# Theory and Practice Reflected in Interaction in The Scottish Modern Languages Classroom: Four Early Career Modern Languages Teachers' Ideal-Selves Stories

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**Abstract**

In Second Language Acquisition (SLA) theory, Modern Language (ML) classroom research is characterised by interaction analysis and anthropological observation, with the aim to interpret the complexity of learning processes 'inside the black box'. Yet, most of the recent interaction analysis which underpins SLA theory takes place in laboratory studies - outside the black box intending to replicate the conditions for learning inside the black box. The first aim of this thesis was to see whether SLA interaction theory was consonant with the observed ML secondary Scottish schools classrooms. I observed four early career ML teachers in four comprehensive secondary schools over a year. Linked to the first aim, as a teacher educator I was also interested in their Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK) development in terms of interaction in the target language. Semi-structured formal and informal interviews sought to elicit the four teachers' perceptions of their PCK development in Communicative Teaching. Dörnyei's Principled Communicative Approach (2009a) and Gass and Mackey's Interaction Approach (2006) provided frameworks to explore the ways in which SLA theory was consonant with these four teachers' practices. For the second research aim, I created an Early Career ML Teacher Development Framework to look into the four teachers' pedagogical development. The study showed that SLA interaction theory was consonant with the studied classrooms, but with some caveats: I coined the term 'ping-pong' to capture the interaction observed, as an alternative to the IRF/IRE frameworks. In the field of SLA theory in the post-method era, the findings provide an important contribution to the understanding of the impact the alignment of Curriculum, Assessment and Pedagogy has in ML learning; the significance of the flow of language skills for classroom interaction and the role of target language use within Assessment is for Learning pedagogy. In the field of ML early career PCK development in interaction, this study is of great importance as it has provided a deep and detailed investigation of teachers' interaction over one year, and it explored their development of understanding of the concepts underpinning their practices. The findings highlight the importance of agency and professional space as these aspects were crucial for the emergence of ML PCK in the field of interaction. This research has important implications for those involved in teacher education as well as teachers, schools and policy makers.

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**Author's Declaration**

I declare that, except where explicit reference is made to the contribution of others, this dissertation is the result of my own work and has not been submitted for any other degree at the University of Glasgow or any other institution.

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**Abbreviations**

| | |
|---|---|
| ACTFL | American Council Teaching Foreign Languages |
| BGE | Broad General Education (12 to 15 years old in Scotland) |
| CA | Communicative Approach |
| CAMCC | Cognitive Affective Model of Conceptual Change (Gregoire, 2003:165) |
| CEFR | Common European Framework of Reference for Languages |
| CFE | Curriculum for Excellence |
| CLIL | Content Language Integrated Learning |
| CLT | Communicative Language Teaching |
| CPD | Continuing Professional Development |
| ECMLST | Early Career Modern Languages Secondary Teachers |
| Ed D | Doctorate of Education |
| GTM | Grammar Translation Method |
| GTCS | General Teaching Council Scotland |
| IA | Interaction Approach (Gass and Mackey, 2006) |
| ITE | Initial Teacher Education |
| LA | Local Authority (Scotland) |
| PCK | Pedagogical Content Knowledge |
| LTCC | Language Teacher Conceptual Change (Kubanyiova, 2012) |
| ML | Modern Languages |
| NFfL | National Framework for Languages (Scotland) |
| NQT | New Qualified Teacher |
| PCA | Principled Communicative Approach (Dörnyei, 2009a;2009c) |
| PGDE | Post Graduate Diploma Education |
| SQA | Scottish Qualification Authority |
| SLA | Second Language Acquisition |
| SP | Senior Phase (15 to 18 years old in Scotland) |

## Chapter One: Introduction

### 1.1 Context of the study

This study investigates the perceptions and practice of four *early career Modern Languages secondary teachers* (ECMLST) in terms of their pedagogical development in the classroom, from their first exposure to the classroom as student teachers to their current qualified status, focusing in particular on interaction with the learners in the target language. The study was conducted in Scotland with a focus on Modern Languages (ML) teaching and learning. Teaching in Scotland is strictly governed by the General Teaching Council of Scotland (GTCS) which is the gatekeeper for the profession. To teach in Scotland all ML teachers must have undertaken university teacher education programmes. In addition, all teachers educated in Scottish universities are entitled to an induction year as Newly Qualified Teachers (NQT).

When I started the Doctor of Education (Ed D) programme, I was a ML Head of Department and I had worked and supported many student teachers, six ML NQTs and six ECMLSTs over a period of ten years. A strong interest in the area of target language use in the classroom and the moves teachers make to support students' learning of a ML led me to engage in research beyond collegiate learning with colleagues. I obtained Chartered Teacher[1] status, an award given by the General Teaching Council Scotland (GTCS) in Scotland, for which I completed a dissertation on target language use in the ML classroom. This prompted me to undertake further research, starting the (Ed D) in 2013. By year four of the Ed D, when I started the field work for the study, I had started working as a ML Teacher Educator, hence this study is of special professional interest.

[1] Chartered Teacher in Scotland is considered equivalent to a Master's degree, and it was an Advanced Teacher Skills programme in Scotland awarded by the GTCS after university study and conducting classroom research .

## 1.2 Research Questions

The study aimed to research ECMLST perceptions of their development in preparing for and conducting communicative tasks in the classroom, with a special focus on the interaction processes in the target language. The four participants were observed teaching for a full academic year, from June 2016 to June 2017, working with two age groups of learners from the Broad General Education (BGE) and Senior Phase ([2]). This study seeks to explore how Second Language Acquisition (SLA) theory, and more concretely that of the Interaction Approach (IA), (Gass and Mackey, 2006) is reflected in ML classroom pedagogy in the classrooms of the four teachers who took part in the study. In other words, the study investigated whether what the theorists claim happens in classrooms, did happen in these four classrooms in the post method era (Kumaravadivelu, 2006). Dörnyei's (2009a; 2009c) Principled Communicative Approach (PCA) was used to mediate the more complex theories underpinning Gass and Mackey's Interaction Approach (2006) with the classroom observations. Section 1.3 provides an overview of Dörnyei's PCA and Gass and Mackey's IA.

As the participants in the study were early career teachers, this study explored whether there appeared to be any dissonances between developing in general as a teacher in a secondary school in Scotland and developing specifically as a ML teacher. A further aim was to investigate how the teacher participants' Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK) had developed (Shulman, 1987; Hill et al., 2008) in CLT. For this reason Dörnyei's PCA (2009a; 2009c) and Gass and Mackey's IA (2006) were used as frameworks to illustrate current thinking in SLA and ML PCK. I aimed to explore the ECMLSTs' perceptions of the perceived challenges and support for their ML PCK development. In order to do this, a teacher development framework was designed adapting the ecological agency model, developed by Priestley et al., (2015a) and Kubanyiova's (2012) Language Teacher Conceptual Change (LTCC) framework. The research questions guiding the study are as follows:

[2] In Scotland, the Broad General Education (BGE) Phase extends over three years at secondary school level, encompassing students from S1 to S3 (12-15) and the Senior Phase equally extends for another three years (15/16 to 17/18)

1) In what ways is interaction in SLA theory consonant with the ML classrooms studied in Scotland?

2) What affordances and constraints impacted on the conceptual development of the ML pedagogy of the teachers in the study?

Section 1.4 provides a succinct overview of current SLA trends, as well as Gass and Mackey's (2006) IA and Dörnyei's (2009a; 2009c) PCA, in order to contextualise the study, focusing on interaction in SLA. Before that, the next section, 1.3 provides an overview of the study.

### 1.3 Overview of the Study

The participants had undertaken initial teacher education courses in three different universities in Scotland which, according to their programme statements, have moved away from transmission-oriented teaching styles towards a sociocultural approach to learning. Vygotsky's constructs (1986) will be discussed in the literature review and will be part of the narrative of this thesis, as the current interaction paradigm, which is one of the areas of focus of this study, is strongly influenced by Vygotsky's theories of sociocultural learning.

This study explores the ways early career teachers' practices are consonant with theory in the field of interaction, or rather, whether theory reflects practice - given the lack of recent secondary classroom empirical studies, as highlighted by the literature (Ortega,2005; Spada and Lightbown, 2009). Secondly, the post-method era (Kumaravadivelu, 2003; 2006) conceptualisation of classroom pedagogy in which practitioners do not adhere to any single method or theory merited strong consideration when devising the first research question. The focus of this study was on the teachers and specifically on the 'classroom moves' they made to create opportunities for pupil-pupil interaction or teacher-pupil interaction, as it is widely agreed in the SLA research field that learners acquire language through interaction and not in order to interact (Mackey,2007). Given my interest in initial teacher education (ITE) in the ML field, early career teachers were invited to participate. I intended that the findings would inform aspects of ITE ML education.

The study also sought to delve into participants' processes of reflection, tracing their understanding of classroom practice when leading and or facilitating communicative tasks, at a moment in their careers when they were still developing their professional identity, self-efficacy and teacher agency whilst navigating their way through their new educational context and position within their school. I asked them to reflect on their ITE, NQT as well as the job they had at the time of the study. The study equally sought to look into the teachers' ideal, ought-to or feared selves (Kubanyiova, 2012) by interrogating their personal epistemologies and how their understanding of the CA translated to their classroom practices. It aimed to explore the extent of foreign language used by ML teachers when teaching different stages of learning, namely juniors and seniors. I was keen to find out whether particular teaching approaches in the classroom were related to the age or stage of the learners, and whether the culture of performativity of schools (Ball, 2003) or the wash back effect of high stake assessments (Hayward, 2007; 2015) had any effect in the daily practices of these teachers.

### 1.4 Overview of SLA trends, Dörnyei's (2009a; 2009c) Principled Communicative Approach and Gass and Mackey's (2006) Interaction Approach

Dörnyei is well known for his work in ML motivation. In his 2009 book *The Psychology of Second Language Acquisition* (2009a) he laid out the basis for his PCA. He explained how new brain and learning systems research has brought new understanding about mental representations of linguistic processes (Dörnyei, 2009a:3). He insists on the need for interdisciplinarity in SLA research, including the fields of cognitive linguistics, psycholinguistics, neurolinguistics, cognitive science and cognitive neuroscience. He maintains that these different disciplines will continue to inform us about the different routes to language learning and acquisition. Dörnyei (2009a) offers a concise overview of the four areas of current SLA research:

- L1 acquisition, including the nature versus nurture debate
- Bilingualism, including research on how two linguistic systems operate in the brain of the bilingual speaker

- Second Language Acquisition, including the differences between naturalistic and instructed settings
- Third Language Acquisition

This study is particularly concerned with Dörnyei's third SLA area, namely SLA when learning in instructed settings, that is in this case, in ML classrooms in Scottish secondary schools. Dörnyei's PCA (2009a; 2009c) deals with SLA and has been used as part of the theoretical framework in this study to bridge the classroom observations and Gass and Mackey's IA (2006) in relation to the first research question, *'In what ways is interaction in SLA theory consonant with the ML classrooms studied in Scotland?'* as it offers a post-method view of language pedagogy. The PCA will be reviewed in the literature review chapter, however, at this stage, the following PCA (2009a; 2009c) tenets should be borne in mind:

- It brings together the declarative knowledge building which was the main objective of Grammar Translation Method GTM ML pedagogy;
- It builds on how automatisation processes lead to procedural knowledge, which might resemble the mechanical and repetitive practice of the audiolingual method, but offers insights into comprehensible input and teaching of formulaic language which helps automatisation;
- It presents the Presentation-Practice-Production pedagogy in the context of the CA, advocating for automatisation embedded in the creative production of language by the learner, with a focus on language use and communicative purpose;
- Finally, the PCA connects the interplay of implicit and explicit learning linked to target language use in the ML classroom. The PCA principles allowed me to capture the observed language lessons, and helped to connect the observed lessons with Gass and Mackey's IA (2006).

The main tenets of Gass and Mackey's IA (2006) are:

1. Learning takes place in the actual interaction, not in order to interact

2. The role of attention in learning, which is socially gated (within social and cognitive factors of the learner)

3. Exposure to the target language: links between comprehensible input and output

4. The role of feedback as part of pushed output

5. Comprehension does not guarantee acquisition

These tenets will be reviewed in detail in Chapter Two. The next section introduces a number of methodological considerations and addresses the impact of this study.

