that the results obtained in the current study have for teacher training and for schools considering the adoption of a teaching method for teaching L2 based on learning strategies used within the model of cognitive apprenticeship (CA).

7.1 Findings from case studies one and two

7.1.1 The influence of negative past experiences in L2 learning

Evidence presented and discussed in sections 4.4 and 5.5.1 on pages 107 and 132 respectively showed that negative past experiences held by trainees and mentors did not interfere with L2 learning. Although behaviours linked to stress and anxiety developed at the beginning of the teaching process in both CS1 and CS2, these decreased as trainees and mentors gained in confidence as the learning process progressed.

This finding resonates with Beder & Valentine's (1990) and Hayes' (2003) studies which indicate that the educational histories of adult learners are often complicated by negative personal experiences. This has a potential to affect intrinsic and extrinsic motivation as discussed by Vallerand and Ratelle (2000) in chapter two. Georges & Kandler (2012) draw on the concept of *self-efficacy* associated with *expectancy of success* (for example, can I learn languages?) and *attitude* linked to *values* (do I want to learn languages and why?) to explain the role of negative past learning experiences. Expectancies and values, according to Gorges & Kandler (*ibid*), develop in secondary schools and function as antecedents of adult learning motivation triggered by affective memories. Pekrum *et al* (2002), cited in Gorges & Kandler (2012), argue that emotions are related to students' academic motivation and achievement and that they may both be reflected in the value of a learning opportunity (for example, intrinsic value associated with joy) and contribute to people's self-concept of ability (for instance, if learners consistently receive negative performance feedback, this will result in frustration). Schunk, Pintrich & Meece's (2008) findings showed that affective memories are single-laden

episodes that can be remembered years later and still influence perceptions and behaviours because they relate to:

Momentous events [that] are remembered vividly [through the processes of conditioning or direct association] and continue to influence, inspire and sustain actions and beliefs long after their original occurrences that they represent for better or for worse. Pillemer (2001, p.124).

Prior uneventful experiences in learning another language may result in negative attitudes prompting adult learners to become naturally apprehensive as a result of frustrations and disappointment, a natural reaction against failure. Beder & Valentine (1990) claim that apprehension is an intuitive mechanism which occurs as a result of prior failure, which shows in over-generalisations, contempt and criticism. Houde (2006), in addition, explains that these behaviours or opinions are emotional barriers which lead learners into believing that the L2 is difficult and that they are not good at it.

7.1.2 Anxiety and L2 learning

The levels of anxiety in CS1, as discussed in section 4.4.2 on page 108, were not significant enough to hinder L2 learning. What was perceived as anxiety caused by negative L2 learning experiences was rather a learning tension which is defined as the distance between the known and the unknown - the latter being a concept, a process or a skill. Learning tension increases if adult learners fail to master the unknown, consequently increasing their concerns when failing to achieve an immediate learning goal (Noormohamadi, 2009). Oxford (1990) claims that when the level of anxiety resulting from the difference between a low level anxiety group and a high level one is greater than twenty six per cent, then there is a possibility that anxiety may block learning.

The levels of anxiety identified in the current study correlated to that of Noormohamadi (2009) who asserts that anxiety did not play a role in adult language learners in his research and he argues that any perceived anxieties are related to anticipation and the learning tension. Studies carried out by MacIntyre & Gardner (1989), Aida (1994), Saito & Samimy (1996), Na (2007), Liu & Jackson (2008), Kao & Craigie (2010), Wang (2010) and Latif *et al.* (2011) also showed a negative correlation between anxiety and language learning outcomes.

Participants in CS1 and CS2 actively engaged in authentic tasks and directed their own learning, were motivated and experienced a sense of ownership of their knowledge and tasks. This approach challenged negative affective memories, as discussed in section 7.1.1 on page 167, and contributed to disrupt negative perceptions related to L2 learning. This was

accompanied by a positive change of mindset allowing the subsequent development of new competences and skills that enabled trainees and mentors to self-regulate their learning. This finding coincides with the results of Bye, Pushkar & Conway's (2007) study, where they showed that intrinsic motivation and positive affect increased when a variety of classroom strategies were used to promote autonomous behaviours. Additionally, their study found that a reduction in anxiety led students to a greater participation in the classroom as they became confident active partners with the teacher/tutor, achieving self-regulation of learning.

7.1.3 Benefits of cognitive apprenticeship (CA) to develop L2 subject knowledge and teaching expertise

In this study the use of a CA model enabled both mentors and trainees to develop L2 knowledge and teaching skills. Evidence discussed in sections 5.5.2 and 5.6.2 on pages 133 and 139 and summarised in Figure 15 on page 140, showed that the use of a revised SBI approach incorporating collaborative learning within the framework of CA enabled trainees and mentors to develop and increase subject knowledge and teaching skills by becoming engaged in the processes of *modelling, scaffolding, coaching, exploration, articulation* and *reflection*. This resulted in a process of joint inquiry between trainees and mentors through reciprocal learning, also mirrored by the pupils they taught.

7.1.4 Using collaborative learning through peer interaction

Collaboration between trainees, mentors and pupils in CS1 and CS2 through the use of a revised SBI approach challenged preconceived perceptions of difficulty and low self-esteem and contributed to create a positive disposition which encouraged active engagement and motivation.

Working collaboratively in pairs or in small groups provided an opportunity for discussion, practice and experimentation with the target language in an intimate context without the pressure of being exposed to a wider audience. The evidence presented and discussed in sections 4.7 on page 113, 5.5.3 on page 136 and 5.7.2 on page 144, showed that the use of talk partners helped to ease feelings of anxiety, promoting the development of self-confidence. As a result, trainees, mentors and pupils became more active, prompting discussions to negotiate meaning and the understanding of tasks and to provide modelling and support to peers. Learners alternated the role of the MKO and this kept them engaged resulting in the achievement of learning goals and increasing motivation further.

7.1.5 Developing learning autonomy and self-regulation of learning

The use of metacognition promoted learning autonomy and self-regulated learning. The revised SBI model enabled learners to think about their learning which, in turn, led to the use of executive knowledge to problem solve language tasks and identify further learning needs. Whilst gaining expertise in the use of strategies, the trainees also developed autonomy by setting up and negotiating their own learning goals as evidenced in sections 4.7 and 5.5.2 on pages 113 and 133, respectively. During the inquiry process, which comprised four phases including triggering an event, exploration, integration and resolution, the trainees made judgements about their own learning progress using reflection (individual cognition), whilst the group facilitated cognitive awareness and development of knowledge (shared cognition). This finding was in line with the results obtained by Chiu & Kuo (2009) who concluded that ‘group members monitored and controlled one another’s knowledge, emotions and actions, they agreed or disagreed with each other’s ideas and influenced each other’s actions through questioning or commands’ (p.46).

7.1.6 The development of L2 reading skills

The use of a revised SBI approach produced a greater development of the receptive skills, in particular, reading comprehension. Evidence gathered and discussed in sections 4.8 on page 121, 5.5.4 on page 137 and 5.7.3 on page 151 seemed to indicate that L1 literacy knowledge, such as the identification of genres, textual and paratextual features, and cognate words make L2 reading skill easier to develop than the others. L1 literacy skills encouraged learners to use this prior knowledge in the form of reading-comprehension strategies, such as identification of a text source, inferences, understanding the gist, amongst others to build their understanding of the target language. This relates to Cummins’ (1979, 1984) linguistic interdependence hypothesis in which he argues that language and literacy skills can be transferred from one language to another. The results obtained in the current study relate to the findings of Sparks *et al* (2008) study who concluded that ‘students’ facility with reading and spelling in the L1 is related to their learning to read and spell in L2, demonstrating cross-linguistic transference of skills’ (p.164). Koda’s (2005) study also showed that language units are linked to one another to form a network and that the retrieval of specific activation patterns stored in memory (for example, letter strings, and letter-sound correspondences) is effortless and is likely to be activated by L2 input. Additionally, Sparks *et al.* (2008) found that students’ decoding and spelling in their alphabetic L1 (English) accounted for their decoding and spelling skills in an alphabetic L2 (Spanish, French and German).

7.2 A comparison and contrast of findings of case studies two and three

7.2.1 The influence of the context in L2 learning

Malamah-Thomas (1987) acknowledges that there are three factors affecting L2 learning: the country, the school and the classroom. This latter factor is discussed by Starks & Paltridge (1996) who indicate that language learning is closely related to the attitudes of the learners towards the language which are formed by the classroom learning activities, student-teacher relationships, the support provided by the teacher and cooperation in the class. The environment for learning another language, according to Hussain (2010), involves psycho-social and cultural factors which affect learners' attitudes and engagement.

The two communities of practices where CS2 and CS3 were carried out had different cultural practices that permeated the classroom context influencing trainees', mentors' and pupils' attitudes towards teaching and learning an L2. Whereas in CS2 the school context actively promoted the celebration of linguistic and cultural diversity as part of the curriculum, the school in CS3, however, emphasised a structure for teaching and learning prioritising procedures and the use of institutional cultural objects, such as syllabi, scheme of works and medium-term lesson plans. Whereas in CS2 the pupils were naturally inquisitive about others' cultural and linguistic heritage and were keen to learn an L2, the highly structured lessons in CS3, with an emphasis on discipline rather than on providing challenging learning experiences had an adverse impact on learning, making children disengaged and disruptive.

The cultural practices of both settings also influenced the development of both subject and professional knowledge. In CS2 mentors, working collaboratively with trainees contributed to each other's development. However, in CS3 there was a dependency on the mentors for the trainees to acquire new knowledge and skills, with little room for their creativity and autonomy. Whereas in CS2 there was a transformation of teaching and learning practices, these were perpetuated in CS3 where the ultimate goal was for the trainees to imitate their mentors' teaching skills. Sections 5.6.2 and 6.4.1 on pages 139 and 159 respectively discussed the evidence for these contrasting practices.

These results seem to indicate that the fact that communities of practice are asymmetrical and that an accurate comparison of practice may be difficult to achieve if the communities and their practices are not identical. Furthermore, classrooms are highly complex places which cannot be reduced to identification of some variables for the purpose of comparison and contrast. Radford (2006, p.183) states that 'complex systems represent large amounts of information in terms of their organisational structure i.e. the relationships between the elements and therefore

do not lend themselves to reductionist analysis' and comparisons between such complex systems are virtually impossible.

7.2.2 Strategy-based approach vs. Presentation, Practice and Production model (PPP)

The use of a strategy-based model with an emphasis on collaborative learning proved successful in CS1 to challenge the trainees' pre-conceived ideas in relation to their attitudes, abilities and self-confidence, as discussed in sections 4.9 on page 121. The results were replicated in CS2, as presented in section 5.5.2 on page 133, where the model based on learning strategies was employed following the principles of CA. The use of talk partners, discussed in section 5.5.3 on page 136, facilitated the identification and the use of language learning strategies which were utilised in order to trigger and develop L2. The premise of this approach was to use and re-use the strategies already familiar to the trainees and the mentors in their L1 so that they could transfer them onto an L2.