### 1.5 Methodological Considerations and Impact of this Study

Nunan (1991) described the difference between classroom research which investigates learners inside classrooms and classroom orientated research, that is, laboratory setting studies motivated by issues relevant to classroom L2 acquisition. He highlighted a key methodological issue of extrapolating laboratory findings to classroom interactions. For this reason, this study is so useful and important for the research community, teachers and teacher educators.

In the 1980s there was a SLA trend to focus on classroom interaction research, and instruments such as the communicative orientation of second language teaching (COLT) were created (Fröhlich et al., 1984) (appendix 7). However, as these were not based on systematic observation of teacher and learners' linguistic behaviours in the classroom they produced descriptive inconclusive findings which led Long (1980) to refer to the classroom as a black box. In the late 1980s and early 1990s there was a trend to focus on the process of learning as opposed to the product, but these classroom studies were still descriptive and did not show learners' interlanguage development (Spada and Lightbown, 2007).

Since then, focusing on the process of language development, it seems that most studies in foreign language learning tend to be conducted with university students in laboratory settings as opposed to the high school classroom (Keck et al., 2006). Keck et al. (2006) conducted a meta-analysis on task-based interaction and acquisition. (Many of the studies they reviewed also featured in Norris and Ortega's meta-analysis (2006).) In Keck et al.'s work (2006) 85% of the sample studies were conducted using native speaker interlocutors in laboratory settings. Keck et al. (2006:123) concluded that their findings concerning the effect of interaction on L2 acquisition should not be applied to educational

foreign language settings, as those populations of learners were unrepresented in their research domain in the period covered by their meta-analysis (1993-2003).

Following on from Keck et al.'s (2006) meta-analysis, Mackey and Goo (2007) conducted a further meta-analysis of conversational interaction in SLA studies in 2007. Among the 75 studies included in Mackey and Goo's meta-analysis 44 were carried out in laboratory contexts, (37 of them with adults), and 31 in classroom contexts - 20 of them with adults. Among the 11 studies in which the participants were children or adolescents, most of the participants lived in immersion contexts, (6 of those 11 studies). Mackey and Goo's meta-analysis (2007) includes only two classroom studies in which the participants were foreign language adolescent learners. For more information about Mackey and Goo's meta-analysis see appendix 4.

A more recent meta-analysis by Lyster and Saito (2010) included 15 classroom studies. Of those, the only three conducted with school age learners involved 12 year olds in intensive English as a Second Language (ESL) in Montreal (Ammar and Spada, 2006), a study with 11 year olds in a French immersion context in Canada (Lyster, 2004) and a study with Dutch 17 year olds learning French in the Dutch speaking part of Belgium (Dekeyser, 1993). For more information, see appendix 5.

Given the dearth of research into this important area, I aimed to contribute to greater understanding with my study which looked at four secondary schools' ML classrooms over a year. It should not only add to the research literature as it will be of practical use to practising professionals in the field.

Although this study is not focused on measuring students' learning outcomes, it aimed to shed some light on the relationship between theory versus practice in the foreign language high school classroom, bringing research into an under-researched area of SLA. Given the majority of research findings are from studies conducted with adults in laboratory settings or with adolescents in bilingual settings this study aimed to ascertain whether it is methodologically and epistemologically sound to apply those findings to the ML classroom. Hence the research question *'In what ways is interaction in SLA theory consonant with the*

*ML classrooms studied in Scotland?'* was deemed appropriate to explore this area.

As this study took place in the Scottish context, it is important to contextualise the classroom practices observed and the voices of the participants heard within the Scottish Education system and its policy. Knowledge of the key influences which underpin its current policy space is required to understand and analyse ECMLST narratives and identify problems and tensions. This study is linked to the Scottish classroom context and the pedagogies enacted within that context: more concretely, whether there are any dissonances between developing as a teacher in a secondary school in Scotland and specifically as a ML teacher. Both areas of research of this study are of special interest to my profession as an initial teacher educator.

### 1.6 Scottish Curriculum for Excellence

It is important to note that Scotland has always had very large autonomy on educational matters within the UK and since 1999 Education has been fully devolved to the Scottish Government. Education in Scotland is linked with the country's identity space within the UK and its links with nationalism have been discussed in the literature (Arnott and Ozga, 2010a; 2010b). The Scottish national curricular framework at the time of writing this thesis, is Curriculum for Excellence (CfE) (Scottish Government, 2004b).

CfE policy developed in the early twentieth century encapsulated the values on which Scottish society is based: *wisdom, justice, compassion and integrity* (Humes, 2013: 8) -words taken from the Scottish Mace in the Scottish Parliament. CfE aims to develop the capacities of children and young people so they can be 'effective contributors to society, responsible citizens, successful learners and confident individuals' (Scottish Executive, 2004b), putting the learner at the centre of the curriculum. The development of these Four Capacities *espouses overtly student-centred practices* (Priestly and Minty, 2013:39). As noted by Priestley and Minty (2013:39) CfE *typifies* 'many international trends in curricular policy through its emphasis on generic skills and competencies, its focus on pedagogy and its apparent extension of autonomy to teachers as agents of change'.

CfE is an outcomes based curriculum, in which learning is organised through progression stages, not through ages of the learners (4 levels of progression from age 3 to 15). CfE came about as a change from the previous teacher-centred curriculum (Scottish Executive, 2004a). It is presented as a child-centred curriculum and teachers have the freedom to choose how they provide learners with the experiences to meet the learning outcomes. PISA reports have questioned the meritocracy of CfE (Cooke and Betjka, 2010).

CfE policy summarises the importance of language learning in three organisers: (1) the process will help learners develop literacy levels in their L1 -given the interconnected nature of languages; (2) language learning will help with the development of intercultural awareness and finally (3) languages can help with the holistic educational development of the learner in a more humanistic sense, linking to the development of long-life learning and employability (Scottish Government, 2009).

The importance of learning ML according to CfE policy, and the importance of ML to nurture learners to develop CfE Four Capacities, could be seen to embrace to some extent the Deweyan belief that *through education society could formulate its own purposes*. The Deweyan conceptualisation of *education as a process of living* (Dewey 1916: 22-30) is present in the lifelong learning discourse of CfE. CfE embraces big notions of praxis in Education (Kemmis and Smith, 2008), and a certain discourse of empowering pupils' voices in their school contexts to be active citizens now, not only in the future. This shift towards a more learner-centred curriculum can be seen in CfE four contexts for learning: curriculum areas and subjects, interdisciplinary learning, ethos and life of the school and opportunities for personal achievement.

### 1.7 Chapters Overview

Chapters Two and Three are dedicated to the review of the literature. Chapter Two focuses on literature related to the first research question 'in what ways does interaction in SLA theory reflect the ML classrooms studied in Scotland?'. It begins by looking at Hyme's theory of '*communicative competence'* (1972) and the impact this has had in SLA, focusing on the Communicative Approach (CA) in

ML learning. More specifically, as noted earlier, it reviews Zoltan Dörnyei's PCA (2009a; 2009c), which was used as a framework for classroom observation in this study to bridge classroom observations with the more theoretical IA (Gass and Mackey, 2006). The chapter then discusses theories of interaction, including Long's socio-cultural theory of interaction and the interaction paradigm (1981;1996). Interactive constructs such as input, output and feedback are also explained.

The second research question of this study is: *what affordances and constraints impacted on the conceptual development of the ML pedagogy of the teachers in the study?* Hence in Chapter Three studies of conceptual development as well as literature regarding teacher agency is reviewed, including Biesta et al.'s ecological model of teacher agency (2013). Kubanyiova (2012) devised a language teaching conceptual development framework, the LTCC: Language Teacher Conceptual Change. In this study, an ECMLST development framework was created by bringing together Priestley et al.'s (2015a) agency framework and Kubanyiova's LTCC (2012). This will be explained in Chapter Four, where the methodology and methods undertaken to conduct this research are discussed.

Chapter Four describes the methodology, where the procedures of the research are explained with justification provided for decisions taken pertaining to issues arising during the conduct of the study. The four teacher participants were observed teaching throughout a year. Informal interviews took place throughout that year and formal in-depth interviews took place at the end of the longitudinal study. This thesis is based upon a constructivist paradigm, in which meanings are viewed as socially constructed, and the participants' perceptions and views were necessary to make sense of the classrooms observed.

Chapters Five and Six offer the findings and discussion of the actions of the four teachers presented as four case studies (one chapter for each research question). They discuss the actions these teachers took in the classroom which demonstrated, or not, the links between theory and practice. Chapter Six also focuses in more detail on the findings related to data from the interview questions relating to teacher agency, and discusses the teachers' development of agency so far in their careers.

Chapter Seven offers final concluding remarks taking account of limitations and recommendations for further research.

## Chapter Two: Interaction in Second Language Acquisition

### 2.1 Introduction and Research Questions

SLA is a field within the social sciences which encompasses a variety of studies regarding second language acquisition and how human beings learn or acquire a language, in order to be able to explain their competence in L2. Competence in an L2 is a threefold term as it encompasses linguistic competence, socio-linguistic competence and pragmatic competence (ACTFL, 1996; CEFR, 2001); in other words, language learning is learning to communicate as members of a particular socio-cultural group (Breen and Candlin, 1980). This will be discussed in a later part of this review of the literature. SLA research started in the 1950s, and its object of study was firmly centred on linguistic features of languages. SLA research at that time started by working from theory and then investigating how classroom practice fitted the theory. SLA is important for language practitioners as it can provide a theoretical base on which they can underpin the decisions taken in the classroom with learners on an everyday basis. However, the literature frequently highlights the gaps between SLA research and ML secondary school teachers (Borg, 2003; 2006). This thesis and the strong links developed with the participants and their schools has the potential of being an important starting point for bridging theory and practice.

This research aimed to investigate ***in what ways is interaction in SLA theory consonant with the ML classrooms studied in Scotland?*** and ***what affordances and constraints impacted on the conceptual development of the ML pedagogy of the teachers on the study?***

Chapter Two will offer a review of the literature on SLA classroom interaction in order to address issues related to the first research question, and Chapter Three will present a review of the literature in the field of teacher conceptual development. The aim of a literature review is to explore what has already been written in these fields and to situate this study in the context of other similar studies (Punch, 2014). However, as anticipated in the methodological consideration and impact of the study section of the introduction of this thesis (1.5), this study seeks to fill a gap in the literature as most SLA studies are classroom orientated research in laboratory settings (Nunan, 1991; Norris and Ortega,2006; Mackey and Goo,2007). It is equally important to situate this

literature review in a post-method era (Kumaravadivelu, 2006) in which the lines are blurred between previously adhered to methods and approaches. Finally, this literature review improved my critical awareness by identifying disputed areas of the topic and helped in making sense of findings during data analysis (Punch, 2014).

This chapter starts by defining the terminology used and discusses acquisition and learning. It then explores SLA and teacher education, offering an overview of approaches and methods. Then, it addresses the literature on the Communicative Approach (CA), which became prevalent from the late 1970s and the development of interactive theory regarding pedagogy in language classroom up to Dörnyei's PCA (2009a; 2009c) which provides one of the frameworks used to make sense of the data to answer the first research question.

Kumaravadivelu's conceptualisation of language as a system, discourse and ideology (2006) in the post-method era, is reviewed, as well as his Interactive Framework of Intake Processes (Kumaravadivelu, 1994) which took cognisance of language interaction as a social process underpinned not only by linguistic competence (system) but by discourse and ideology. The chapter then continues by exploring in depth what counts as interaction in the classroom and interaction theories, starting by defining terms such as input, output, pushed output, meaning negotiation and error correction. Gass and Mackey's (2006) IA, which will be discussed in detail, incorporates the social dimension of language learning so it was apposite to use it to explore both research questions.

Chapter Three explores the areas of teacher conceptual change and teacher development which are linked to the second research question, that is, the perceptions of pedagogical development in the area of interaction of the four teacher participants in this study.

## 2.2 Defining the terminology

### 2.2.1 Acquisition and Learning

This study will use the term '*second*' language to refer to any language the students are learning, other than their mother tongue. The terms *second language* and *L2* will be used interchangeably in this study. For reasons of semantic choice, the use of 'foreign language' has been avoided as it could be considered by some to rebut the concept of multiple identities, and this can potentially bring connotations of *us versus other*, instead of languages conceptualised as a place to build the third space (Kramsch,1993; 1998).

A distinction is made in SLA literature between the terms acquisition and learning. Krashen (1981) refers to acquisition when human beings absorb a language through natural exposure as opposed to learning a language through a conscious effort by studying it. In Krashen's view, the object of study of this research could only be framed as 'learning', as the participants are teaching or learning French and Spanish in an Anglophone country, Scotland, and the students may not have opportunities to practise the languages they are learning in their communities or with their parents and peers outside the classroom for social engagement purposes. Other authors, such as Ellis (2008) or Dörnyei (2009a) use the terms learning and acquisition interchangeably, making the further distinction between implicit and explicit learning. Implicit learning takes place unintentionally or without the learner's awareness, as opposed to explicit learning processes which are conscious and intentional. In this study, the term learning rather than acquisition, is used, as this study focuses in SLA in the field of instructed L2 learning, and pupils' L2 experiences are confined to the classroom.

Vygotsky's socio-constructivist theories will be further explained in a later section of this review of the literature, teasing out the sociocultural perspectives on language learning strategies and the role of mediation through interaction. We will return to Vygotsky's concept of *instruction leading development* at a later stage, however it is worthwhile mentioning here that Vygotsky (in Lantolf and Thorne, 2006) noted that in L1 development, instruction made visible something students already knew to a considerable degree,

however, in L2 learning referred to as 'foreign' by Vygotsky (in Lantolf and Thorn, 2006:294) instruction made visible something students did not already possess.

### 2.2.2 Approach, Methodology and Method

It is important to clarify the difference between an approach, methodology and method when discussing ML pedagogy. Toth and Moranski (2018) recognised Antony's (1963) distinction in which an approach 'embodies a broad orientation to pedagogy encompassing a set of correlative assumptions dealing with the nature of language and the nature of language teaching and …. learning' (Antony, 1963:63-64 in Toth and Moranski, 2018:80). Examples provided include the Communicative Approach, Long's task based learning or audio-lingualism. (Long's task based learning (Long, 2003) will be further discussed in the 'tasks' section).

A method is described as 'a procedural plan for instruction and materials that translates into a coherent sequence of lesson activities' (Toth and Moranski, 2018:80). Examples of methods include flipped classrooms or total physical response storytelling (TRPS) (Ray and Seely, 2012, in Toth and Moranski, 2018:80). These methods can sit within an approach, for example, flipped classrooms and TRPS methods are situated within the CA. Finally, methods are described as the techniques for the development of the specific activities 'and the classroom moves that carry them out' (Toth and Moranski, 2018:80).

## 2.3 Second Language Acquisition and Language Teaching

### 2.3.1 Introduction: Second Language Teacher Education

The history of ML learning and teaching has been shaped by a quest for the most effective ways for students to learn a L2 (Richards and Rodgers, 2001). The field of second language teacher education (SLTE) has been shaped since the 1960s by its response to issues arising from external and internal factors (Johnson, 2009). In the first place, certain issues arising from within SLTE are linked with the re-conceptualisation of critical pedagogy (Freire,1970); the emergence of the reflective practitioner (Schön, 1991; Brookfield 1995); and the consideration of

teacher identity (Borg, 2003; Borg, 2006). Gradually since the 1960s these theories have initially influenced teacher education in general in English speaking countries. In addition, the emergence of SLA as a field of research has also shaped SLTE, making the SLTE field evolve from more grammar-translation approaches to language learning and teaching towards communicative approaches.

In addition, the rise of accountability and the commodification of education (Ball, 2003) have acted as external forces within teacher education, affecting SLTE, with greater control over teaching and teacher education being exercised by national educational authorities. This is particularly the case in OECD countries which take part in PISA (Programme for International Student Assessment), due to the impact of high stakes exams (OECD, 2001; OECD,2007). The rise of globalisation and the role of English as an international language for trade and communication have equally affected SLTE due to the impact on pedagogy of high stakes examinations systems (Johnson, 2009). The next section examines L2 language teaching trends.

### 2.3.2 L2 Language Teaching Trends from the Early 20th Century to the Post-Method Period

From the early decades of the twentieth century the Grammar Translation Method (GTM), based on describing and applying the rules of grammar, was the most popular method in language teaching (Richards and Rodgers, 2001). This had been the approach for centuries. The study of 'live' languages followed that of 'dead' languages such as Latin. The spotlight was on reading and writing as opposed to talking a language. The audio-lingual method arose from the need for translators by the USA during World War Two. The GTM provided learners with strong declarative knowledge, whilst the audio-lingual method, through repetitive drilling, provided learners with procedural knowledge. In the 1960s and the 1970s language learning and teaching methodology for L2 started to be based around audio-lingual methods (Richards and Rodgers, 2001). However, both methods failed to equip learners for 'real' communication (Dörnyei, 2009a). In the 1980s the CA started to be introduced into the classroom. (The CA, including Hymes' notion of communicative competence (1972), will be

further discussed in section 2.4.) The CA focused on language use, acknowledging the importance of developing socio-linguistic and pragmatic competence as well as the linguistic competence which was the key focus of GTM. The CA provided automatisation of language through creative practice rather than decontextualized drills (Dörnyei, 2009a). Since then, ML teaching approaches have developed, reflecting SLA trends within the CA. The different conceptualisations of the CA, depending on the focus on form, reflect the interplay between implicit and explicit learning (Dörnyei, 2009a). As a continuum of practice from GTM to CA, it could be argued that most ML teachers would not probably place themselves, or be placed at either of the extremes of the continuum, and therefore would adopt different teaching approaches on either side of the centre of the continuum, depending on many circumstances including learners' motivation and the age or stage of learners. Consequently, would the teachers in this study, as most teachers, be working in a post-method era, incorporating parts of different theories into their practice as teachers and when they were student teachers? (Kumaravadivelu, 2006). The next section turns to review Stern's (1983) work.

### 2.3.3 Stern's Pedagogical Dimensions of Language Teaching

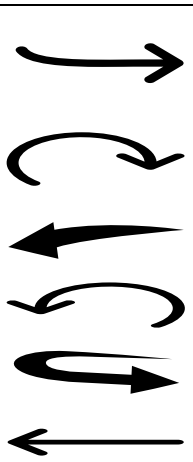
Stern, in his seminal work *Fundamental Concepts of Language Teaching* (1983), outlined three pedagogical dimensions of language teaching, helping the development of SLTE:

1)Intralingual/Intracultural versus Crosslingual/Crosscultural

2)Analytic versus Experiential

3) Explicit versus Implicit

**Table 2.1: Stern's Pedagogical Dimensions of Language Teaching**

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Crosslingual Dimension |  | Intralingual Dimension |
| L1 Language Use to mediate learning of L2<br><br>L1-L2 translation | | L2 Language Used to learn L2 |
| Crosscultural Dimension | | Intracultural Dimension |
| L1 Culture to understand L2 Culture | | L2 Culture |
| | | |
| Analytical Dimension | | Experiential Dimension |
| Main Focus on Form | | Main Focus on Meaning |
| Decontextualised learning | | Contextualised communication |
| Explicit Learning Dimension | | Implicit Learning Dimension |
| Learning is a conscious intellectual activity | | Learning is unconscious and intuitive |

**The intralingual and intracultural dimension** refers to the situations in which the target language (L2) and the target culture (C2) are the frame of reference for teaching. The crosslingual and crosscultural dimension take place when L1 and culture 1 (C1) are used for comparison purposes, and L1 is used as the frame of reference for teaching. In a crosslingual and crosscultural classroom there is L1-L2 translation. Stern argued that this dimension is a continuum of practice, as beginning classrooms would tend to be situated in the crosslingual dimension and as learners advance they would move into the intralingual territory. In Table 2.1 the continuum of practice is represented with the arrows going in different directions between columns. In the Common European Framework of Reference of Languages (CEFR) [3] (Council of Europe, 2001) a teacher working with A level learners would prepare lessons in a crosslingual dimension but as these learners progress (at C level) it is likely that the pedagogy would be situated in a

[3] The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) is a European ML policy used across all European languages providing ML leaning and teaching benchmarks with six reference levels which is widely used in the EU. The CEFR is discussed in section 2.4.6.

intralingual and intracultural dimension. Stern provided three reasons for L1 use linked to language and culture transfer. Firstly, the learners build on their L2 from their L1, as learners are set to learn from a language they already know. Secondly, the meta-linguistic knowledge of the L1 will offer support when learning a L2, and thirdly, the learners' L1 and C1 become part of their own understanding, as they have been socialised into that culture through that L1.

Curriculum for Excellence (CfE) ML policy, the curricular framework within which the four teachers worked, advocates language learning for three main reasons which are very close to those of Stern's reasoning (1983):

> *1) Through the learning of any L2 learners will improve their literacy in their L1 as learning a second language will improve their reflective learning processes about their L1*
>
> *2) Through learning a language learners are given opportunities to develop their intercultural awareness*
>
> *3) From a humanistic perspective of character development, learning a language brings other holistic wider life skills which will enhance those learners' opportunities in life and work* (Scottish Government,2009).

Stern's (1983) **Analytic-Experiential Dimension** refers to the trade-offs between form and communication. In an analytic classroom there tends to be a decontextualised focus on code, there is predictability of responses (drills), there is emphasis on accuracy (rather than communication) and the interaction tends to be focused on linguistic terms. At the other end of the dimension, in experiential learning, the focus tends to be on contextualised communication, the focus is on the message not the language solely, there is emphasis on language use, so socio-linguistics and pragmatic competence (which will be discussed at a later stage) are paramount and the interaction can be considered interpersonal, as there is something 'real' to be communicated. Dörnyei's PCA (2009a; 2009c) takes account of both sides of this dimension with the principles of focus on form and meaning. Similarly, different seminal work such as Ellis' have dealt with the fact that both focus on form and meaning are necessary for CLT and ultimately for learning to take place (Ellis, 2003).

Finally, the **Explicit-Implicit Dimension** (Stern, 1983) refers to whether learning is a conscious intellectual exercise or an unconscious intuitive one. Stern's third point will be reviewed along with Dörnyei's PCA (2009a; 2009c) as the links between explicit and implicit learning was one of the key issues which led him to postulate those principles.

Stern (1983) suggested that teachers work within those three dimensions, moving within each continuum. Within this continuum of practice, ML teachers are exercising professional judgement everyday between a focus on communication and, or form, L1-L2 classroom use and use of analytical and experiential learning at the same time (Stern, 1983).Kumaravadivelu (2006) points to the stress some teachers might suffer when they realise that their practices do not attend to what theory suggests they should do. Clarke, (2003) in order to illustrate the disjunctions between theory and practice in a post-method era makes the comparison between the ideal hothouse which has all the conditions for growing tomatoes and the fact that the gardener might only concentrate on optimising the conditions of the hothouse but forget to check on the actual tomatoes, the learners in the classroom, - as if the optimal conditions of the hothouse would suffice. This study addresses the interplay between theory and practice in the ML secondary classroom and thus will add to the body of empirical academic knowledge emerging from classroom practice. This study aims to fill the gap that exists concerning the links between theory and 'real' classroom teaching and learning as it happens in schools.

For Kumaravadivelu, (2006:169) in the post method era, the factors of particularity, practicality and possibility have to be taken into account when exploring teacher's pedagogies: particularity refers to the context of the group of teachers and learners in question; practicality refers to the ways in which teachers monitor their effectiveness and the ways in which they make sense of theory in their practices, and the concept of possibility is linked to Freire's conceptualisation of *The Pedagogy Of The Oppressed* (Freire, 1970) as pedagogies are linked to power and dominance, including language ideology and learners' identities.

For those researchers and teachers who tend to use a communicative learning and teaching approach, interaction is central. Before moving on to discuss

interaction, which is the focus of this thesis, the next section will explore the CA, so that interaction can be understood in the context of the CA.