In CS1 and CS2 the use of language strategies reduced anxiety and increased teaching confidence, as discussed in sections 4.11 and 5.8 on pages 123 and 152 respectively. It also developed pupils' learning autonomy and kept them focused and on-task. Although the learning outcomes resulting from the use of a strategy-based approach were positive for trainees and mentors in CS1 and CS2, the results obtained for pupils were different as they did not achieve as highly as their peers in CS3. These results are discussed in section 6.5.3 on page 165 and summarised in Figure 22. The talk partner technique required the continuous use of a variety of thinking processes, all taking place at the same time. These included, for example, processing information, verbalising thoughts, sharing views with a talk partner, engaging in discussion for problem-solving, making decisions, and transferring knowledge from L1 onto L2. All these processes were very demanding for young learners since they lacked prior linguistic experience. Therefore, it was necessary for the mentors or the teachers to explain a strategy and then practise it in familiar contexts prior to use for L2 learning. This may suggest that children in CS2 were not ready to become engaged in abstract thinking to explain their cognitive processes which, according to Piaget (1971) are a feature of the formal operational stage of development characterised by hypothetico-deductive reasoning enabling individuals to be engaged in solving abstract/hypothetical problems.

This conclusion seems to indicate that the success of an approach for learning another language based on learning strategies and think-aloud protocols require more developed cognitive skills that learners aged eight-nine may still be developing and that there might be a need for an

explicit focus on the metalanguage necessary for children to talk about abstract concepts as a specific framework within which strategies might be used. It was also noticed that the pupils chose to work with their friends as talk partners. Such exclusivity, however, was difficult to maintain if a participant was absent, leading to a negative effect on the group cohesion, exacerbated by the fact that pupils were not eager to engage with new partners.

The use of a presentation, practice and production (PPP) approach in CS3 produced different results. For the trainees, it provided a clear structure to plan and teach lessons and to assess pupils' progress, as discussed in section 6.4.1 on page 159. Teaching and learning followed a detailed scheme of work, which informed lesson planning whilst providing trainees with an indication of the subject knowledge required for teaching. The pupils, on the other hand, progressed faster than the children in CS2, producing language with greater pronunciation and grammatical accuracy. The focus on accurate production led the trainees to revisit the same topics using long repetition skills and memorisation drills. The pupils in CS3, who were subject to a limited range of teaching strategies, actually outperformed their peers in CS2. This was in spite of the restricted opportunities for challenge that they were given that tended to promote disruptive classroom behaviour. A comparison of pupils' attainment per language skills is shown below:

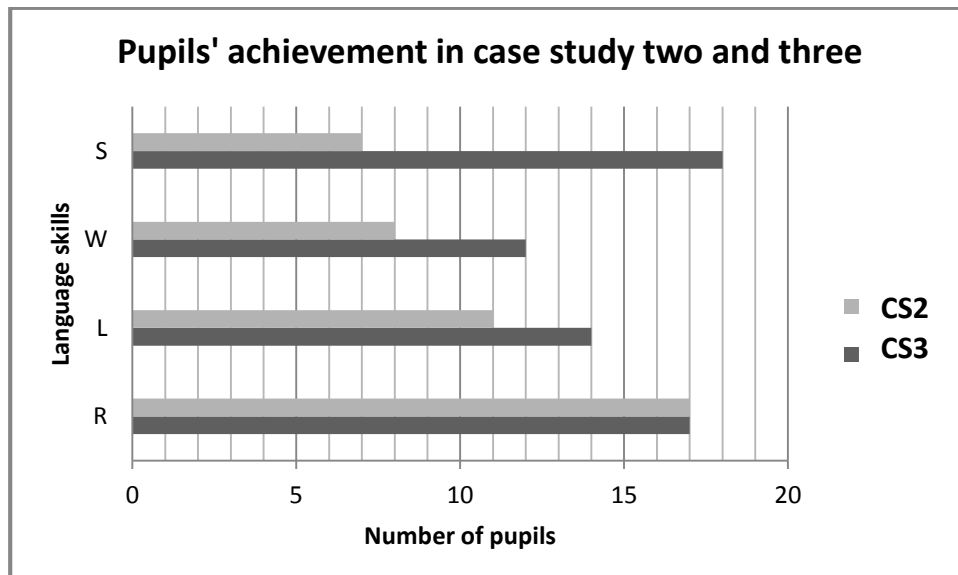


Figure 23 Pupils' achievement in case study two and three

The contrasting performance of children in CS2 and CS3 can be attributed to the different aims of the two approaches used. Whereas a revised SBI model seeks to develop comprehension of the target language, the PPP approach focuses on the production of the production of language aiming to develop accurate pronunciation and grammar. According to Shintani, Li & Ellis (2013), these differences are based on two distinct views of language learning: one emphasising

comprehension as a pre-requisite for production (revised SBI) whilst the other considers that learning takes place only when using the language (PPP).

7.2.3 Developing knowledge for teaching and skills

Evidence presented and discussed in sections 5.6.1 and 5.6.2 on pages 138 and 139 showed that the CA model enabled both the mentors and the trainees in CS2 to work collaboratively and develop one another's expertise. Collaboration enabled the mentors and the trainees to take up the role of MKO whilst jointly reflecting on their teaching and their language skills. As the mastery of linguistic and teaching skills developed, the support provided by the MKO gradually faded away thus allowing the mentors and trainees to be engaged in a process of inquiry as a tool for professional development. In CS2, CA fostered creativity, imagination and experience to transform teaching whilst moving trainees and mentors from supported legitimate peripheral participation towards a more central and independent participation in a community of learning. The experience in CS2 portrayed the features of an *expansive learning environment*, which according to Hodkinson & Hodkinson (2005, p.68) presents 'a wide-ranging and diverse opportunities to learn in a culture that values and supports learning', including an authentic learning context and participant activity, the enactment of different roles and individual and collective reflection.

Following the views of Lave & Wenger (1991), Jaworski (2006) and Arnseth (2008) as discussed in chapter two, trainees in CS2 developed their membership of a community of learning (the school) by engaging in a process of critical inquiry and collaborating with the other members (the mentors and the pupils), which resulted in 'learning-to-develop learning' (Jaworski 2006, p.191).

On the other hand, the trainees in CS3 followed a model of restricted apprenticeship, discussed in section 6.4.1 on page 159, where three processes were clearly identified: (a) observing the MKO, (b) imitating the MKO's practice and (c) reflecting on own teaching to identify targets to reproduce the MKO expertise. The mentors (the MKO) modelled both teaching skills and subject knowledge and the training programme followed a sequential syllabus, ranging from lesson observations to team teaching, eventually leading to an independent management of teaching and learning in the classroom. Reflection was mostly prompted by the mentors who encouraged the development of teaching expertise. The learning environment in CS3 was highly controlled by the mentor and the training programme was normally planned in a sequence ranging from the acquisition of basic to more complex teaching skills. This approach was fragmented and appeared disconnected from the reality of the classroom as the developing

teaching expertise did not take into account the multiple intricate situations arising from the diverse nature of interactions in the learning environment, which in CS2 were part of the training curriculum. The expectations in CS3 contrasted very clearly with those in CS2 as the trainees were required to imitate mentors' performance with an emphasis on reproducing their practice rather than developing their own.

The restricted apprenticeship model in CS3 relates to Harrison & McKeon's (2008) argument. They argue that a mentor-led training is characterised by a paucity of role model or modelling of required practices, reliance on trial and error learning without any attempts to interrogate practice, a lack of personal vision, low personal confidence and competence and a dependency on institutional objects for the acquisition of professional content knowledge.

The training model in CS3 resembled a more traditional apprenticeship where what the trainees learned was external to them with very limited opportunities to access and be able to learn the internal mental processes of the mentors (the experts). Consequently, tacit knowledge, or the *thinking of experts*, as indicated by Collins *et al* (1991), was not made clear to the trainees, who were regarded as the *novices*. Both roles -those of expert and novice- remained consistent throughout the study as neither the trainees nor the mentors moved away from the peripheral participation. Wenger (1991) argues that in the move towards full participation in tasks members of a community change their identity, which is a process in permanent construction. The table below offers a summary of the discussion.

Table 28 A comparison of outcomes between case study two and case study three

Areas	Strategy-based approach Case Study Two (CS2)	Presentation, Practice, Production Case Study Three (CS3)
Training approaches	<p>Cognitive apprenticeship.</p> <p>Collaborative model where trainees and mentors engaged in the development of skills in a holistic manner transforming learning and teaching.</p> <p>Mentors and trainees alternated roles of MKO and both were seen as learners by one another.</p> <p>Focus on inquiry by becoming engaged in reflection-in-action where tacit knowledge (PCK) was articulated in words, discussed and shared. This promoted reflection and inquiry which was incorporated into the practice of the community.</p> <p>Intricacies of classroom interactions were part of the workplace curriculum.</p>	<p>Traditional apprenticeship.</p> <p>Restricted model where the mentor is the expert. Trainees observed mentors and reproduced practice by developing a sequenced set of skills.</p> <p>Acquisition of teaching skills was regulated by the mentor.</p> <p>Mentors were seen as the expert practitioners who the trainees had to imitate. The aim was to acquire the mentors' expertise and the focus of reflection was on the mentors' practice.</p> <p>Emphasised the fragmentation of professional practice by breaking it down into isolated skills without taking into account the complexities of teaching and learning.</p>
Learning setting	<p>Encouraged cultural and linguistic knowledge with pupils and members of staff actively engaged in supporting one another.</p>	<p>Pupils' non-attendance and low level class disruption interfered with teaching and learning.</p>
L2 teaching and learning aims	<p>Identification and use of L1 strategies to learn an L2 using talk partners.</p>	<p>Production of L2 based on accurate pronunciation and grammatical accuracy.</p>
Advantages	<p>Developed L2 subject knowledge and increased teaching confidence.</p> <p>Developed pupils' autonomy and kept them on task and engaged.</p> <p>Focus on collaborative learning through the use of talk partners. Encouraged learning inquiry and individual and social cognition.</p>	<p>Provided a clear framework for planning and teaching.</p> <p>Developed pupils' four language skills consistently.</p> <p>Focus on transmission of knowledge and pre-planned incidents and outcomes.</p>
Disadvantages	<p>Placed high cognitive demands on pupils.</p> <p>Reliance on the same partner for learning.</p>	<p>Limited pupils' interest in L2.</p> <p>Formulaic use of L2.</p> <p>Repetitive tasks leading to pupils being disengaged.</p>

<p>Learning Outcomes</p>	<p>Developed reading skills quicker than listening and writing skills.</p> <p>Speaking skills were the least developed.</p>	<p>Speaking was the most developed skill.</p> <p>More pupils achieved better in reading, listening and writing skills.</p>
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7.3 Implications for initial teacher training and schools

The results of this research project gave rise to a number of implications for both teacher training and schools themselves. For teacher training the implications centre around two issues that arise that could affect the effectiveness of the use of the model of cognitive apprenticeship (CA).

The model currently used in all teacher training in England (DfE, 2013) insists on the trainee providing evidence of having met a set of competencies or standards in order to achieve Qualified Teacher Status (QTS). Although the Standards have been criticised because of their behaviouristic approach (Furlong *et al*, 2000; Moore 2007), they indicate a set of minimum competences that teachers need to achieve. Reflective practice could be seen as merely another such competence; however, the proposed CA model provides trainees with a tool to develop reflection, not as an extra competence to be achieved, but as Hackett (2001) argues, as a skill embedded within their teaching practice. Such a model, therefore, does not seek to substitute the competence-based model underpinning the *Teachers' Standards* (*op. cit.*). Rather, CA seeks to complement it, enabling trainee teachers to reflect on their practice against the *Standards* themselves, exploiting opportunities to fine-tune their teaching in the spirit of continuous improvement.

Secondly, for the CA model to be effective, it requires a specialist teacher who models practice and who engages with the trainees through collaboration to develop their expertise. Creating opportunities for collaborative practice, as shown in CS2, would then be necessary so that the trainees not only learn from the experts but also with them. This would require a revision of the current model to encourage and develop a greater level of cooperation, negotiation and flexibility between mentor and trainee, so that the training curriculum results from classroom practices, rather than by being prescribed by the Teachers' Standards.

With regards to schools, there are implications for pupils, teachers and school leaders. Using CA as a pedagogical model of learning would enable established teaching staff, trainee teachers and pupils to learn from one another in a community of learning. Barthes (1990, p.9) argues

that a community of learners ‘is a place where students and adults alike are engaged as active learners in matters of special importance to them and where everyone is thereby encouraging everyone else’s learning’.

For pupils it means learning to learn collaboratively by supporting one another and learning from real life experiences, as shown by the outcomes of CS2. This has the potential to increase learners’ engagement as they make discoveries of their own, leading to them developing systems of peer support, shared cognition, learning autonomy and a sense of empowerment. Resnick (1989) argues that this type of learning enables a greater level of retention and transfer and Hogan & Tudge (1999) claim that when learners work with peers, teachers and other experts in a community of learning higher-order thinking processes, like reflection and inquiry, are used to increase knowledge and skills. In order to use CA in such an environment therefore would require teachers to facilitate opportunities for collaboration where they would learn alongside the pupils they teach.

For all teachers using CA there may be potential for the development of professional learning communities (PLCs). In such communities, teacher learning would both be a community venture and a public good (Kozleski & Waitoller, 2010) as they develop in response to school needs to increase the quality of teaching and learning. Zhao (2013) argues that PLCs move teachers away from a view of teaching as a solitary activity, to one where each teacher in a school is responsible for honing not only their own practice, but also the practice of their colleagues. Although research undertaken by Dever and Lash (2013) states that the PLCs increase support for school improvement measures and encourages a collaborative culture and reduce isolation, Senge (1990) argues that one of the challenges in such a learning organisation is finding the time for shared thinking. This latter point was supported by the results of CS2 as although the mentors and the trainees had agreed to meet regularly after the school day, this may not always be possible because of the busy schedule of teachers.

Finally, for school leaders there may be a need for a change in leadership styles in favour of more collaborative approaches for a PLC to achieve its purpose. It seems likely that such a change in approach, if adopted, would necessitate a cultural change for all those involved within the school.

CHAPTER EIGHT CONCLUSIONS

8.1 A summary of findings

The current study sought to answer the following questions:

8.1.1 Can language learning strategies that are used by generalist primary trainee teachers in L1 also be used to develop their linguistic competences and skills in an L2, using collaborative learning?

Identifying and using language strategies in L1 can help learners in the development of their language and communication skills when learning an L2, particularly those learners with a limited competence in the target language. The findings of CS1 and CS2 showed that language learning strategies helped learners to develop their competence in another language by transferring L1 skills into L2. Learners became more aware of the different processes and behaviours available to them in order to acquire the new language, thus making them more self-directed and focused. Mentors, trainees and pupils developed a series of combinations of strategies to solve problems, showing an awareness of the relationships between their prior linguistic knowledge, the complexity of a task and the repertoire of available language strategies to achieve successful outcomes. It was also possible to identify that the use of collaboration facilitated the *triggering* of events followed by *exploration*, and *integration* by encouraging the participants to alternate the roles of novice and expert during the learning experience. As the trainees and mentors in CS1 and CS2 developed their expertise in the acquisition and development of L2 skills, they were able to self-regulate their learning by developing reflection, which led to the identification of new learning goals. This is consistent with the principles of the reflective practitioner (Schön, 1983) and the critical thinking teacher (Brookfield, 1995). The use of language strategies promoted the development of reading over other skills which could have resulted from the learners' prior literacy knowledge and skills in L1. Using language strategies and gaining familiarity in the use of the revised SBI approach, trainees and mentors developed their L2 subject knowledge and competences as a form of continuing professional development.

8.1.2 Is there a relationship between anxiety and L2 learning?

The levels of anxiety identified in this study correlated negatively with L2 learning as there was no indication that behaviours associated with anxiety acted as potential barriers to learning.

The anxiety perceived at the beginning of CS1 and CS2 was an instance of learning tension produced by negative affective memories which disappeared as confidence developed and learning took place. In adult learners, negative past experiences tend to condition individuals' predisposition for future learning, as discussed by Knowles (1980). Stevens (2010) argues that at the start of their course trainee teachers are likely to mix qualities of trepidation and adventure adding that:

The trepidation is virtually inevitable: starting a new course can be nerve-wracking enough by itself, but is here exacerbated (in most cases) by the prospect of actually teaching, and, perhaps to a lesser extent, by concerns over the nature of the subject matter required (p.191).

Noormohamadi (2009) explains that any perceived anxiety is part of some learning tension and that it does not affect L2 learning. The use of a revised SBI approach focused on the use of the known L1 skills to explore an L2, resulted in positive learning outcomes, which increased participation, intrinsic motivation and positive affects thus challenging negative perceptions about L2 learning.

8.1.3 Can a strategy-based approach to L2 learning be used during trainees' school experience?

The results of CS1 and CS2 showed that the use of the revised SBI approach designed upon a collaborative learning model can be employed within the CA framework to develop class teachers' in-house expertise in modern languages whilst supporting trainees in the acquisition of both L2 knowledge and teaching skills. The interaction between mentors and trainees in CS2 enabled one another to share the role of the expert. This also increased the opportunities for reflection, resulting in individual and collective cognition, which encouraged inquiry, transforming teaching and learning. Mentors and trainees in CS2 left the peripheral participation to develop a more active role in the community which also incorporated inquiry to its core practice. Pring (1996, p.16) acknowledges that 'ITE [Initial Teacher Education] should promote connections with a wider network of intellectual life where critical inquiry, deliberation, questioning, speculation and research are central rather than peripheral activities'. Working collaboratively, the mentors and trainees in CS2 were able to monitor and control one another's knowledge, emotions and actions; they had the opportunity to agree and disagree and make judgements about their own learning progress facilitating cognitive awareness that led to metacognition and self-regulation (Chiu & Kuo, 2009). Also, the use of a revised SBI approach within the CA framework enabled the trainees and mentors to attend to the different

interactions taking place in the classroom and used them as a *pathway of participation* (Billett, 2006) to develop their linguistic and teaching expertise by interrogating workplace practices.

8.1.4 Can a strategy-based approach to L2 learning be used to teach young learners?

The use of a revised SBI with children aged eight or nine years old, although successful in engaging them in thinking about their learning, did not produce better language outcomes when compared with a more traditional approach. The children in CS2 found it difficult to refer to their thinking processes and engage with them because of their limited experiential knowledge, which meant that the repertoire of learning strategies was limited. As the SBI approach relies on the use of cognitive skills, these may not have been fully developed by the age of eight or nine, consequently limiting positive learning outcomes. Although this was a limitation, the number of instances linked to exploration and integration of knowledge when children worked collaboratively in CS2 was considerably higher than those used by children in CS3. Children in CS2 were more motivated to learn and, although this could have been a direct influence of the learning context, they showed an interest in the target language as they could choose the topics they wanted to learn according to their needs or preferences. This created a sense of ownership of the learning experience as the children felt empowered by the teachers (trainees and mentors). According to Juceviciene & Vizgirdaite (2012, p.47) student educational empowerment is ‘a process performed on an individual who owns power [the teacher] and shares it with others [the pupils] and who seeks to provide others [pupil-pupil] with opportunities to increase knowledge, abilities, competencies of lifelong learning and to participate in the decision making process’. This process of learner empowerment increased children’s self-confidence and encouraged their learning autonomy

8.2 Implications for practice

Without further research into the use of a modified strategy-based approach in the context of cognitive apprenticeship (CA) across a much broader sample than the one used in this project, any claim to generalisation cannot be substantiated. However, if replicated, the findings obtained in this study lead me to suggest the following implications:

(a) In relation to the use of a revised strategy-based approach:

- Collaboration between trainees, mentors and pupils can support and develop learning through a CA model within a community of learning.

- Negative attitudes towards L2 learning deriving from past L2 learning experiences need to be challenged as a pre-requisite to create the necessary conditions for learning to take place.
- A revised SBI approach based on the presentation of the target language followed by comprehension, assisted practice and reflection could be used to challenge negative attitudes towards learning another language.
- Collaborative learning should be encouraged through the use of talk partners or small group discussions where trainees can support one another, modelling strategy use and practising the new language.
- Familiar L1 language strategies have to be modelled as an initial stage for language learning, followed by think-aloud protocols so that trainees become engaged in exploratory talk leading to the comprehension, negotiation, identification and use of more strategies.
- Positive learning outcomes are to be celebrated. This is because achievement increases both intrinsic motivation and engagement, enabling trainees to challenge and modify their perceptions of themselves as language learners.
- Trainees are to be encouraged to use self-regulation as they increase L2 subject knowledge and teaching confidence to facilitate the identification of their own learning goals.
- When used with young learners, the revised SBI approach should be linked to different school subjects to respond to children's needs and interests.
- If a revised SBI approach is used with children, explicit strategy instruction should precede actual use as some strategies may not be yet available to them.

(b) In relation to the use of CA:

- The model can be used for trainees and mentors as a form of reciprocal learning and as a tool for continuing professional development within a community of learning, where the acquisition and development of competences, such as those stated in the Teachers' Standards (DfE, 2013), is complemented by reflection on practice.
- CA can also be used as a model for developing teachers' expertise in subjects such as modern languages when working in collaboration with specialist teachers. This may also reduce the long-term reliance upon specialists as generalist teachers develop new subject knowledge and teaching skills.