## 2.4 The Communicative Approach

### 2.4.1 Overview

This section begins by considering Hymes' theory of communicative competence (1972) which was pivotal in the shift towards the CA to languages teaching. Then, it discusses the various understandings of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) from the late 1970s, 1980s up to the late 1990s, which led to what has been described in the literature as 'the turn' in CLT. A review of Dörnyei's PCA (2009a; 2009c) is offered, as this was used as a framework for classroom observation in this study to help bridging classroom observations and Gass and Mackey's IA (2006). Finally, this section looks at the influential CEFR Languages policy (Council of Europe,2001), offering a sense of what matters in CLT.

### 2.4.2 Communicative Competence and the Communicative Approach

The former section has given an overview of SLA and language teaching trends from the early 20th century onwards. However, to fully understand the CA, it is crucial to understand the shift in thinking about what matters in language learning brought about by Hymes' theory of communicative competence (1972). Hymes' theory proposed that knowing a language involved more than having linguistic competence or knowing the language's grammar rules. He used the term communicative competence in reaction to Chomsky's theory of competence. Skinner's behaviourism theory (1957) based on mimicry, repetition, drills and positive reinforcement which had underpinned the audiolingual method, had been criticised by Chomsky in 1959.Chomsky argued for an underlying grammatical competence shared by all human beings who, he argued, are hardwired for language that is activated by human mediation. His concept of the Language Acquisition Device (LAD) advocated that language learning was not a result of mimicry but followed from innate language cognitive processes. It

should be said that Hymes', Skinner's and Chomsky's theories were based on L1 acquisition and have been transposed to L2 learning and acquisition.

Hymes argued, as a reaction to Chomsky's grammatical competence theory, that it did not manage to explain the full processes underpinning L2 learning. For Hymes, it was necessary to incorporate the notions of communication and culture: 'there are rules of use without which the rules of grammar are useless' (Hymes, 1972:278). Hymes argued that it is important for the learner to be equally instructed in the 'conventions governing language use' (ibid*)*, that would be the sociolinguistics and pragmatics of the language studied -although he did not use those terms.

For Hymes, language learning could not be reduced to a set of grammatical structures. Canale (1983) and Canale and Swain (1980) applied Hymes' theory of communicate competence to L2 learning, conceptualising communicative competence as the relationship between grammatical competence (lexis, morpholology, syntax, semantics and phonological knowledge); sociolinguistic competence (sociocultural rules and rules of discourse); and strategic competence, which comes under the umbrella of pragmatics.

Hymes' conceptualisation of communicative competence was pivotal in the genesis of CLT in the 1970s. However, a conceptualisation issue has been highlighted in the literature, as the CA encompasses a wide range of variants and diverse interpretations. CLT emphasised communication, moving away from the drilling and mimicry pedagogy of the audio-lingual method, towards a learner centred pedagogy, in which the learners participated in 'real' and 'meaningful' interactive communicative experiences. In the classroom there was a shift from drills to role-plays, games and task learning involving pupil-pupil and teacher-pupil interaction. The direction of CLT seemed to be related to situational meaning through pupils' active participation and learning through doing, which was very much in line with the development of a learner centred pedagogy within a socio-constructivist approach (Crichton,2013; Ellis,2003). However, the lack of direction or any 'authority' in the field led to different classroom interpretations and applications (Richards and Rodgers, 2001). After CLT's spread in the 1980s, the 1990s saw dissatisfaction regarding two main issues: the linguistic content base of CLT and the pedagogical treatment of linguistic forms

in CLT (Celce-Murcia et al., 1997:142) which failed to capture the balance between implicit and explicit learning (Dörnyei, 2009a; Ellis,2003).

With regard to the linguistic content base of CLT, CLT's aim to develop functional competence through learner participation in communicative events (Savignon,1990:210) had been challenged by Widdowson (1978) who argued that a purely functional approach to language use did not do justice to the complex process of communication. Secondly, the perceived lack of pedagogical treatment of linguistic forms in CLT had been an on-going tension. Celce-Murcia (1991) problematised CLT's fluctuating pattern of bottom-up linguistic skills versus top-down communication skills. CLT had come about as a reaction to the GTM of language teaching, and swung towards language use in natural communication. However, this did not further the development of linguistic competence in students (Schmidt, 1990). According to Schmidt, linguistic form cannot be gained only from seeking situational meaning. Schmidt followed principles of cognitive psychology and argued that learners learn what is noticed, and in order to do so, must pay attention to the learning objective so initial declarative knowledge becomes proceduralised, which in turn helps automatisation (Schmidt, 1990).

Byrnes (2006) illustrates the problematic nature of the concepts of communicative competence and the CA as often the terms CLT, communicative competence, proficiency, proficiency-oriented instruction are used interchangeably. Byrnes (2006) argues that the 'blurring of lines is increased by the fact that communicative competence is a theoretical construct, an overarching learning goal, and a pedagogical approach, even a criterion for assessment, all in one' (2006:244).

The previous SLA section has indicated that nowadays the CA may look quite different to that of forty years ago in the early 1980s, and that teachers are using a post-method approach, adapting and using different theories and pedagogies all at the same time. However, it seems that CLT looked very different in the early years because of the two issues described in the previous paragraph, that is, the linguistic content base of CLT and pedagogical treatment of linguistic forms in CLT. In the early days of CLT some practitioners had strong views that an L2 should be learnt in the most naturalistic approach possible, so

little attention was given to grammar. There were other practitioners who continued focusing on form. Because of this, some practitioners took a no grammar approach, whilst others engaged in different trade-offs between meaning and form (Byrnes, 2006; Dörnyei,2009a). In Dörnyei's view, the contrasting stances corresponded to the psychological distinction of implicit versus explicit learning (2009a). Implicit and explicit learning together with the PCA, (Dörnyei, 2009a), described by its author as a 'turning point' in CLT, will be explored in the next section.

### 2.4.3 The Turning Point: The Principled Communicative Approach

#### 2.4.3.1 Overview

A Communicative Language Teaching study focus is the relationship between implicit versus explicit learning, however there is a lack of studies of SLA in instructed settings, an issue which this study aims to address. As Ortega (2005) pointed out, there is a methodological and epistemological issue, since most of the studies conducted on SLA do not represent the ML classroom nor the community which is the focus of study. As noted in Chapter One where the context of the study was explained, there is a serious lack of empirical research with young learners of language in instructional settings (see appendixes 2 to 5 for an overview). Conclusions arising from studies with one group were applied to another different group, assuming that the outcomes would be similar. For example, the myth that the younger one begins the study of a language the better the learning outcomes are, may be true for bilingual or immersion contexts (for further information see Muñoz, 2006; Mitchell and Myles, 2019; Valdera and Crichton, 2018) but it has not been empirically proven for young learners in 'normal' classroom settings. Indeed, research shows that the main benefits are attitudinal not linguistic (Muñoz, 2006). Equally, CLT practitioners assumed that the way in which implicit learning worked for L1 acquisition, would work in the same way for L2 learning. Dörnyei highlights this issue (2009a): whilst implicit learning works well for native speaking L1 speakers it does not work for L2 learning.

> (…) *This is regrettable, but the fact is that-alas! – untutored learning through simple exposure to natural language input does not seem to lead*

> *to sufficient progress in L2 attainment for most school learners* (Dörnyei, 2009c:35)

Empirical evidence for this claim comes from Norris and Ortega's review of literature (2006) and from immersion contexts in Canada which provided what might be considered optimal conditions for implicit learning. Learners did not attain native like proficiency in their L2 (Dörnyei, 2009a). The consensus amongst scholars is that learners also need explicit learning procedures (Bialystok, 1991; Dekeyser, 2003; Ellis, 2004). Ellis (2007:26) equated language learning with learning in general terms, and self-regulation processes in socio-constructivist terms, reminding us of the capacity of consciousness to organise existing knowledge in new ways in unpredictable conditions. Lightbown and Spada (2006:176) also reached a similar conclusion, doubting the original CLT hypothesis that language acquisition would take care of itself if L2 learners only focused on meaning in comprehensible input (Krashen,1981).These arguments, along with 'noticing' theories will be teased out in section 2.5. For Dörnyei the challenge is 'to maximise the cooperation of explicit and implicit learning' (2009a:36) rather than depending on implicit learning mechanisms.

In the late 1990s, Celce-Murcia, Thurrell and Dörnyei (Celce-Murcia et al., 1995) started referring to 'a turning point', as CLT shifted towards inclusion of attention to language form in meaning oriented CLT approaches (ibid:37). At this turning point, SLA research particularly focused within the various modes of implicit-explicit interface in the areas of: 1/form focused instruction; 2/fluency and automatisation; 3/ formulaic language. Dörnyei's PCA approaches the explicit versus implicit learning dichotomy and incorporates the three areas of research above (which will be dealt with as the different tenets of the PCA are unpacked in the following section). Dörnyei's PCA is based on Ellis' (2001a; 2001b; 2004) principles of instructed language learning. Ellis also highlights the importance of focusing on both form and meaning as well as the fact that teaching and learning need to be predominantly directed at developing implicit knowledge of the L2 while not neglecting explicit knowledge. The following section looks at the PCA in more depth.

### 2.4.3.2 The Principled Communicative Approach

Dörnyei's PCA (2009a;2009c) encompasses seven principles:

1. **Personal Significance**: PCA continues the aims of CLT since the late 1970s; one of its principles is that learning should focus on in meaning-focused communication which is personally significant to the learner. This seems to go hand in hand with a learner centred pedagogy.

2. **Declarative Input**: PCA pedagogy should provide explicit initial input, which becomes proceduralised through practice, which in turn facilitates automatisation. This principle is thus linked to L2 fluency and automatisation. Fluency is usually explained in terms of skill learning theory, which proposes that in order for automatisation to take place, initial explicit or declarative input is needed for it to become implicit or procedural knowledge (Dekeyser, 2007). Declarative input would develop into extended practice, controlled practice and open-ended practice (Dekeyser, 2007; Ranta and Lyster, 2007). This resonates with the well-known interactive schemata of PPP (presentation/practice/production) and recap, based on Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975) IRF sequence (Initiation, Response, Feedback) or Mehan's (1979a;1979b) IRE (teacher initiation; student response and teacher's evaluation). The declarative input principle is closely linked with principle 4/focus on form, as research has shown that learners are only able to learn what they notice (Dekeyser, 2007). The declarative input is guided by what Ellis (2008:420) refers to as the 'strong interface position', in which 'explicit knowledge converts to implicit knowledge through practice'. This means not learning through doing, but learning then doing. In 2015, Arnold, Dörnyei and Pugliese published *The Principled Communicative Approach: Seven Criteria for Success*. This book is a practical guide offering classroom pedagogy exemplars which will help realise the seven principles. In this book, Arnold et al. insist that '*the most effective way tends not to throw learners into the deep water*' (Arnold et al., 2015:33). The authors point out the 'necessity of the initial encoding of a targeted skill, prior to any practice sessions, in the form of declarative knowledge' (ibid, 2015:33). The idea of learning, then doing, is not new, as it resonates, as discussed

earlier, with the CLT PPP methodology (declarative knowledge proceduralised through practice) as well as with the GTM. The idea of learning, then doing, could seem to be at odds, at first glance, with one of the main tenets of the interactionists, that we learn through the interaction process, not in order to interact (Mackey, 2007). This concept will be further explored and problematised in section 2.5 where interactionist views are discussed.

3. **Controlled Practice**: controlled practice is used as a step towards the PCA's aim of meaningful communication. Practice using tasks or activities designed for learners to notice/practise certain language features help with automatisation. Controlled practice is closely linked to the declarative input principle, as it follows from the initial input and it resonates with the well-established notion in CLT of the PPP interaction schema.

4. **Focus on Form:** the PCA advocates a focus on formal/structural aspects of language, such as accuracy and appropriateness. This principle acknowledges focus on form research. One of the leads in focus on form instruction (FFI) has been Ellis (2001a; 2001b). FFI, whilst recognising the importance of semantic and pragmatic meaning, also recognises that attention to linguistic form needs to be paid for successful L2 learning. The growing interest in content based approaches to language learning and teaching, for example Content Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) approaches, has brought research as to how a focus on both meaning and form can be counterbalanced (Lyster, 2004). The PCA underlines the counterbalanced approach. The focus on form is linked to the importance of attention. As highlighted in the IA we only learn what is noticed (Gass and Mackey,2007). Attention to form includes attention to graphic and phonetic representations of language; underlying abstract rules (CfE puts a great deal of emphasis on the development of L1 literacy through L2 learning); and specific linguistic forms in the comprehensible input (Ellis, 2008). Ellis (2008) refers to two types of focus on form instruction, namely intensive focus through purposefully selected materials to provide learners with the input at hand or extensive, meaning incidental attention

to form through corrective feedback. The role of feedback is also discussed in Gass and Mackey's IA (2006).