8.3 Contribution to knowledge

Although current research in the area of language learning strategies is vast and varied, my own study focused on utilising a few of these, including the use of collaboration, CA, situated learning and community of inquiry with which to explore the possibility of equipping generalist primary school trainees with the basic linguistic knowledge required to teach another language. Traditionally, learning strategies have been studied from the viewpoint of cognitive psychology, but the model presented in the current study was re-interpreted from the perspective of socio-cultural theory, following Vygotsky's (1978) views on language learning. My approach differs from others rooted in cognitive psychology (Chamot, 2004) in three areas:

1. It follows the notion that language learning is a social endeavour. For learning to take place, learners have to engage in meaningful communicative situations. These situations encourage language learning.
2. As learners develop their understanding and confidence in using the L2, they support one another scaffolding their learning and alternating the role of the MKO.
3. Learners engage with their learning through a process of inquiry, promoting self-regulation and learning autonomy.

From the perspective of teacher training the model tried out in this study abandoned mentor-led training to focus on the centrality of workplace learning. The interaction between a mentor and a trainee in the role of learners provides an alternative approach to teacher training with a potential to develop *in-house* subject knowledge and expertise whilst fostering continuous professional development. This may be possible by:

1. Using CA to enable the acquisition and development of subject and professional content knowledge.
2. Considering the diversity and the complexities of the classroom context as part of the professional curriculum for teaching.
3. Using joint reflection as a tool to transform teaching practice.

8.4 Limitations of the research

There were three main limitations concerning methodology, settings and conduct of research. For methodology, these were issues of validity and generalizability, which as discussed earlier (in section 3.9.1), included the suggestion that the findings may have been different or at least more revealing had a larger sample been taken and studied over a longer period. Also, the practitioner inquiry is a collaborative approach (see chapter three), however, the level of collaboration between the trainees, mentors and myself originally anticipated did not

materialise. Unfortunately, I had to remind all parties of the need to collaborate and this could have unintentionally influenced the outcomes. Had I adopted a more detached stance without driving the research agenda, then more insightful findings may have been obtained. As for the results, they are only from a *snapshot* of teaching practice and consequently cannot be used to make general claims because in qualitative research, Guba & Lincoln (1982, p.238) argue, ‘generalisations are impossible since phenomena are neither time nor context free’.

The second limitation refers to the research contexts. Tensions arose between my role of University tutor and researcher, already explained in section 3.9.1 and between the University and schools. With regard to the former, the roles of tutor and researcher were not always clearly defined and on many occasions overlaps developed resulting from my involvement in three communities with different teaching and learning practices. Tension also occurred when the partnership between the University and the schools did not work as I had expected, because of differing agendas, issues such as consistency of mentoring in schools and a focus on positive outcomes in school placements. These may have permeated my study and, consequently influenced the results.

The final limitation refers to the conduct of the research in relation to the reflective stance that I adopted. The process of research, as discussed in the Introduction and Methodology chapters, was influenced by my own personal and professional history. This means that my experience of being a trainee teacher, mentor and tutor could have influenced the results of the studies by adding a higher degree of subjectivity. Other areas that could have produced different results would include changing the perspective from research-from-within to a more detached one, also it would be difficult to produce the exact same results, because schools and classrooms are all different and constantly evolving. Finally, a different researcher, being the main research tool, could prompt alternative outcomes. However, it is hoped that the information and the evidence provided in this thesis will enable readers to make their own informed choice.

8.5 Directions for future research

The findings emerging from the three case studies in this project seem to indicate that there is a need to investigate further the relationships between learning strategies and the factors affecting their use, such as age, personality traits, gender, ethnicity, individual differences between learners, and motivation, the contextual factors and the relationships within communities of learning, amongst others, in order to determine whether, for example, strategy preference can be altered, or if this is indicative of more inherent characteristics that learners bring with them to the classroom or if they are imposed by the cultural practices within a

community. As such, it would be necessary for the academic and research field of strategy training to move beyond descriptive classifications of learning strategies and attempt to seek for answers to a wide range of questions, such as, amongst others: what types of language learning strategies appear to work best with what learners in which contexts? Do language learning strategies or language learning strategies training transfer easily between L1 and L2 contexts? What is the role of language proficiency in language learning strategies use and training? How long does it take to train specific learners in certain language learning strategies? How can one best assess and measure success in language learning strategies use or training? Are certain language learning strategies learned more easily in classroom and non-classroom contexts? What language learning strategies should be taught at different proficiency/age levels?

The potential of a revised SBI approach used within a CA model is enormous, both as a form of individual and collective learning and as a form of personal and professional development. This offers a real possibility to transform negative experiences in L2 learning, contributing to develop self-confidence and motivation to the experience of learning another language. O'Malley & Chamot (1990, p. 182) point out, 'in order for learning strategy instruction to become an integral part of second language teaching, classroom teachers need not only to see the value of such instruction but also develop the skills for its implementation'. The trainees, mentors and pupils participating in CS2 acknowledged that they experienced a deep transformation by developing an inquisitive approach to their learning. This experience showed that the use of a revised SBI within a collaborative framework served as a stimulus to open minds, create new learning habits and adopt novel ways of thinking –which Brock (2010) identifies with features of transformative learning, thus challenging learners' learning pasts (Kegan, 1994).

8.6 Coda

After reviewing the findings of this study, I am convinced that using language strategies within the CA framework has the potential to impact much more directly on curriculum design and pedagogy of initial teacher training. However, this raises questions about the relationship between theory and practice, research and practices, and the way that we discover how languages are learned and are translated into formal environments as in initial teaching training programmes or primary schools. As well as offering support for teachers in the classroom, this area of research, as indicated by Griffiths (2007), also has the potential to impact on other

academic research areas, such as teacher education, curriculum design and assessment, and the links between them.

Undertaking this research has provided me with an opportunity to develop my own reflexivity as a member of a community of inquiry and I have gained a deeper insight into the experience of teaching and learning modern languages, which informed and was informed by other members of the community. I have observed, questioned, interpreted and reformulated an approach for language learning that has resulted in a teaching model based upon my own experience as a language tutor (Moya forthcoming). In proposing this alternative model based on strategy instruction and teacher training in the workplace, I have had the opportunity to develop my own lifelong learning skills by reflecting upon my own professional practice in the light of the results obtained from the research. Exploring elements of pedagogy, psychology and applied linguistics, I have achieved a better understanding of the complexity of language teaching and learning, which has provided me with new academic and professional skills that, without a doubt, will continue to inform and shape my teaching practice.

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Appendices

Appendix I	Consent letter
Appendix II	Language audit
Appendix III	<i>I can do</i> statements
Appendix IV	Strategy use chart for students
Appendix V	Reflective writing template
Appendix VI	Questionnaire (Foreign Language Anxiety Class Scale)
Appendix VII	Resource I
Appendix VIII	Resource II

Appendix I – Consent letter

University of Bedfordshire
Faculty of Education, Sport and Tourism
Polhill Campus
Bedford
MK41 9EA

September 2011

RESEARCH STUDY INFORMATION AND CONSENT FORM

Research title: Investigating the role of language learning strategies in enhancing second language learning in generalist PGCE students to improve subject knowledge and confidence when teaching Primary Languages.

You are being invited to participate in a research study about how generalist PGCE students can develop or increase subject knowledge and confidence for teaching Primary Modern Languages in the primary school.

This study is being conducted by Mario Moya from the Department of Primary Education at the University of Bedfordshire as part of the Ed.D. programme.

There are no known risks if you decide to participate in this research project. There are no costs to you for participating in the study. The information you provide will help me in identifying areas for designing a teaching approach to improve modern languages learning.

The research project will take about three years to complete approximately. The data collected may not benefit you directly, but the information learned in this study should provide more general benefits.

The information you will required to provide is anonymous and no one will be able to identify you or your answers, and no one will know whether or not you participated in the study. Your contributions will be kept secure during the duration of the study and will be destroyed once this has been finished. Should the data be published, no individual information will be disclosed.

Your participation in this study is voluntary. By signing this form you are voluntarily agreeing to participate. You are free to decline to participate at any point during the study and this will not have any effects on your academic or professional performance.

If you have any questions about the study, please contact **Mario Moya** at mario.moya@beds.ac.uk.

Mario Moya

Language: _____

Use this checklist to record what you think you can do (Column 1). Ask someone else, for example your teacher, to also assess what they think you can do (Column 2). Use Column 3 to mark those things that you cannot yet do which you feel are important for you (Column 3 = Objectives). Add to the list – perhaps with your teacher – other things that you can do, or that are important for your language learning at this level.

Use the following symbols:

In columns 1 and 2

✓ I can do this under normal circumstances

✓✓ I can do this easily

In column 3

! This is an objective for me

!! This is a priority for me

If you have over 80% of the points ticked, you have probably reached Level A1.



Listening

I can understand when someone speaks very slowly to me and articulates carefully, with long pauses for me to assimilate meaning.

I can understand simple directions how to get from X to Y, by foot or public transport.

I can understand questions and instructions addressed carefully and slowly to me and follow short, simple directions.

I can understand numbers, prices and times.



Reading

I can understand information about people (place of residence, age, etc.) in newspapers.

I can locate a concert or a film on calendars of public events or posters and identify where it takes place and at what time it starts.

I can understand a questionnaire (entry permit form, hotel registration form) well enough to give the most important information about myself (name, surname, date of birth, nationality).

I can understand words and phrases on signs encountered in everyday life (for instance “station”, “car park”, “no parking”, “no smoking”, “keep left”).

I can understand the most important orders in a computer programme such as “PRINT”, “SAVE”, “COPY”, etc.

I can follow short simple written directions (e.g. how to go from X to Y).

I can understand short simple messages on postcards, for example holiday greetings.

In everyday situations I can understand simple messages written by friends or colleagues, for example “back at 4 o'clock”.



Spoken Interaction

I can introduce somebody and use basic greeting and leave-taking expressions.

I can ask and answer simple questions, initiate and respond to simple statements in areas of immediate need or on very familiar topics.

I can make myself understood in a simple way but I am dependent on my partner being prepared to repeat more slowly and rephrase what I say and to help me to say what I want.

I can make simple purchases where pointing or other gestures can support what I say.

I can handle numbers, quantities, cost and time.

I can ask people for things and give people things.

I can ask people questions about where they live, people they know, things they have, etc. and answer such questions addressed to me provided they are articulated slowly and clearly.

I can indicate time by such phrases as “next week”, “last Friday”, “in November”, “three o'clock”.

	Me	My teacher/another	My objectives
	1	2	3
Listening			
I can understand when someone speaks very slowly to me and articulates carefully, with long pauses for me to assimilate meaning.			
I can understand simple directions how to get from X to Y, by foot or public transport.			
I can understand questions and instructions addressed carefully and slowly to me and follow short, simple directions.			
I can understand numbers, prices and times.			
Reading			
I can understand information about people (place of residence, age, etc.) in newspapers.			
I can locate a concert or a film on calendars of public events or posters and identify where it takes place and at what time it starts.			
I can understand a questionnaire (entry permit form, hotel registration form) well enough to give the most important information about myself (name, surname, date of birth, nationality).			
I can understand words and phrases on signs encountered in everyday life (for instance “station”, “car park”, “no parking”, “no smoking”, “keep left”).			
I can understand the most important orders in a computer programme such as “PRINT”, “SAVE”, “COPY”, etc.			
I can follow short simple written directions (e.g. how to go from X to Y).			
I can understand short simple messages on postcards, for example holiday greetings.			
In everyday situations I can understand simple messages written by friends or colleagues, for example “back at 4 o'clock”.			
Spoken Interaction			
I can introduce somebody and use basic greeting and leave-taking expressions.			
I can ask and answer simple questions, initiate and respond to simple statements in areas of immediate need or on very familiar topics.			
I can make myself understood in a simple way but I am dependent on my partner being prepared to repeat more slowly and rephrase what I say and to help me to say what I want.			
I can make simple purchases where pointing or other gestures can support what I say.			
I can handle numbers, quantities, cost and time.			
I can ask people for things and give people things.			
I can ask people questions about where they live, people they know, things they have, etc. and answer such questions addressed to me provided they are articulated slowly and clearly.			
I can indicate time by such phrases as “next week”, “last Friday”, “in November”, “three o'clock”.			

Use the following symbols:

In columns 1 and 2

- ✓ I can do this under normal circumstances
- ✓✓ I can do this easily

In column 3

- ! This is an objective for me
- !! This is a priority for me

If you have over 80% of the points ticked, you have probably reached Level A1.

Me	My teacher/another	My objectives
----	--------------------	---------------



Spoken Production

- I can give personal information (address, telephone number, nationality, age, family, and hobbies)
- I can describe where I live.

Strategies

- I can say when I don't understand.
- I can very simply ask somebody to repeat what they said.
- I can very simply ask somebody to speak more slowly.



Writing

- I can fill in a questionnaire with my personal details (job, age, address, hobbies).
- I can write a greeting card, for instance a birthday card.
- I can write a simple postcard (for example with holiday greetings).
- I can write a note to tell somebody where I am or where we are to meet.
- I can write sentences and simple phrases about myself, for example where I live and what I do.

	Me	My teacher/another	My objectives
Spoken Production	1	2	3
I can give personal information (address, telephone number, nationality, age, family, and hobbies)			
I can describe where I live.			
Strategies	1	2	3
I can say when I don't understand.			
I can very simply ask somebody to repeat what they said.			
I can very simply ask somebody to speak more slowly.			
Writing	1	2	3
I can fill in a questionnaire with my personal details (job, age, address, hobbies).			
I can write a greeting card, for instance a birthday card.			
I can write a simple postcard (for example with holiday greetings).			
I can write a note to tell somebody where I am or where we are to meet.			
I can write sentences and simple phrases about myself, for example where I live and what I do.			

Self-assessment Checklist

A

2

3.2

Level

Language:

Use this checklist to record what you think you can do (Column 1). Ask someone else, for example your teacher, to also assess what they think you can do (Column 2). Use Column 3 to mark those things that you cannot yet do which you feel are important for you (Column 3 = Objectives). Add to the list – perhaps with your teacher – other things that you can do, or that are important for your language learning at this level.

Use the following symbols:

In columns 1 and 2

✓ I can do this under normal circumstances

✓✓ I can do this easily

In column 3

! This is an objective for me

!! This is a priority for me

If you have over 80% of the points ticked, you have probably reached Level A2.



Listening

I can understand what is said clearly, slowly and directly to me in simple everyday conversation; it is possible to make me understand, if the speaker can take the trouble.

I can generally identify the topic of discussion around me when people speak slowly and clearly.

I can understand phrases, words and expressions related to areas of most immediate priority (e.g. very basic personal and family information, shopping, local area, employment).

I can catch the main point in short, clear, simple messages and announcements.

I can understand the essential information in short recorded passages dealing with predictable everyday matters which are spoken slowly and clearly.

I can identify the main point of TV news items reporting events, accidents etc. when the visual supports the commentary.



Reading

I can identify important information in news summaries or simple newspaper articles in which numbers and names play an important role and which are clearly structured and illustrated.

I can understand a simple personal letter in which the writer tells or asks me about aspects of everyday life.

I can understand simple written messages from friends or colleagues, for example saying when we should meet to play football or asking me to be at work early.

I can find the most important information on leisure time activities, exhibitions, etc. in information leaflets.

I can skim small advertisements in newspapers, locate the heading or column I want and identify the most important pieces of information (price and size of apartments, cars, computers).

I can understand simple user's instructions for equipment (for example, a public telephone).

I can understand feedback messages or simple help indications in computer programmes.

I can understand short narratives about everyday things dealing with topics which are familiar to me if the text is written in simple language.



Spoken Interaction

I can make simple transactions in shops, post offices or banks.

I can use public transport : buses, trains, and taxis, ask for basic information and buy tickets.

I can get simple information about travel.

I can order something to eat or drink.

I can make simple purchases by stating what I want and asking the price.

I can ask for and give directions referring to a map or plan.

I can ask how people are and react to news.

I can make and respond to invitations.

	Me	My teacher/another	My objectives
	1	2	3
Listening			
I can understand what is said clearly, slowly and directly to me in simple everyday conversation; it is possible to make me understand, if the speaker can take the trouble.			
I can generally identify the topic of discussion around me when people speak slowly and clearly.			
I can understand phrases, words and expressions related to areas of most immediate priority (e.g. very basic personal and family information, shopping, local area, employment).			
I can catch the main point in short, clear, simple messages and announcements.			
I can understand the essential information in short recorded passages dealing with predictable everyday matters which are spoken slowly and clearly.			
I can identify the main point of TV news items reporting events, accidents etc. when the visual supports the commentary.			
Reading			
I can identify important information in news summaries or simple newspaper articles in which numbers and names play an important role and which are clearly structured and illustrated.			
I can understand a simple personal letter in which the writer tells or asks me about aspects of everyday life.			
I can understand simple written messages from friends or colleagues, for example saying when we should meet to play football or asking me to be at work early.			
I can find the most important information on leisure time activities, exhibitions, etc. in information leaflets.			
I can skim small advertisements in newspapers, locate the heading or column I want and identify the most important pieces of information (price and size of apartments, cars, computers).			
I can understand simple user's instructions for equipment (for example, a public telephone).			
I can understand feedback messages or simple help indications in computer programmes.			
I can understand short narratives about everyday things dealing with topics which are familiar to me if the text is written in simple language.			
Spoken Interaction			
I can make simple transactions in shops, post offices or banks.			
I can use public transport : buses, trains, and taxis, ask for basic information and buy tickets.			
I can get simple information about travel.			
I can order something to eat or drink.			
I can make simple purchases by stating what I want and asking the price.			
I can ask for and give directions referring to a map or plan.			
I can ask how people are and react to news.			
I can make and respond to invitations.			

Use the following symbols:

In columns 1 and 2

✓ I can do this under normal circumstances

✓✓ I can do this easily

In column 3

! This is an objective for me

!! This is a priority for me

If you have over 80% of the points ticked, you have probably reached Level A1.

	Me	My teacher/another	My objectives
I can make and accept apologies.			
I can say what I like and dislike.			
I can discuss with other people what to do, where to go and make arrangements to meet.			
I can ask people questions about what they do at work and in free time, and answer such questions addressed to me.			



Spoken Production

	1	2	3
I can describe myself, my family and other people.			
I can describe where I live.			
I can give short, basic descriptions of events.			
I can describe my educational background, my present or most recent job. I			
can describe my hobbies and interests in a simple way.			
I can describe past activities and personal experiences (e.g. the last weekend, my last holiday).			

Strategies

	1	2	3
I can ask for attention.			
I can indicate when I am following.			
I can very simply ask somebody to repeat what they said.			

Language Quality

	1	2	3
I can make myself understood using memorised phrases and single expressions.			
I can link groups of words with simple connectors like "and", "but" and "because".			
I can use some simple structures correctly.			
I have a sufficient vocabulary for coping with simple everyday situations.			



Writing

	1	2	3
I can write short, simple notes and messages.			
I can describe an event in simple sentences and report what happened when and where (for example a party or an accident).			
I can write about aspects of my everyday life in simple phrases and sentences (people, places, job, school, family, hobbies).			
I can fill in a questionnaire giving an account of my educational background, my job, my interests and my specific skills. I			
can briefly introduce myself in a letter with simple phrases and sentences (family, school, job, hobbies).			
I can write a short letter using simple expressions for greeting, addressing, asking or thanking somebody. I			
can write simple sentences, connecting them with words such as "and", "but", "because".			
I can use the most important connecting words to indicate the chronological order of events (first, then, after, later).			

Self-assessment Checklist

Level

B

2
3.3

Language: _____

Use this checklist to record what you think you can do (Column 1). Ask someone else, for example your teacher, to also assess what they think you can do (Column 2). Use Column 3 to mark those things that you cannot yet do which you feel are important for you (Column 3 = Objectives). Add to the list – perhaps with your teacher – other things that you can do, or that are important for your language learning at this level.

Use the following symbols:

In columns 1 and 2

- ✓ I can do this under normal circumstances
- ✓✓ I can do this easily

In column 3

- ! This is an objective for me
- !! This is a priority for me

If you have over 80% of the points ticked, you have probably reached Level B1.



Listening

- I can follow clearly articulated speech directed at me in everyday conversation, though I sometimes have to ask for repetition of particular words and phrases.
- I can generally follow the main points of extended discussion around me, provided speech is clearly articulated in standard dialect.
- I can listen to a short narrative and form hypotheses about what will happen next.
- I can understand the main points of radio news bulletins and simpler recorded material on topics of personal interest delivered relatively slowly and clearly.
- I can catch the main points in TV programmes on familiar topics when the delivery is relatively slow and clear.
- I can understand simple technical information, such as operating instructions for everyday equipment.



Reading

- I can understand the main points in short newspaper articles about current and familiar topics.
- I can read columns or interviews in newspapers and magazines in which someone takes a stand on a current topic or event and understand the overall meaning of the text.
- I can guess the meaning of single unknown words from the context thus deducing the meaning of expressions if the topic is familiar.
- I can skim short texts (for example news summaries) and find relevant facts and information (for example who has done what and where).
- I can understand the most important information in short simple everyday information brochures.
- I can understand simple messages and standard letters (for example from businesses, clubs or authorities).
- In private letters I can understand those parts dealing with events, feelings and wishes well enough to correspond regularly with a pen friend.
- I can understand the plot of a clearly structured story and recognise what the most important episodes and events are and what is significant about them.