5. **Formulaic:** Sinclair (1991) offers a clear definition of formulaic language which is described as semi-preconstructed phrases to which language users have immediate access, and which constitute single choices, even though they might appear to be analysable into segments. These language chunks may illustrate a natural tendency to economy of effort as they are used in similar situations.

   The PCA posits that the teacher should lead direct teaching including fixed expressions, idioms, set phrases and collocations. This is turn helps the learner develop understanding of communicative competence, linguistic competence, pragmatic and socio-linguistic aspects of language learning. Dörnyei insists that 'there should be sufficient awareness raising of the significance and pervasiveness of formulaic language in real-life communication, and selected phrases should be practiced and recycled intensively'(2009a:49). Dörnyei builds on research conducted by Skehan (1998) who pointed out that these language chunks are necessary for fluency, and may be internalised as they are rote-learned in classrooms. However, these chunks also serve to feed implicit mechanisms of language learning.

6. **Language Exposure:** the PCA reminds teachers that students need to access large amounts of L2 target language exposure to feed their implicit learning mechanisms. Students should be primed for maximum intake through the scaffolded support of reading, listening and viewing materials, with explanations of salient features of the materials used.

7. **Focused Interaction:** learners should be exposed in the classroom to a large range of classroom opportunities to participate in genuine L2 interaction. They can have a specific formal/functional focus and learners should have at hand phrases in the target language to practise.

These seven principles of the PCA were used as a framework for the observations which took place in this study. Each of these seven principles can only be realised in the classroom thanks to the planning and facilitation of

interactive moves by the teacher. As highlighted above, there is a lack of empirical evidence from the classroom on the extent to which communicative approaches can be deployed, or on how they are enacted by teachers and students. As most studies to track L2 learning happen in researcher-student dyads in laboratory settings (Keck et al., 2006; Norris and Ortega, 2006; Mackey,2007) there is not a great deal of empirical evidence of whether those theoretical principles leading to L2 learning do actually happen in the secondary classroom, the extent to which they happen, or what could be done for them to happen more. This study could be described as unique as it will help shed light on what ITE and SLTE can do to bridge this gap and offer some recommendations as well as to show what actually happened in ML secondary classrooms over the period of a year which will inform ITE. The last two sections have referred to the wider connotations of communicative competence, including socio-linguistic and pragmatic layers of language learning. The next section will review interaction frameworks in more detail.

### 2.4.4 Interaction Frameworks: The IRF Challenged

The literature points to the IRF interaction framework (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975) as widely used by teachers and learners in the ML classroom (Crichton, 2013; Klette, 2009; Nassaji and Wells,2000; Scott et al., 2006). In the IRF scheme the teacher initiates (I), the learner responds (R) and the teacher provides feedback (F). Van Lier (1996) and Nassaji and Wells (2000) claim that 70% of the classroom interaction followed the IRF scheme. In a series of Assessment for Learning publications in the UK, Jones and Wiliam (2008) also posit that the IRF is the standard format used by classroom teachers to lead ML learning through questioning. However, Crichton's study (2013) of four ML classroom teachers revealed that, whilst the IRF was observable in the classes she studied, the IRF scheme did not reflect all the interaction realities of pupil-centred classrooms. Crichton (2013) utilised Goffman's production theory (1981) to analyse interaction in the target language observed. According to Goffman's production theory (1981), The Principal, in the classroom the teacher, is the person who is responsible for the meaning expressed. The author expresses the principal's meaning in his/her own words and the animator merely reproduces

what the author or principal has expressed. Usually in the classroom, learners can be classed as 'animators' or on occasion, 'authors'. Crichton's study (2013) revealed that the learners were not always just 'animators' of the messages originated by the teachers; in a pupil-centred ML pedagogy, learners were also 'authors' and 'principals'. In this sense, Crichton challenged the IRF interaction scheme in which the teacher is always the initiator, or the principal of the messages expressed. I was interested to ascertain whether the four teacher participants observed in this study would follow the more traditional IRF framework or interaction which reflected a pupil-centred pedagogy as reported in Crichton's study (2013).

Kumaravadivelu (2006) has provided a conceptualisation of language as a system, discourse and ideology in the post-method era that was developed in the context of adult English Language Learning. It was considered important as it looked at the power relationships of classroom speech. In Crichton's study (2013), it could be argued that the power was less asymmetrical between teachers and learners, as learners were also the initiators of the discourse construction in the classroom, not mere imitators of the messages teachers wanted them to repeat. The next section looks briefly at Kuramadivelu's classification.

### 2.4.5 Language as a System, Discourse and Ideology

For Kumaravadivelu, language is a system. He uses Chomsky's Universal Grammar (UG) and Language Acquisition Device (LAD) concepts (Chomsky, 1986), as discussed in section 3.1. According to Chomsky, the abstract linguistic competence which includes phonological, syntactic and semantic competences allows humans to convert phonemes into words, words into phrases, and phrases into sentences whether in spoken or written text. However, this knowledge of language form and meaning, that is, language use, for Chomsky (1986) does not include the knowledge of the conditions and manner of appropriate use, that is pragmatic competence. This is learnt through socialisation as a child or through a language course when learning a L2. Kumaravadivelu (2006) states that a language is not just a cognitive psychological mechanism of linguistic rules, but also a communicative tool for social interaction (2006:6). Hence language is also discourse and ideology.

Discourse can be defined as connected and contextualised units of language use (Kumaravadivelu, 2006:7). To define language as discourse, Kumaravadivelu draws from Hymes' notion of communicative ability (1972) as previously discussed in this literature review, which relates to language use in concrete situations, and from Halliday's (1973) concept of language as a means of functioning in society. This is important for my study as it refers to Dörnyei's PCA number 1, Personal Significance Principle. For Halliday (1973) language is the interplay of the ideational, interpersonal and textual functions of language: the ideational function relates to the learner's forms of making meaning and how s/he expresses and experiences the processes, objects and concepts of the physical and imaginary world around them. The interpersonal function has to do with the ways in which a person builds up personal rapport and relationships with other people. The textual function stands for the linguistic realisations (written or spoken text) of one's ideational and interpersonal functions (Kumaravadivelu, 2006:8). Finally, ideology is linked with power and domination, and it refers to '*any systematic body of ideas, organised from a particular point of view*' (Kumaravadivelu, 2006:11). Kroskrity (2000) offers four converging dimensions to conceptualise language as ideology:

> *Language ideologies represent the perception of language and discourse that is constructed in the interests of a specific social or cultural group* (Kroskrity, 2000:8)
>
> *Language ideologies are profitably conceived as multiple because of the multiplicity of meaningful social divisions (class, gender, clan, elites, generations and so on) within sociocultural groups that have the potential to produce divergent perspectives expressed as indices of group membership* (Kroskrity, 2000:12)
>
> *Members may display varying degrees of awareness of local language ideologies* (Kroskrity, 2000:18)
>
> *Members' language ideologies mediate between social structures and forms of talk* (Kroskrity, 2000:21)

The following sections look at the CEFR (Council of Europe, 2001) and the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages Framework (ACTFL, 1996). It is widely accepted that these policies have influenced ML pedagogy in the last twenty years. Most aspects discussed already in this section of language as a system, discourse and ideology are also incorporated to different degrees in these policies as they conceptualise ML learning beyond a traditional grammar-

translation approach towards learning language for communicative purposes. The following section thus reviews the impact of the CA on these two very important policy documents which have set guidelines in the USA and in Europe. The CEFR offers a detailed overview of communicative competence in terms of the strands of competence: linguistic, socio-linguistic and pragmatic as well as a very detailed overview of the learning to learn agenda with which secondary school teachers are tasked when teaching languages to teenage learners who are developing their L1 simultaneously. On the other hand, the ACTFL offers a succinct overview of the three modes of communication: interpersonal, interpretive and presentational as well as a 5Cs pedagogical framework, looking at language as **communication**, a discourse to look at the **cultures** of others and construct those of the learners, by means of creating **connections, comparisons**, and finally building up societal tissue as **communities** are constructed through language (ACTFL, 1996). This resonates with Kumaravadivelu's interpersonal function of language (2006) and with Kroskrity's ideological discussion of language (2000).

Both the CEFR and the ACTFL policies have had an impact on teacher education programmes and teacher conceptual development, which will be reviewed in section 3.2 of this literature review. More concretely, these frameworks for learning and teaching which equally provide assessment standardisation, have contributed to the move from the GTM to the CA, teacher-centred to pupil-centred pedagogy and to the development of teachers' understanding of ML PCK, a concept which will be discussed following Shulman's (1986;1987) definition in section 3.3.

### 2.4.6 Common European Framework of Reference for Language (CEFR)

The CEFR has been a very influential policy document which has prioritised language function and use in language learning since its creation in the late 1980s by The Council of Europe. It has been often described as a prominent example of successful language education policy in Europe (Baker, 2002; Morrow, 2004). Languages were seen as fundamental for the construction of the knowledge economy, as they enable mobility across EU countries (Fulcher, 2004; Schmenk, 2004). The CEFR is considered as one of the most important

documents in language learning and teaching in Europe (ibid:2004) as it reflects the political and social realities of a multilingual and pluricultural Europe (Fulcher, 2004; Schmenk, 2004). Amongst the CEFR's aims is the importance of communicating between cultures and all the languages of the European Union, with a focus on plurilingualism and the preservation of linguistic diversity (Hudson, 2005; Morrow,2004). In 2001 the Council of Europe unveiled the CEFR aims (Council of Europe, 2001) namely: to promote and facilitate co-operation among educational institutions in different countries; to provide a sound basis for the mutual recognition of language qualifications; to assist learners, teachers, course designers, examining bodies and educational administrators to situate and co-ordinate their efforts (Council of Europe, 2001). The CEFR is important in Scottish ML as the CFE ML policy documents (section 2.3.3) also point out to a focus on communication and other aspects of language learning such as culture.

The CEFR offers descriptions of language use at six different levels, from beginner to confident user level. It offers a detailed summary of the different sources of knowledge, understanding and dispositions a learner needs to engage with in order to use a L2 with success. They include declarative knowledge or *'savoir'*; skills and know-how/ ability, or '*savoir-faire'*; existential competence, or '*savoir-être'*; and the ability to learn, or '*savoir apprendre'*. These different 'savoirs' were very useful to assist in the organisation and discussion of the classroom observations although these were very often discussed in terms of Assessment is for Learning (AifL) and self-regulation of learning as the teacher participants in the study were used to using AifL language but not CEFR terminology. Appendix 9 provides an overview of the 'savoirs'.

To conclude, it is evident when looking at the different aspects of the CEFR, that learning a language is far more than honing linguistic competences. In the PCA principles of focus on form and formulaic language use, Dörnyei also refers to many of the aspects which in the CEFR come under the umbrella of pragmatics and socio-linguistics. This study aimed to establish whether the three organisers of communicative competence (linguistic, socio-linguistic and pragmatics) were present and to which degree in the observed classrooms. Having offered an overarching view of the principles expected to be observed in a ML classroom for successful learning (PCA), this study will return to the PCA in

the findings and evaluation section, to elucidate the extent to which the practices of the teachers in this study reflect theory at the time of this study. Given that the aim of this study was to look at the interaction moves taking place in the classroom, it is therefore important now to review the literature on interaction. The following policy document reviewed, the ACTFL guidelines, describes different aspects of interaction using professional language.