Spoken Interaction

- I can start, maintain and close simple face-to-face conversation on topics that are familiar or of personal interest.
- I can maintain a conversation or discussion but may sometimes be difficult to follow when trying to say exactly what I would like to.
- I can deal with most situations likely to arise when making travel arrangements through an agent or when actually travelling.
- I can ask for and follow detailed directions.
- I can express and respond to feelings such as surprise, happiness, sadness, interest and indifference.

	Me	My teacher/another	My objectives
	1	2	3
Listening			
I can follow clearly articulated speech directed at me in everyday conversation, though I sometimes have to ask for repetition of particular words and phrases.			
I can generally follow the main points of extended discussion around me, provided speech is clearly articulated in standard dialect.			
I can listen to a short narrative and form hypotheses about what will happen next.			
I can understand the main points of radio news bulletins and simpler recorded material on topics of personal interest delivered relatively slowly and clearly.			
I can catch the main points in TV programmes on familiar topics when the delivery is relatively slow and clear.			
I can understand simple technical information, such as operating instructions for everyday equipment.			
Reading			
I can understand the main points in short newspaper articles about current and familiar topics.			
I can read columns or interviews in newspapers and magazines in which someone takes a stand on a current topic or event and understand the overall meaning of the text.			
I can guess the meaning of single unknown words from the context thus deducing the meaning of expressions if the topic is familiar.			
I can skim short texts (for example news summaries) and find relevant facts and information (for example who has done what and where).			
I can understand the most important information in short simple everyday information brochures.			
I can understand simple messages and standard letters (for example from businesses, clubs or authorities).			
In private letters I can understand those parts dealing with events, feelings and wishes well enough to correspond regularly with a pen friend.			
I can understand the plot of a clearly structured story and recognise what the most important episodes and events are and what is significant about them.			
Spoken Interaction			
I can start, maintain and close simple face-to-face conversation on topics that are familiar or of personal interest.			
I can maintain a conversation or discussion but may sometimes be difficult to follow when trying to say exactly what I would like to.			
I can deal with most situations likely to arise when making travel arrangements through an agent or when actually travelling.			
I can ask for and follow detailed directions.			
I can express and respond to feelings such as surprise, happiness, sadness, interest and indifference.			

Use the following symbols:

In columns 1 and 2

✓ I can do this under normal circumstances

✓✓ I can do this easily

In column 3

! This is an objective for me

!! This is a priority for me

If you have over 80% of the points ticked, you have probably reached Level A1.

	Me	My teacher/another	My objectives
I can give or seek personal views and opinions in an informal discussion with friends.			
I can agree and disagree politely.			
Spoken Production	1	2	3
I can narrate a story.			
I can give detailed accounts of experiences, describing feelings and reactions.			
I can describe dreams, hopes and ambitions.			
I can explain and give reasons for my plans, intentions and actions.			
I can relate the plot of a book or film and describe my reactions.			
I can paraphrase short written passages orally in a simple fashion, using the original text wording and ordering.			
Strategies	1	2	3
I can repeat back part of what someone has said to confirm that we understand each other. I can ask someone to clarify or elaborate what they have just said.			
When I can't think of the word I want, I can use a simple word meaning something similar and invite "correction".			
Language Quality	1	2	3
I can keep a conversation going comprehensibly, but have to pause to plan and correct what I am saying – especially when I talk freely for longer periods.			
I can convey simple information of immediate relevance, getting across which point I feel is most important.			
I have a sufficient vocabulary to express myself with some circumlocutions on most topics pertinent to my everyday life such as family, hobbies and interests, work, travel, and current events.			
I can express myself reasonably accurately in familiar, predictable situations.			
Writing	1	2	3
I can write simple connected texts on a range of topics within my field of interest and can express personal views and opinions.			
I can write simple texts about experiences or events, for example about a trip, for a school newspaper or a club newsletter.			
I can write personal letters to friends or acquaintances asking for or giving them news and narrating events. I can describe in a personal letter the plot of a film or a book or give an account of a concert.			
In a letter I can express feelings such as grief, happiness, interest, regret and sympathy.			
I can reply in written form to advertisements and ask for more complete or more specific information about products (for example a car or an academic course).			
I can convey – via fax, e-mail or a circular – short simple factual information to friends or colleagues or ask for information in such a way.			
I can write my CV in summary form.			

Self-assessment Checklist

Level

B

2

3.4

Language: _____

Use this checklist to record what you think you can do (Column 1). Ask someone else, for example your teacher, to also assess what they think you can do (Column 2). Use Column 3 to mark those things that you cannot yet do which you feel are important for you (Column 3 = Objectives). Add to the list – perhaps with your teacher – other things that you can do, or that are important for your language learning at this level.

Use the following symbols:

In columns 1 and 2

✓ I can do this under normal circumstances

✓✓ I can do this easily

In column 3

! This is an objective for me

!! This is a priority for me

If you have over 80% of the points ticked, you have probably reached Level B2.



Listening

	Me	My teacher/another	My objectives
	1	2	3
I can understand in detail what is said to me in standard spoken language even in a noisy environment.			
I can follow a lecture or talk within my own field, provided the subject matter is familiar and the presentation straightforward and clearly structured.			
I can understand most radio documentaries delivered in standard language and can identify the speaker's mood, tone etc.			
I can understand TV documentaries, live interviews, talk shows, plays and the majority of films in standard dialect.			
I can understand the main ideas of complex speech on both concrete and abstract topics delivered in a standard dialect, including technical discussions in my field of specialisation.			
I can use a variety of strategies to achieve comprehension, including listening for main points; checking comprehension by using contextual clues.			



Reading

	1	2	3
I can rapidly grasp the content and the significance of news, articles and reports on topics connected with my interests or my job, and decide if a closer reading is worthwhile.			
I can read and understand articles and reports on current problems in which the writers express specific attitudes and points of view.			
I can understand in detail texts within my field of interest or the area of my academic or professional speciality.			
I can understand specialised articles outside my own field if I can occasionally check with a dictionary.			
I can read reviews dealing with the content and criticism of cultural topics (films, theatre, books, concerts) and summarise the main points.			
I can read letters on topics within my areas of academic or professional speciality or interest and grasp the most important points.			
I can quickly look through a manual (for example for a computer program) and find and understand the relevant explanations and help for a specific problem.			
I can understand in a narrative or play the motives for the characters' actions and their consequences for the development of the plot.			



Spoken Interaction

	1	2	3
I can initiate, maintain and end discourse naturally with effective turn-taking.			
I can exchange considerable quantities of detailed factual information on matters within my fields of interest.			
I can convey degrees of emotion and highlight the personal significance of events and experiences.			
I can engage in extended conversation in a clearly participatory fashion on most general topics.			

Use the following symbols:

In columns 1 and 2

✓ *I can do this under normal circumstances*

✓✓ *I can do this easily*

In column 3

! *This is an objective for me*

!! *This is a priority for me*

If you have over 80% of the points ticked, you have probably reached Level A1.

	Me	My teacher/another	My objectives
I can account for and sustain my opinions in discussion by providing relevant explanations, arguments and comments. I can help a discussion along on familiar ground confirming comprehension, inviting others in, etc.			
I can carry out a prepared interview, checking and confirming information, following up interesting replies.			
Spoken Production	1	2	3
I can give clear, detailed descriptions on a wide range of subjects related to my fields of interest.			
I can understand and summarise orally short extracts from news items, interviews or documentaries containing opinions, argument and discussion.			
I can understand and summarise orally the plot and sequence of events in an extract from a film or play. I can construct a chain of reasoned argument, linking my ideas logically.			
I can explain a viewpoint on a topical issue giving the advantages and disadvantages of various options. I can speculate about causes, consequences, hypothetical situations.			
Strategies	1	2	3
I can use standard phrases like "That's a difficult question to answer" to gain time and keep the turn while formulating what to say.			
I can make a note of "favourite mistakes" and consciously monitor speech for them.			
I can generally correct slips and errors if I become aware of them or if they have led to misunderstandings.			
Language Quality	1	2	3
I can produce stretches of language with a fairly even tempo; although I can be hesitant as I search for expressions, there are few noticeably long pauses.			
I can pass on detailed information reliably.			
I have sufficient vocabulary to express myself on matters connected to my field and on most general topics.			
I can communicate with reasonable accuracy and can correct mistakes if they have led to misunderstandings.			
Writing	1	2	3
I can write clear and detailed texts (compositions, reports or texts of presentations) on various topics related to my field of interest.			
I can write summaries of articles on topics of general interest. I can summarise information from different sources and media.			
I can discuss a topic in a composition or "letter to the editor", giving reasons for or against a specific point of view.			
I can develop an argument systematically in a composition or report, emphasising decisive points and including supporting details.			
I can write about events and real or fictional experiences in a detailed and easily readable way. I can write a short review of a film or a book.			
I can express in a personal letter different feelings and attitudes and can report the news of the day making clear what – in my opinion – are the important aspects of an event.			

Self-assessment Checklist

Level

C

2
3.5

Language: _____

Use this checklist to record what you think you can do (Column 1). Ask someone else, for example your teacher, to also assess what they think you can do (Column 2). Use Column 3 to mark those things that you cannot yet do which you feel are important for you (Column 3 = Objectives). Add to the list – perhaps with your teacher – other things that you can do, or that are important for your language learning at this level.

Use the following symbols:

In columns 1 and 2

✓ I can do this under normal circumstances

✓✓ I can do this easily

In column 3

! This is an objective for me

!! This is a priority for me

If you have over 80% of the points ticked, you have probably reached Level C1.



Listening

	Me	My teacher/another	My objectives
	1	2	3
I can follow extended speech even when it is not clearly structured and when relationships are only implied and not signalled explicitly.			
I can understand a wide range of idiomatic expressions and colloquialisms, appreciating shifts in style and register.			
I can extract specific information from even poor quality, audibly distorted public announcements, e.g. in a station, sports stadium etc.			
I can understand complex technical information, such as operating instructions, specifications for familiar products and services.			
I can understand lectures, talks and reports in my field of professional or academic interest even when they are propositionally and linguistically complex.			
I can without too much effort understand films which contain a considerable degree of slang and idiomatic usage.			



Reading

	Me	My teacher/another	My objectives
	1	2	3
I can understand fairly long demanding texts and summarise them orally.			
I can read complex reports, analyses and commentaries where opinions, viewpoints and connections are discussed.			
I can extract information, ideas and opinions from highly specialised texts in my own field, for example research reports.			
I can understand long complex instructions, for example for the use of a new piece of equipment, even if these are not related to my job or field of interest, provided I have enough time to reread them.			
I can read any correspondence with occasional use of a dictionary.			
I can read contemporary literary texts with ease.			
I can go beyond the concrete plot of a narrative and grasp implicit meanings, ideas and connections.			
I can recognise the social, political or historical background of a literary work.			