### 2.4.7 American Council of Teaching Foreign Languages

The ACTFL guidelines and policy documents offer a good overview of what communicative teaching pedagogy looks like in the Anglo-Saxon world in the twenty first century and how it has evolved in the last twenty years. The policy documents seem to place language in use at the forefront in the same way as the CEFR, although its documents might be easier to navigate in terms of length and accessibility of language. It also makes reference to communicative competence in terms of linguistic, socio-linguistic and pragmatic competence, whilst incorporating a more implicit message of language as discourse, system and ideology, (Kumaravadivelu, 2006) although the professional language in its documents is aimed at practitioners, not theorists and therefore, it refers to the 5Cs of language: communication, culture, connections, comparisons and communities. The following table offers an overview of the three modes of communication. It should be noted that the guidelines do not organise language learning and teaching into the traditional four skills (listening, talking, reading or writing) as in the Curriculum for Excellence, for example, but in terms of interpersonal, interpretive and presentational communication. Presentational communication could be linked with Kumaravadivelu's understanding of language as a way to transmit ideology or Kroskrity's (2000) ideology socialisation. Other terms used in the ACTFL's three modes of communication will be referred to later in the interaction section of the literature review, such as the negotiation of meaning or the adjustments made to make communication possible.

**Table 2.2: ACTFL Three Modes of Communication (ACTFL Performance Descriptors for Language Learners, 2012:7)**

**Three Modes of Communication**

| Interpersonal | Interpretive | Presentational |
|---|---|---|
| Active negotiation of meaning among individuals | Interpretation of what the author, speaker, or producer wants the receiver of the message to understand | Creation of messages to inform, explain, persuade, or narrate |
| Participants observe and monitor one another to see how their meanings and intentions are being communicated | One-way communication with no recourse to the active negotiation of meaning with the writer, speaker, or producer | One-way communication intended to facilitate interpretation by members of the other culture where no direct opportunity for the active negotiation of meaning between members of the two cultures exists |
| Adjustments and clarifications are made accordingly | Interpretation differs from comprehension and translation in that interpretation implies the ability to read (or listen or view) "between the lines," including understanding from within the cultural mindset or perspective | To ensure the intended audience is successful in its interpretation, the "presenter" needs knowledge of the audience's language and culture |
| Speaking and listening (conversation); reading and writing (text messages or via social media) | Reading (websites, stories, articles), listening (speeches, messages, songs), or viewing (video clips) of authentic materials | Writing (messages, articles, reports), speaking (telling a story, giving a speech, describing a poster), or visually representing (video or PowerPoint) |

Glisan (2012) offers an overview of the extent to which the ACTFL framework is making an impact in learning and teaching in schools and universities ML learning and teaching pedagogy in the USA. The traditional pedagogy is shifting so classroom pedagogy is more aligned with the assessment in terms of oral interpersonal communication. It seems that the ACTFL is influencing practitioners changing traditional pedagogical schemes organised around the discrete skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing towards a real focus on interpersonal, interpretive and presentational communication. However, Glisan (2012) argues that this is problematic as teachers struggle to adapt to the pedagogical shift and to create language tasks which will promote 'real' oral interpersonal communication which goes beyond a prepared solo-talk to be shared with other learners in the classroom (Glisan, 2012). The issue arising from

this pedagogical shift is that students have not been successful in the different ACTFL assessments and it seems to go beyond secondary classrooms. Chambles (2012) explains how in the USA context the ACTFL performance levels required to gain entry into the teaching profession have meant that a significant number of languages graduates have not been able to gain entry into teacher education because their communication skills fall short of the ACTFL level required. The biggest issue seems to be based around oral interpersonal communication in the context of the 5Cs of language: communication, culture, connections, comparisons and communities (Glisan, 2012).

It should be noted that the different roles language learners take when enacting the different modes of communication resemble to a certain degree Crichton's (2013) participation framework in which she used Goffman's theory to describe learners as authors, principals or animators of language messages discussed in section 2.4.4.

The following extract, taken from the ACTFL 21st Century Skills Map, offers an overview of how language learning pedagogy has supposedly changed throughout the last twenty years in the USA.

**Table 2.3: In the past/today USA ML pedagogical table, (ACTFL, 21st Century Skills Map, 2011:4)**

| IN THE PAST | TODAY |
|---|---|
| Students learned about the language (grammar) | Students learn to use the language |
| Teacher-centred class | Learned-centred with teacher as facilitator/collaborator |
| Focused on Isolated skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) | Focus on the three modes: interpersonal, interpretive and presentational |
| Coverage of a textbook | Backward design focusing on the end goal |
| Using the textbook as the curriculum | Use of thematic units as authentic resources |
| Emphasis on teacher as presenter/lecturer | Emphasis on learner as 'doer' and 'creator' |
| Isolated cultural 'factoids' | Emphasis on the relationship among the perspectives, practices and products of the culture |
| Use of technology as a 'cool tool' | Integrating technology into instruction to enhance learning |
| Only teaching language | Using language as the vehicle to teach academic content |
| Same instruction for all students | Differentiating instruction to meet individual needs |
| Synthetic situations from textbook | Personalised real world tasks |
| Confining language learning to the classroom | Seeking opportunities for learners to use language beyond the classroom |
| Testing to find out what students don't know | Assessing to find out what students can do |
| Only the teacher knows criteria for grading | Students know and understand criteria on how they will be assessed by reviewing the task rubric |
| Students 'turn in' work only for the teacher | Learners create to 'share and publish' to audiences more than just the teacher |

It can be argued that many of these changes are linked with the move towards a learner centred pedagogy and inclusion in overall generic educational terms, as well as the rise of the assessment for learning agenda, including the learning to learn competences already discussed in the CEFR section. The Assessment Reform Group (ARG) in the UK advocates 'the process of seeking and interpreting evidence for use by learners and their teachers to decide where the learners are in their learning, where they need to go and how best to get there' (Assessment Reform Group, 2002:2). Many of those changes apply to the Scottish CfE ML policy context in which the four teacher participants operated. CfE frames the teacher as a facilitator, not as a knowledge transmitter, in a pupil-centred pedagogy in which learners are engaged in experiences to arrive at outcomes of learning. The assessment is for learning agenda is strong in Scotland as well as inclusion- at least in policy (Scottish Executive, 2004b; Priestley and Humes, 2010). In Chapters Five and Six, the notion of 'students learning about the language' as opposed to 'students learning to use the language' will be discussed, in the context of the possible washback effect of high stakes exams in ML pedagogy. Having reviewed the CA, CEFR and ACTFL and implications for learning and teaching, the next section turns to a key aspect of all of these frameworks - interaction in language learning.

## 2.5 Interaction in Language Learning

### 2.5.1 Defining Interaction

It is important to define the terms relating to different kinds of interaction, which can be categorised into face to face communication (interpersonal) and into the intrapersonal interaction which takes place in human mental activity. Intrapersonal interaction, as advanced in the previous section with the ACTFL (1997) guidelines, can be interpretive when reading texts or presentational when expressing one's ideas through writing. This chapter aims to situate interaction in the ML classroom, and brings together different SLA theories on interaction, starting with those which conceptualise the human brain as a computer (Dekeyser, 2001; 2007), moving to sociocultural theory which sees interaction as a mediation process from the inter toward the intrapersonal cognitive aspects of

human development (Donato, 2000; Lantolf and Appel, 1994; Lantolf, 2000a; 2000b).

Interaction can be seen as the social behaviour which occurs between two or more human beings: when one person communicates with another or with a group. This is referred to as *interpersonal interaction*, and it takes place at an interpsychological plane (Lantolf, 2000a). At the same time, interaction occurs inside our minds, and it serves the purpose of self-regulating our thoughts on an intra-psychological plane. The interaction which takes place within our own thoughts and mental processes is referred to as *intrapersonal* (Lantolf, 2000a). Vygotsky argues that learning is the process of going from an inter- to an intra-personal level (1978). When reading, for example, we interact with the text on an interpersonal level and we decode symbols which have a meaning, that is, using intrapersonal interaction. According to Vygotsky, interpersonal and intrapersonal interaction processes are intertwined as they always occur simultaneously (1978).

#### 2.5.1.1 Vygotsky: Language and Thought

Vygotsky (1978) argued that speech develops in children as they grow and internalise their thoughts and speech to gradually arrive at the situation where they can control what they think and say as two separate units. As children learn to speak and develop their thinking, their thoughts are externalised in their speech, and this is linked to intrapersonal interaction. As they mature, they learn to self-regulate, so they do not speak out loud what they are thinking continuously. This process is referred to by Vygotsky (1978) as private speech. In order to arrive at self-regulatory thought, human beings go through two stages according to Vygotsky (1978). Children use 'other' people to regulate their thinking and speech, usually older human beings with whom they establish strong relations and attachment, but also peers. Secondly, 'object' regulation, refers to external objects or tools used by human beings to help with self-regulation, such as toys for children or a learner reading a prepared writing piece in advance of a conversation. Vygotsky's concepts are central to sociocultural theory of interaction, as will be discussed in detail in this chapter.

### 2.5.1.2 Interaction in the Target Language

Kumaravadivelu (2006) created an interactive framework of intake processes. For him, interaction in the classroom in the target language takes the form of either textual, interpersonal or ideational activity. He claims that most L2 interactional research treats interaction as a

> *(…)textual activity in which learners and other speakers modify their speech phonologically, morphologically, lexically and syntactically in order to maximise chances of mutual understanding and minimise instances of communication breakdown* (Kumaravadivelu, 2006:66-67).

Interaction as an interpersonal activity refers to the communication exchanges which happen in a classroom setting among the learners and interaction as an ideational activity is linked to the learner's realisation of the wider social and political implications of language use and the extent to which learners continue to shape their own identity and voices. From a sociological perspective, interaction is the development of the ability to speak one's mind and the ability to impose reception (Bourdieu and Passeron, 1977; Bourdieu, 1984). As briefly advanced in Chapter One, the four teachers were working in Scotland under an outcomes based curriculum called Curriculum for Excellence (CfE) which emphasises educational praxis, in the sense that all subjects in the curriculum should provide opportunities for learners to develop the capacities of successful learners, confident individuals, responsible citizens and effective contributors as they progress throughout their school years. Hence the concept of ideational interaction seems very important for the Scottish policy context.

### 2.5.1.3 Interaction as a Professional Skill for Teaching

The skills for promoting interaction in the classroom are deemed a crucial factor for new teachers, who are establishing their role and identity in a new school, with new classes, pupils, and colleagues (Borg, 2003; 2006). Interaction is paramount for communication in the classroom and for learning to take place, especially in an Education policy system which is assumed to be constructivist. The General Teacher Council for Scotland (GTCS), the independent regulatory body which provides access, registration and permanence in the teaching profession in Scotland, revised in 2012 the mandatory requirements for every

teacher in Scotland. The 'Standards' are grouped into 3 overarching categories: (GTCS, 2012) *1- Professional values and professional commitment; 2- Professional Knowledge and Understanding; 3- Professional Skills and Abilities*. Effective interaction, both with learners and colleagues, can be seen as a thread running through the Standards stated explicitly, but also implicitly. A detailed statement of the GTCS standards can be found in Appendix 2. All of the strands of interaction aim to have a positive effect on the way teachers conduct their lessons and how they facilitate the students' learning as they are intertwined; successful implementation of the GTCS strands helps establish good rapport with pupils and in the classroom as a whole. It is agreed in Scotland that having a good rapport in the classroom is a very important factor for ensuring possible positive learning outcomes for students. The purpose of this study is to look at interaction on another level: the interactive processes which take place in the language students are learning.

### 2.5.2 Interaction in Language Learning

#### 2.5.2.1 Overview

This study investigated the interactive practices of four early career ML teachers (ECMLT) in secondary schools in Scotland, who claimed to use the CA in the classroom. The main focus of this study was to look at their perceptions of development of interactive practices in the classroom, in relation to how they advance language learning. Therefore, a good starting point to understand the framework which underpins the interactionist paradigm is to explore the main theories of interaction which feed into the interactionist paradigm.

The role of interaction in language learning has been rather controversial within SLA. On the one side, there are second language acquisition theories based on Chomskian Universal Grammar (UG) (1959) which do not consider interaction as a key pivotal factor for language learning, based on the concept of UG. Long's Interaction Hypothesis (1983; 1996), discussed below, followed Chomskian conceptualisation of the brain and emphasised the image of the brain as a computer. Interaction facilitates the process of language learning, but innatists believed that human beings are hard wired for language (Chomsky, 1986;

Krashen, 1981). Socioculturalists follow a Vygotskian conceptualisation of cognitive development, and argue that the learning starts on a social plane, between human beings, and through mediation meaning goes from the interpersonal level to the intrapersonal one. This conceptualisation of L2 learning was advanced by Hatch in 1978, who was one of the first to posit that learners learn grammar through interactions instead of learning in order to interact (Ellis, 2008). Research built on Hatch's theory, advanced by Long (1983; 1996; 2006), Pica (1994; 1996; 2005) and Gass (1997; 2004) agrees that L2 input gained by interaction acts as the main factor in learning the L2. Gass and Mackey (2006) recently reconceptualised theories of interaction into the interaction approach, which encapsulates some elements of socio-cultural theory. Below we look in turn at both sides of the SLA understandings of the importance of interaction. The next section starts teasing out the main theories which provide one of the starting points for this study.

#### 2.5.2.2 Interactionists

As Mackey (2012) argues in her work, interaction research has advanced immensely over the last twenty years, becoming a framework which studies a wide variety of interactional factors. This framework includes constructs such as: comprehensible input, corrective feedback, modified output, the role of attention and other factors related to learner characteristics such as cognitive differences, and social and cultural factors. Mackey points out that interaction should be understood as an approach, not as a SLA theory, and this approach provides 'a window through which we can view important aspects of L2 development' (2012:4). Interaction is seen as *a* 'facilitator of many of the processes involved in learning' (Mackey, 2012:4). A good starting point to understand the framework which underpins the interactionist paradigm is to look at three of the main theories of interaction which feed into the interactionist paradigm. Long's Interaction Hypothesis (1981) can be seen as the first stone which laid the foundations of current thinking regarding interaction. Since then Long has revised the Interaction Hypothesis (1996), paying attention to modified input during interaction which may contribute to acquisition depending on the learner's internal factors. Modified input refers to the language changes the

more sophisticated language user (or teacher) makes to simplify the language so it can be easily understandable. Interaction has also been framed within a sociocultural theory perspective (Lantolf and Thorne, 2006) and this is the preferred framework for this study, given the qualitative approach taken. Both Long's Interaction Hypothesis and the sociocultural approach have influenced Gass and Mackey's Interaction Approach (2006) as well as other frameworks analysed in this section.

The attention given to interaction is relatively new in the field of SLA, as between the 1940s and the 1960s, (as explained in the previous section) Skinner's theory of behaviourism was the most powerful explanation of L1 and L2 development. Behaviourists explained language learning mainly in terms of imitation, practice and habit formation. Interaction was not centrally taken into account to explain either L1 nor L2 development. However, although it was maybe not considered central, or a condition sine qua non of language learning, behaviourism points up to the importance of positive reinforcement, and this cannot be realised without interaction. Similarly, Chomsky's critique of behaviourism in the 1960s and his theory of UG, in which he maintained that children develop language in their environment discussed interaction as a factor for language development, but did not make interaction the key factor. Conversely, interactionists postulate that learners learn language through interactions instead of learning in order to interact (Ellis, 2008).

Interaction research started by investigating how conversational adjustments made in interaction when communication broke down helped language acquisition (Gass and Varonis, 1985; 1991). Its focus has now shifted towards a more complex framework which pays attention to other factors and processes involved in L2 development (Mackey, 2012). As Mackey argues, interaction research has evolved from being focused on the question of whether interaction facilitated communication, which has now been more than proven (Mackey and Polio, 2009), towards being referred to as 'the dominant interactionist paradigm' (Byrnes, 2006:296), the model that dominates current SLA research. For details on over 100 empirical studies and 5 meta-analyses on the validity of interaction research, please, see Mackey (2012).

For Mackey, interaction should be conceptualised as an approach to study SLA rather than a theory of SLA. As a framework for research it helps assist understanding of the factors and processes involved behind language learning, not only the language factors but also the learner's characteristics (Mackey, 2012:4). Mackey argues that interaction cannot be framed as a causal theory of SLA , as interaction should be seen as 'the facilitator of many of the processes involved in learning' (Mackey, 2012:4). Through interaction we can establish the interdependence of those factors and processes involved in foreign language learning as well as any learning process. Before turning to theories of interaction, the next section explains the constructs, most commonly used to delineate interaction, namely: input, intake, output, meaning negotiation and error correction.

### 2.5.3 Input, Intake , Meaning Negotiation, Error Correction and Output in Interaction

This study aimed to trace four ECMLSTs' conceptualisation of interaction, and how their practices evolved during their early careers as teachers. It is therefore important to define clearly certain constructs such as input, output, meaning negotiation or different types of corrective feedback, as this terminology will be used throughout the different chapters of this study, when reporting and analysing the study findings. These concepts are very important as they provide the basis for Gass and Mackey's IA (2006).

#### 2.5.3.1 Input

Input is recognised as an essential component in the language learning process. It is defined as 'the sine qua non of language acquisition' (Mackey, 2012: 9), and refers to the language a learner can access through a variety of mediums, such as listening or reading. In the L2 learning classroom, teachers may adjust all areas of their spoken language (phonology, syntax, lexicon) in order for learners to understand those utterances so that they can iteratively construct their interlanguage (Long, 2003; Dörnyei,2009c). The adjustments can take the form of simplifications or elaborations. Krashen developed the Input Theory (1981) in

which he argued input should be made comprehensible to learners, and, if set at a slightly higher level than that which the learner currently operated at (i + 1), input would help advance the learning process. Input beyond the level of comprehension of learners did not seem to lead to learning. However, input on its own is not sufficient for second language acquisition (Mackey and Polio, 2009). Instead, what most interactionists would claim is that interaction itself is the most important factor for learning (ibid). Therefore, the ways in which learners and teachers 'interact' with input is a central area of study for the interactionists (ibid).

The socio-cultural perspective (Lantolf 2000a; 2000b) adds an important layer to interaction in the context of this study. Researchers such as Lantolf (2000a;2000b) argue that scaffolding such as interactive feedback is the way in which teachers can support pupils socially, cognitively and affectively during the conversations taking place in the classroom (Donato and McCormick, 1994).

The depth of processing model (Ellis, 2008) explains how interaction involves learners establishing links between unfamiliar utterances in the input and their existing language or knowledge of the world. This theory claims that interaction serves as a means of achieving the kind of mental activity required for new material to be stored in long-term memory.

The depth of processing model is important for this study, as the teacher participants in this study were teaching French and Spanish to English speakers, and very often, teachers drew on the similarities between L1 and L2 which have elements of commonality as well as pupils' knowledge of the world. The different strands relating to input will be explored in more detail at a later stage in this chapter. The next section reviews the literature on intake.

#### 2.5.3.2 Intake

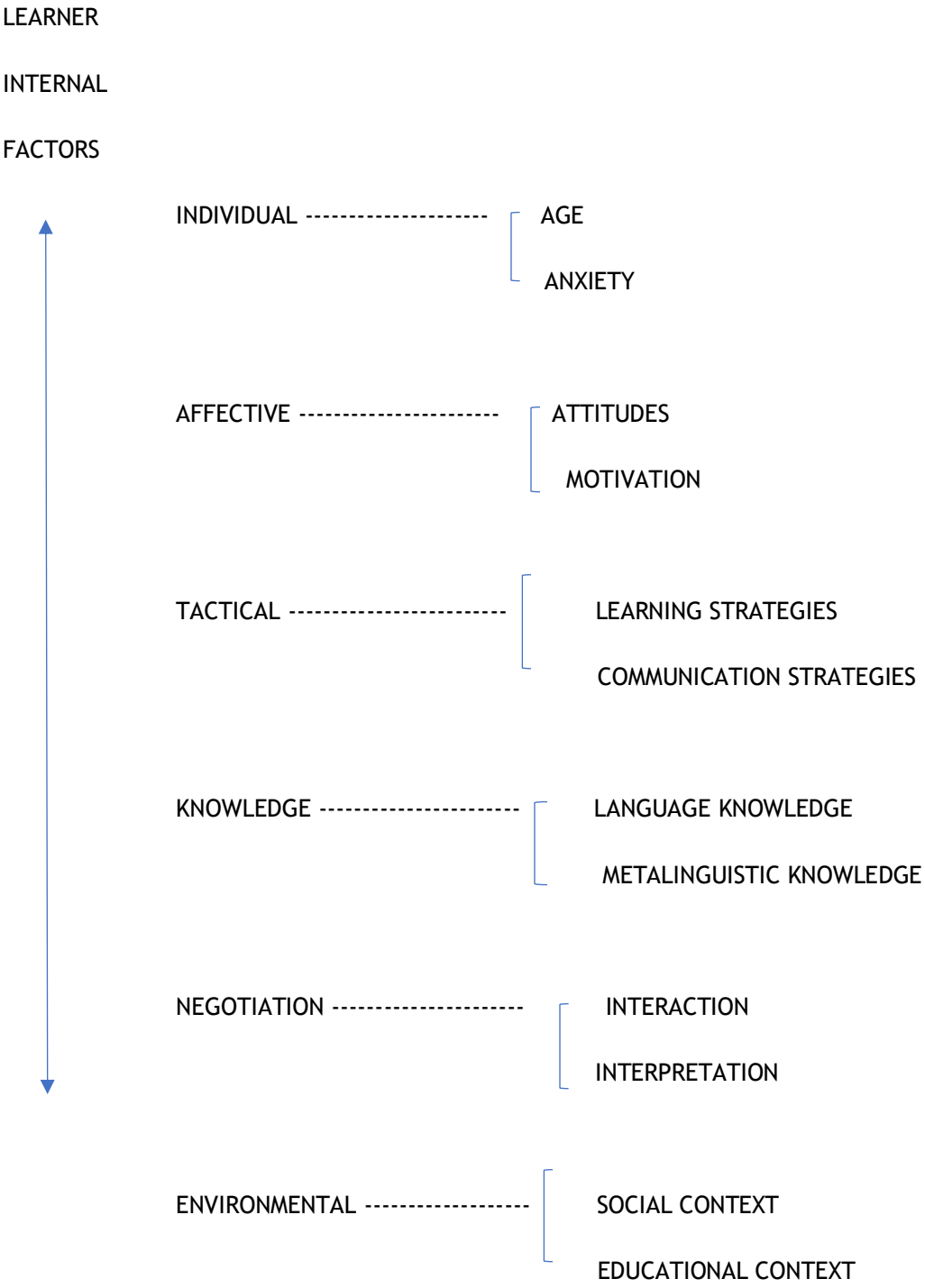
Throughout SLA theory there have been different explanations of intake. Gass (1997:23) defined it as 'apperceived input that has been further processed'. For Krashen (1981:102) intake 'is simply where language acquisition comes from, that subset of linguistic input that helps the acquirer acquire language'. Hatch (1983) also defined intake as a subset of input that the learner had successfully

and completely processed. Corder (1967) made the distinction between input and the intake that goes on in the learner's mind, that is, what s/he is able to process. Historically, intake was considered as part of the input, however, those SLA theorists who emphasise the learner's processing capabilities place intake at the other end of the processing procedure, with output. For language teaching, it is important to bear in mind that not all input will be perceived and processed in the same way by learners, and this will be further explored when discussing the interactive approach (Gass and Mackey, 2007) and the role of noticing input to maximise intake.

Kumaravadivelu (2006:29-44) provides a review of intake factors based on the work of different SLA theorists such as Corder, Hatch, Seliger, Swain and Krashen. He established a continuum starting at learner internal factors on the one end and learner external factors at the other. Figure 4 offers an overview of his **I**ndividual, **N**egotiation, **T**actical, **A**ffective, **K**nowledge and **E**nvironmental Factors **(INTAKE).**

Starting from the learner internal factors, there are individual factors such as age and learner anxiety although the role of age in language learning has been questioned by Muñoz (2008); affective factors such as learners' attitudes and motivation; tactical factors related to the learning to learn agenda, such as learning strategies and communication strategies; knowledge factors such as language knowledge and wider metalanguage knowledge; negotiation of meaning factors such as ability to interact and interpret text; and finally, at the other end of the continuum, (learner external factors), environmental factors such as social and educational context. These factors are very important for Gass and Mackey's IA (2006). The IA posits that attention is socially gated, and that learners can only learn what they notice.