Spoken Interaction

	Me	My teacher/another	My objectives
	1	2	3
I can keep up with an animated conversation between native speakers.			
I can use the language fluently, accurately and effectively on a wide range of general, professional or academic topics.			
I can use language flexibly and effectively for social purposes, including emotional, allusive and joking usage.			
I can express my ideas and opinions clearly and precisely, and can present and respond to complex lines of reasoning convincingly.			

Use the following symbols:

In columns 1 and 2

✓ I can do this under normal circumstances

✓✓ I can do this easily

In column 3

! This is an objective for me

!! This is a priority for me

If you have over 80% of the points ticked, you have probably reached Level A1.



	Me	My teacher/another	My objectives
Spoken Production	1	2	3
I can give clear, detailed descriptions of complex subjects.			
I can orally summarise long, demanding texts.			
I can give an extended description or account of something, integrating themes, developing particular points and concluding appropriately.			
I can give a clearly developed presentation on a subject in my fields of personal or professional interest, departing when necessary from the prepared text and following up spontaneously points raised by members of the audience.			
Strategies	1	2	3
I can use fluently a variety of appropriate expressions to preface my remarks in order to get the floor, or to gain time and keep the floor while thinking.			
I can relate own contribution skilfully to those of other speakers.			
I can substitute an equivalent term for a word I can't recall without distracting the listener.			
Language Quality	1	2	3
I can express myself fluently and spontaneously, almost effortlessly. Only a conceptually difficult subject can hinder a natural, smooth flow of language.			
I can produce clear, smoothly-flowing, well-structured speech, showing control over ways of developing what I want to say in order to link both my ideas and my expression of them into coherent text.			
I have a good command of a broad vocabulary allowing gaps to be readily overcome with circumlocutions ; I rarely have to search obviously for expressions or compromise on saying exactly what I want to.			
I can consistently maintain a high degree of grammatical accuracy ; errors are rare and difficult to spot.			
Writing	1	2	3
I can express myself in writing on a wide range of general or professional topics in a clear and user-friendly manner.			
I can present a complex topic in a clear and well-structured way, highlighting the most important points, for example in a composition or a report.			
I can present points of view in a comment on a topic or an event, underlining the main ideas and supporting my reasoning with detailed examples.			
I can put together information from different sources and relate it in a coherent summary.			
I can give a detailed description of experiences, feelings and events in a personal letter.			
I can write formally correct letters, for example to complain or to take a stand in favour of or against something.			
I can write texts which show a high degree of grammatical correctness and vary my vocabulary and style according to the addressee, the kind of text and the topic.			
I can select a style appropriate to the reader in mind.			



Self-assessment Checklist

Level

C

2
3.6

Language:

Use this checklist to record what you think you can do (Column 1). Ask someone else, for example your teacher, to also assess what they think you can do (Column 2). Use Column 3 to mark those things that you cannot yet do which you feel are important for you (Column 3 = Objectives). Add to the list – perhaps with your teacher – other things that you can do, or that are important for your language learning at this level.

Use the following symbols:

In columns 1 and 2

✓ I can do this under normal circumstances





✓✓ I can do this easily

In column 3

! This is an objective for me

!! This is a priority for me

If you have over 80% of the points ticked, you have probably reached Level C2.

	Me	My teacher/another	My objectives
 Listening	1	2	3
I have no difficulty in understanding any kind of spoken language, whether live or broadcast, even when delivered at fast native speed, provided I have some time to get familiar with the accent.			
 Reading	1	2	3
I can recognise plays on words and appreciate texts whose real meaning is not explicit (for example irony, satire).			
I can understand texts written in a very colloquial style and containing many idiomatic expressions or slang.			
I can understand manuals, regulations and contracts even within unfamiliar fields.			
I can understand contemporary and classical literary texts of different genres (poetry, prose, drama).			
I can read texts such as literary columns or satirical glosses where much is said in an indirect and ambiguous way and which contain hidden value judgements.			
I can recognise different stylistic means (puns, metaphors, symbols, connotations, ambiguity) and appreciate and evaluate their function within the text.			
 Spoken Interaction	1	2	3
I can take part effortlessly in all conversations and discussions with native speakers.			
 Spoken Production	1	2	3
I can summarise orally information from different sources, reconstructing arguments and accounts in a coherent presentation.			
I can present ideas and viewpoints in a very flexible manner in order to give emphasis, to differentiate and to eliminate ambiguity.			
Strategies	1	2	3
I can backtrack and restructure around a difficulty so smoothly the interlocutor is hardly aware of it.			

Use the following symbols:

In columns 1 and 2

✓ *I can do this under normal circumstances*

✓✓ *I can do this easily*

In column 3

! *This is an objective for me*

!! *This is a priority for me*

If you have over 80% of the points ticked, you have probably reached Level A1.

Language Quality

I can express myself naturally and effortlessly; I only need to pause occasionally in order to select precisely the right words.

I can convey finer shades of meaning precisely by using, with reasonable accuracy, a wide range of expressions to qualify statements and pinpoint the extent to which something is the case.

I have a good command of idiomatic expressions and colloquialisms with an awareness of implied meaning and meaning by association.

I can consistently maintain grammatical control of complex language even when my attention is otherwise engaged.

 **Writing**

I can write well-structured and easily readable reports and articles on complex topics.

In a report or an essay I can give a complete account of a topic based on research I have carried out, make a summary of the opinions of others, and give and evaluate detailed information and facts.

I can write a well-structured review of a paper or a project giving reasons for my opinion.

I can write a critical review of cultural events (film, music, theatre, literature, radio, TV).

I can write summaries of factual texts and literary works.

I can write narratives about experiences in a clear, fluent style appropriate to the genre.





I can write clear, well-structured complex letters in an appropriate style, for example an application or request, an offer to authorities, superiors or commercial clients.



In a letter I can express myself in a consciously ironical, ambiguous and humorous way.

LISTENING

Tick when you can do these things.

✓


Breakthrough		
 A1 <small>COUNCIL OF EUROPE CONSEIL DE L'EUROPE</small>		
<i>I can understand familiar words and very basic phrases when people speak slowly and clearly</i>		
Grade 1 	I can understand a few familiar spoken words and phrases <i>e.g. the teacher's instructions, a few words and phrases in a song or a rhyme, days of the week, colours or numbers ...</i>	
Grade 2	I can understand a range of familiar spoken phrases <i>e.g. basic phrases concerning myself, my family and school ...</i>	
Grade 3	I can understand the main point(s) from a short spoken passage <i>e.g. a short rhyme or song, a telephone message, announcement or weather forecast ...</i>	
Preliminary		
 A2 <small>COUNCIL OF EUROPE CONSEIL DE L'EUROPE</small>		
<i>I can understand phrases and high frequency words relating to basic personal and everyday matters and the main points in short, clear, simple messages and announcements</i>		
Grade 4 	I can understand the main points and some of the detail from a short spoken passage <i>e.g. sentences describing people, what they are wearing, what they are doing ...</i>	
Grade 5	I can understand the main points and simple opinions (e.g. likes and dislikes) of a longer spoken passage <i>e.g. children talking about their likes and dislikes; descriptions of people and what they are wearing ...</i>	





Grade 6	I can understand spoken passages referring to past or future events <i>e.g. someone giving details of what he or she did on holiday or at the weekend; a telephone conversation arranging to meet someone; a conversation in which people talk about what they are going to do at the weekend ...</i>	
Intermediate		
 B1 COUNCIL OF EUROPE CONSEIL DE L'EUROPE		
<i>I can understand the main points of clear standard speech on familiar topics which I meet regularly in my spare time and at school. I can understand the main points of many radio or TV programmes on topics which interest me, when the commentary is fairly slow and clear</i>		
Grade 7 	I can understand longer passages and recognise people's points of view <i>e.g. a video or audio text received from a partner school ...</i>	
Grade 8	I can understand passages including some unfamiliar material from which I can recognise attitudes and emotions <i>e.g. a story in which some of the words and phrases are unknown ...</i>	
Grade 9	I can understand the gist of a range of authentic passages. I can produce a detailed oral or written summary of a given text. <i>e.g. a radio or television programme on a subject which interests me ...</i>	


Speaking and talking to someone

Tick when you can do these things.

√

Breakthrough		
 A1 COUNCIL OF EUROPE CONSEIL DE L'EUROPE		
<i>I can use simple phrases and sentences and I can also talk with someone in a simple way, asking and answering questions</i>		



Grade 1 	I can say/repeat a few words and short simple phrases <i>e.g. what the weather is like; greeting someone; naming classroom objects ...</i>	
Grade 2	I can answer simple questions and give basic information <i>e.g. about the weather; where I live; whether I have brothers or sisters, or a pet ...</i>	
Grade 3	I can ask and answer simple questions and talk about my interests <i>e.g. taking part in an interview about my area and interests; a survey about pets or favourite foods; talking with a friend about what we like to do and wear ...</i>	
Preliminary		
 A2 COUNCIL OF EUROPE CONSEIL DE L'EUROPE <i>I can give a short prepared talk , e.g. describe a picture or people, my school, my home, and take part in a simple conversation on familiar topics.</i>		
Grade 4 	I can take part in a simple conversation and I can express my opinions <i>e.g. discussing a picture with a partner, describing colours, shapes and saying whether I it or not; asking for and giving directions; discussing houses, pets, food ...</i>	
Grade 5	I can give a short prepared talk, on a topic of my choice, including expressing my opinions <i>e.g. talking on a familiar subject; describing a picture or part of a story; making a presentation to the class ...</i>	
Grade 6	I can give a short prepared talk, on a topic of my choice expressing opinions and answering simple questions about it <i>e.g. talking about my classroom and school, asking and answering questions on favourite sport or a story ...</i>	
Intermediate		
 B1 COUNCIL OF EUROPE CONSEIL DE L'EUROPE <i>I can join in an unprepared conversation on everyday topics. I can tell a story and can describe things I have done and what I am going to do, giving reasons for opinions and plans</i>		

Grade 7 	I can answer simple unprepared questions in a conversation or following a presentation <i>e.g. on a TV or radio programme, on everyday topics, a story I have read or heard ...</i>	
Grade 8	I can tell a story or relate the plot of a book or film and give my opinions on it <i>e.g. a film I have recently seen or a book I have read ...</i>	
Grade 9	I can take part in a discussion, giving and justifying my opinions and ideas <i>e.g. on a subject discussed in class, on a book, film or TV programme ...</i>	

Reading

Tick when you can do these things.

√


Breakthrough		
 A1 COUNCIL OF EUROPE CONSEIL DE L'EUROPE		
<i>I can understand familiar names, words and very simple sentences</i>		
Grade 1 	I can recognise and read out a few familiar words and phrases <i>e.g. from stories and rhymes, labels on familiar objects, the date, the weather ...</i>	
Grade 2	I can understand familiar written phrases <i>e.g. simple phrases, weather phrases, simple description of objects, someone writing about their pet ...</i>	
Grade 3	I can understand the main point(s) from a short written passage in clear printed script <i>e.g. very simple messages on a postcard or in an e-mail ...</i>	
Preliminary		



A2

COUNCIL OF EUROPE CONSEIL DE L'EUROPE

I can read very short, simple texts and find information I need in longer texts such as simple messages, stories or Internet texts

<p>Grade 4</p> 	<p>I can understand the main points and some of the detail from a short written passage <i>e.g. three to four sentences of information about my e-pal; a description of someone's school day ...</i></p>	
<p>Grade 5</p>	<p>I can understand the main points and simple opinions (e.g. likes and dislikes) of a longer written passage <i>e.g. a postcard or letter from a penpal; a written account of school life, a poem or part of a story ...</i></p>	

<p>Grade 6</p>	<p>I can understand longer passages and distinguish present and past or future events <i>e.g. a short story; a description of someone's day; a letter in which someone describes a person or place, an excursion ...</i></p>	
-----------------------	--	--


Intermediate



B1

COUNCIL OF EUROPE CONSEIL DE L'EUROPE





I can understand authentic texts on topics of interest to me and the description of events, feelings and wishes in personal letters or e-mails

<p>Grade 7</p> 	<p>I can understand longer passages and recognise people's points of view <i>e.g. a longer e-mail message or letter ...</i></p>	
<p>Grade 8</p>	<p>I can understand passages including some unfamiliar material from which I can recognise attitudes and emotions <i>e.g. texts about everyday life in another country, a letter from a magazine ...</i></p>	
<p>Grade 9</p>	<p>I can understand a wide range of authentic texts. I can produce an oral or written summary or translation of a given text <i>e.g. internet texts on topics I am learning about in other subjects, a story or magazine article ...</i></p>	

Writing

Tick when you can do these things.



Breakthrough		
 A1 COUNCIL OF EUROPE CONSEIL DE L'EUROPE		
<p><i>I can write a short, simple postcard or e-mail message. I can write simple information about myself</i></p>		
Grade 1 	I can write or copy simple words or symbols <i>e.g. personal information, where I live, how old I am, numbers, colours and objects ...</i>	
Grade 2	I can write one or two short sentences and fill in the words in on a simple form <i>e.g. a shopping list, holiday greetings by e-mail or on a postcard ...</i>	
Grade 3	I can write two to three short sentences using reference materials/with the support of a peer <i>e.g. a postcard, a simple note or message, an identity card ...</i>	
Preliminary		
 A2 COUNCIL OF EUROPE CONSEIL DE L'EUROPE		
<p><i>I can write short, simple notes and messages. I can write a simple personal letter or e-mail message</i></p>		
Grade 4 	I can write a short passage on a familiar topic using reference materials/with the support of a peer <i>e.g. three to four sentences for a wall display; a simple e-mail message ...</i>	
Grade 5	I can write a short passage on a range of everyday topics <i>e.g. three to four sentences about myself, about a story and about a picture; a message containing three to four sentences; a postcard or greetings card ...</i>	
Grade 6	I can write a simple text, e.g. a letter, giving and seeking information <i>e.g. about holidays, hobbies, outings, where I live ...</i>	


Intermediate



B1




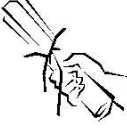
COUNCIL OF EUROPE
CONSEIL DE L'EUROPE

I can write simple connected text on topics which are familiar or of interest to me. I can also write personal letters and e-mails describing experiences and impressions







Grade 7 	I can write a passage, e.g. a report or a letter, conveying simple opinions and/or points of view <i>e.g. a short description of a story, film or TV programme, including opinions ...</i>	
Grade 8	I can produce formal and informal texts in appropriate styles <i>e.g. a letter requesting an item of shopping or information about a region ...</i>	
Grade 9	I can communicate ideas accurately and in an appropriate style over a range of topics <i>e.g. using a range of tenses and adapting language I have learnt previously ...</i>	

Appendix IV


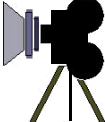
LEARNING STRATEGIES LIST FOR STUDENTS

METACOGNITIVE STRATEGIES		
Strategy	Description	
Organize / Plan	 Calendar	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Plan the task or content sequence. -Set goals. -Plan how to accomplish the task.
Manage Your Own Learning	 Pace Yourself	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Determine how you learn best. -Arrange conditions that help you learn. -Seek opportunities for practice. -Focus your attention on the task.
Monitor	 Check	While working on a task: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Check your progress on the task. -Check your comprehension as you use the language. Are you understanding? -Check your production as you use the language. Are you making sense?
Evaluate	 I did it!	After completing a task: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Assess how well you have accomplished the learning task. -Assess how well you have applied the strategies. -Decide how effective the strategies were in helping you accomplish the task.



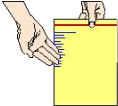

TASK BASED STRATEGIES: USE WHAT YOU KNOW

Strategy	Description	
Use Background Knowledge	 I know.	-Think about and use what you already know to help you do the task. - Make associations.
Make Inferences	 Use Clues	-Use context and what you know to figure out meaning. -Read and listen between the lines.
Make Predictions	 Crystal Ball	-Anticipate information to come. -Make logical guesses about what will happen.
Personalize	 Me	-Relate new concepts to your own life, that is, to your experiences, knowledge, beliefs and feelings.
Transfer / Use Cognates	 telephone/teléfono/ Telefon/téléfon	-Apply your linguistic knowledge of other languages (including your native language) to the target language. -Recognize cognates.
Substitute / Paraphrase	 Spare Tire	-Think of a similar word or descriptive phrase for words you do not know in the target language.




TASK-BASED STRATEGIES: USE YOUR IMAGINATION

Strategy	Description	
Use Imagery	 Mirror, Mirror	-Use or create an image to understand and/or represent information.
Use Real Objects / Role Play	 Lights, Camera, Action!	--Act out and/or imagine yourself in different roles in the target language. -Manipulate real objects as you use the target language.

TASK-BASED STRATEGIES: USE YOUR ORGANIZATIONAL SKILLS

Strategy	Description	
Find/Apply Patterns	 Sound Out	-Apply a rule. -Make a rule. -Sound out and apply letter/sound rules.
Use Graphic Organizers/ Take Notes	 Notepad	-Use or create visual representations (such as Venn diagrams, time lines, and charts) of important relationships between concepts. -Write down important words and ideas.
Summarize	 Main Idea	-Create a mental, oral, or written summary of information.
Use Selective Attention	 Look for It	-Focus on specific information, structures, key words, phrases, or ideas.

TASK-BASED STRATEGIES: USE A VARIETY OF RESOURCES

Strategy	Description	
<p style="text-align: center;">Access Information Sources</p>	 <p style="text-align: center;">Read all about it!</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Use the dictionary, the internet, and other reference materials. -Seek out and use sources of information. -Follow a model -Ask questions
<p style="text-align: center;">Cooperate</p>	 <p style="text-align: center;">Together</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Work with others to complete tasks, build confidence, and give and receive feedback.
<p style="text-align: center;">Talk Yourself Through It (Self-Talk)</p>	 <p style="text-align: center;">I can do it!</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Use your inner resources. Reduce your anxiety by reminding yourself of your progress, the resources you have available, and your goals.

Appendix V – Reflective journal template

Summary of what was done (don't describe everything, be selective)

-
-
-

New Learning

What did I learn that was new to me?

What insights did this new knowledge give to me?

did it help me see something in a new light?

did it help me understand something that I didn't understand before?

How do I think this might be useful (in practice, in my studies, in my life)?

Personal reaction

How did I feel about what was done? (Did it affect me emotionally and if so how?)

What did I like or enjoy and why?

What did I dislike and why?

What did I find easy to do or understand and why?

What did I find difficult or challenging to do or understand and why?

Action to be taken

Is there any action that I will take as a result of what was done?

Do I need to plug gaps in my knowledge?

Do I need to practise, investigate or research further?

Appendix VI

Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale

Indicate your opinion about each statement by stating the extent to whether you agree or not.

		Strongly agree	agree	neutral	disagree	Strongly disagree
1	I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in my foreign language class.					
2	I <i>don't</i> worry about making mistakes in MFL class.					
3	I tremble when I know that I am going to be called on in my MFL class.					
4	It frightens me when I don't understand what the teacher is saying in a foreign language.					
5	I wouldn't bother me at all to take more FL lessons.					
6	In MFL I feel myself thinking about things that have nothing to do with the lesson.					
7	I keep thinking that the other students are better at languages than I am.					
8	I am usually at ease during exams in MFL.					
9	I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in the MFL class.					
10	I worry about the consequences of failing my MFL course.					
11	I don't understand why some people get so upset over MFL lessons.					
12	In MFL I can get so nervous I forget things I know.					
13	It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my MFL lessons.					
14	I would <i>not</i> be nervous speaking the foreign language with native speakers.					
15	I get upset when I don't understand what the teacher is correcting.					
16	Even if I am well prepared for the MFL lesson, I feel anxious about it.					
17	I often feel like not attending my MFL class.					
18	I feel confident when I speak in my MFL class.					
19	I am afraid that my language teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make.					
20	I can feel my heart pounding when I'm going to be called on in the language class.					
21	The more I study for a language exam, the more confused I get.					
22	I <i>don't</i> feel pressure to prepare very well for MFL					

	class.					
23	I always feel that the other students speak the foreign language better than I do.					
24	I feel very self-conscious about speaking the foreign language better than the other students.					
25	The MFL lesson moves so quickly I worry about getting behind.					
26	I feel more tense and nervous in the language class than in my other classes.					
27	I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my language lessons.					
28	When I'm on my way to MFL, I feel very sure and relaxed.					
29	I get nervous when I don't understand every word the language teacher says.					
30	I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules you have to learn to speak a foreign language.					
31	I am afraid that other students will laugh at me when I speak the foreign language.					
32	I would probably feel comfortable around native speakers of the foreign language.					
33	I get nervous when the language teacher asks questions which I haven't prepared in advance.					

76 *Strategy instruction*

En appel is rood,
de zon is geel,
de hemel is blauw,
een blad is groen,
een wolk is wit . . .
en de aarde is bruin.

En zou je nu kunnen
antwoorden
op de vraag . . .
Welke Kleur de liefde?



Figure 4.1 Dutch poem

Appendix VIII: Resource II

+	-	x	=
mas	menos	por	igual
uno + dos =	tres		
tres x dos =	seis		
nueve - cuatro =	cinco		

Las Asignaturas

París
familia
música
taxi
cine
teatro
deportes
fútbol
matemáticas
museo
gimnasio
francés
geografía
inglés
ciencias
fiesta
amigo
adiós



Colegio

Mi **colegio** se llama Springfield Lower.



Asignaturas

Tengo ocho **asignaturas**.



Estudiar

Estudio inglés, matemáticas, ciencias, francés, deportes, música, historia **y** geografía.

Learning outcomes:

I can:

- name eight school subjects ✓
- say the name of my school ✓
- say what subjects I study ✓

Well done! 😊