**Figure 4: Kumaravadivelu's INTAKE factors (2006:31)**



### 2.5.3.3 Meaning Negotiation

Negotiation of meaning can take place in the form of confirmation checks, clarification requests or comprehension requests, the three 'Cs': Is this what you mean?; what did you say?; Did you get that? ( Mackey 2012). Meaning negotiation usually takes place when there is a breakdown in communication or the message to be communicated is not clear from/for either of the participants in the conversation. During interaction in the second language learning classroom, the context of this study, learners and teachers may negotiate meaning due to a lack of understanding. Teachers tend to provide feedback when they notice a gap between the language of the learner and what the target language should look like if used correctly. Research suggests that 'negotiated input provides learners with enhanced and salient linguistic information, as well as additional time to focus on how specific meanings are encoded in the L2' (Mackey, 2012:12).

The concept of meaning negotiation is crucial within the interactionist approach, since it is linked with the concepts of corrective feedback and pushed output. If a learner makes a mistake in the L2, a more knowledgeable other (MKO) either a teacher or a fellow student, provides feedback or seeks clarification to elicit the intended meaning. The interactionists believe that students advance their learning whilst involved in negotiating meaning or when asked to clarify their communication utterances, that is, when the MKO is 'pushing' the learner for re-formulated output with the help of corrective feedback (Long, 1996; Mackey et al., 2002). The role of meaning negotiation, corrective feedback and pushed output is highlighted as pivotal in SLA empirical studies. However, as noted throughout this literature review, these linguistic advances tend to be empirically measured in laboratory dyad studies with adults or in immersion contexts. There seems to be a dearth of studies which have been conducted in a ML classroom with teenagers for whom study of a language is mandatory. This study aimed to examine the kinds of meaning negotiation and interactive moves which happened in the classrooms of the four teachers who took part in the study, and highlight whether there were any major differences with the processes highlighted in the literature.

Meaning negotiation can take place simultaneously with error correction in the ML classroom. When learners in the classroom make mistakes, teachers tend to

provide feedback in a very empathetic and sensitive manner, in order to help pupils save face in front of their peers and so as not to damage their self-esteem or hinder their enthusiasm for taking part in the oral activities in the classroom (Crichton et al., 2017). The next section explores in detail the use of error correction and feedback.

#### 2.5.3.4 Error Correction

It is paramount to start exploring error correction with the seminal research conducted by Lyster and Ranta in 1997 on corrective feedback. In their study, they identified six types of teacher oral feedback regarding errors made by the learners. Lyster and Ranta classified the different kinds of feedback into: recasts, elicitation, explicit correction, clarification requests, repetition and metalinguistic feedback (Lyster and Ranta,1997: 46-49). With recasts, the teacher repeats what the pupil has said without the error; elicitation entails teachers encouraging learners to refine their thinking and expression. Explicit correction refers to the teacher highlighting to the pupil the correct answer. A clarification request usually takes the form of a question directed to the pupil which indicates there is a problem with the language utterance the pupil used. Repetition involves the teacher repeating the pupil's error with a stress on intonation to highlight the mistake. Metalinguistic feedback encourages learners in their own L1 to think about the error.

Lyster and Ranta's study showed that although recasts seemed to be the most common method of error correction used by teachers, they were also found to be the least effective in terms of uptake and repair, as nearly 70% of recasts appeared to go unnoticed by the students in their study. Feedback through recasts may be perceived by learners as an alternative way of expressing the same idea in many cases, or learners may not be able to notice the recasts (Schmidt,1990). In another study, Lyster (1998) explored the links between error type and feedback type. He reduced the six different kinds of feedback of his previous study into three categories: explicit correction, recasts and form negotiation. The negotiation of form included elicitation, metalinguistic cues, clarification requests and repetitions. Lyster observed that recasts provided the target language form to the learner implicitly and explicit corrections explicitly.

He also found that teachers had a lower tolerance for pronunciation and lexical errors. Grammatical errors were corrected less frequently. Lyster claimed that teachers should use form negotiation as it pushes learners to produce output (Swain, 1985), which at the same time makes learners more likely to notice the gap between their utterance and the target form (Schmidt, 1990) because it encourages learners to notice and correct their own grammatical mistakes.

Lyster's findings, especially those referring to the reduced effect of recasts in learning have been strongly refuted by some SLA researchers, such as Mackey and Philp (1998), Mackey et al. (2002) and Long (2006), as they pointed out that, firstly his study was conducted in Canada in an immersion context, and secondly and crucially, the lack of immediate uptake after a recast does not imply a lack of long term interlanguage change or gains in student L2 learning. Mackey and Philp (1998) argued that immediate uptake is not an appropriate outcome measure in SLA, and it could indeed be a red herring. In another study, Oliver and Mackey (2003) argued that the discourse context of the classroom played a very important role in whether the recasts were taken up by its students. For example, when there was a focus on form in the classroom, learners in their study demonstrated uptake of 85% of recasts. On the contrary, further studies by Panova and Lyster (2002) and Lyster (2004) continued finding that recasts may be an ambiguous method of feedback for L2 learners. In their 2002 study, Panova and Lyster showed that those students receiving prompts instead of recasts achieved higher accuracy in subsequent language processing. They concluded that those students exposed to recasts were uncertain of how to interpret recasts and had more difficulty noticing their errors. Another study by Lasagabaster and Sierra (2005) showed a mismatch in what students and teachers perceived as error correction, claiming that students were not able to identify the teacher's corrective moves. Their study concluded that teachers needed to provide more explicit and direct error correction to students. Long (2006) argues that L2 teachers should not reject the use of recasts in their classrooms simply because they were found ambiguous in some immersion classroom settings.

Despite gaps in the literature about error correction (Russell, 2009), it seems that students welcome more explicit correction, and that the kind of feedback conducive to learning may be dependent on the communication and / or focus

on form dynamic of the instructed setting (Lyster,1998). It should be noted that most of the research is conducted with older students, or in immersion contexts, and not in instructed secondary schools contexts and that is why this study is so important, as it provides qualitative in-depth research into the teachers' approaches to error correction as they build up their interactive practices within the CA. So far, this section has covered the input a learner receives, the negotiation of meaning, and the treatment of error correction. The next section provides a brief explanation of the output, the language pupils produce in interaction.

#### 2.5.3.5 Output

As noted before, comprehensible input is considered 'the sine qua non of language acquisition' (Mackey, 2012: 9), but input alone is not considered to be sufficient. Swain (1985; 1995) argued that in addition to input, learners need opportunities to produce and use language, that is, to create output, in order to develop their L2 skills. When a teacher asks a pupil to provide a more detailed answer to her question, this could be understood as an example of a teacher stretching the learner's linguistic resources, asking her to go beyond a one word answer.

Comprehensible output, or The Output Hypothesis is defined as the utterances which are understandable to one's interlocutor (Swain, 1985; 1995). Swain observed that often in classrooms learners do not have enough opportunities to engage in verbal output to develop their speaking and writing knowledge, skills and dispositions. Swain noted that language use and language learning co-occur, and that learning happens during the interaction process, not beforehand, in order to interact. She coined the term pushed output, meaning the moves a teacher makes to engage the learner in producing L2 utterances as a response to feedback. The construct of pushed output is closely linked in terms of language learning to the notion that comprehension does not guarantee acquisition (Mackey and Gass, 2006).

The most important concepts within the Output Hypothesis include modified output and pushed output. Modified output refers to the newly formed

utterances a learner produces once s/he has taken into account the feedback of the teacher, or more knowledgeable other, or simply because of self-monitoring. It is understood to benefit L2 development (Swain, 2000; Ellis and He, 1999) as it forces learners to reflect on their language production, promoting fluency and automaticity (Swain, 2000). This process has the potential effect of making the learner notice the gap between the target language and what they have produced (Schmidt and Frota, 1986). Both constructs, pushed output and modified output are intertwined, and they both affect communication and language comprehension. Swain (1995: 128) noted that output production 'may stimulate learners to move from the semantic, open-ended, non-deterministic, strategic processing prevalent in comprehension, to the complete grammatical processing needed for accurate production'.

The term pushed output will be used in the findings chapter, as this study seeks to establish whether the observed teachers pushed the learners' output, or were content when learners showed signs of comprehension. The link between comprehension and pushed output made by teachers and their interactive moves to cater for both, or one over the other, is a central focus of this study.

It could be argued that error correction is at the heart of modified or pushed output, as it is the feedback process, (or the learner's self-monitoring process) and whether they are able to notice, which 'pushes' or helps the learner to modify her/his output. As Mackey et al.(2002) noted, immediate reactions may or may not be indicative of more permanent interlanguage restructuring. Gass (2003) argued that immediate reactions may be explained in terms of mimicry and not evidence actual L2 development, however those elements of feedback provided 'priming' to learners, that is, an initial step which sets the stage for development. McDonough and Mackey (2006) support Gass' (2004) construct of feedback as a 'priming device' and their research showed how even though the learners' immediate responses to feedback did not appear associated with learning, those learners were able to use those forms later in other interactive practices, and that this use could be evidenced as learning and as change in their interlanguage.

### 2.5.4 Interaction Theories

Sociocultural theories of language interaction call for qualitative research methods, which 'are more sensitive to the ways in which interactions are constructed by participants as they dynamically negotiate not just meaning but also their role relationships and their cultural and social identities' (Ellis, 1999:17). Having defined the constructs which are vital to understand the different factors which make up interaction, such as input, output, negotiation of meaning and error correction, the next section will turn to discuss the different theories of interaction, starting with the seminal work of Long in the 1990s, followed by sociocultural theory, and finishing with Gass and Mackey's IA (2006).

#### 2.5.4.1 Long's Interaction Hypothesis (IH)

The IH focuses on the negotiation of meaning taking place when people are interacting in conversation. Long (1981) coined the terms interactional modification to refer to the changes actioned whilst in conversation to solve misunderstandings, which tend to happen when native speakers (NS) and/or non-native speakers (NSS) engage in conversation, thus allowing communication to take place. These changes at times could be ungrammatical. The general claim of IH was that negotiating communication issues which arose whilst engaging in interpersonal oral interaction facilitated language acquisition. Pica (1996) and Pica et al. (1993) insisted that the IH only facilitates acquisition, does not cause it, and claimed that meaning negotiation is not the only type of interaction which could foster learning. The revised version of IH (Long, 1996) addressed the issue of *how* modified input during the interaction contributed to acquisition by looking at the learner's internal factors, that is, the interpersonal and intrapersonal layers of interaction. Firstly, it pointed out that the L2 speaker needs to notice the input forms (interpersonal stage) and secondly the forms noticed need to be within the learner's processing capacity. The IH has been criticised from a perspective which could be characterised as socio-psychological in orientation. Firth and Wagner (2011) pointed to the tension in the interplay of the social and contextual aspects of L2 acquisition and the individual cognitive processes of the learner. More precisely, they criticised the research in meaning

negotiation and input modification which treats learners as 'defective communicators'. It seems that SLA assumes that Native Speakers offer a 'baseline' against which to measure Non-Native Speakers. This conceptualisation seems to be at odds with the notion of communicative competence in plurilingual societies. Firth and Wagner (2011) argued that SLA should examine how L2s are used interactively in a variety of contexts for multiple purposes. The next section will turn to discuss sociocultural theory which is underpinned by socio-psychological principles, and highly influenced by Vygotskyan concepts of mediation.

#### 2.5.4.2 Sociocultural Theory of Interaction

Sociocultural theory of interaction is underpinned by Vygotsky's sociocultural theory, in which learning is conceptualised as participation rather than acquisition, and learning occurs through social interaction (1978). Throughout this section five important concepts from Vygotsky will be explored, along with their implications for L2 learning:

- Social construction of understanding - we become ourselves through working with others
- Interpersonal to intrapersonal interaction, including private speech
- The More Knowledgeable Other (MKO) - teacher, classroom peer, parents
- Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) in which pupils are challenged to work at the upper limit of their ability
- Mediation and scaffolding

For Vygotsky, all kinds of learning (including language learning) takes place when biologically determined mental functions evolve into more complex functions through social interaction. This mechanism brings about consciousness, meaning that the learner is aware of cognitive abilities and enhancement of understanding; secondly it helps the process of self-regulation. As noted above, according to Vygotsky, functions are initially performed in collaboration with others before the learner acquires the capacity to perform those functions

independently, moving from an interpsychological plane to an intrapsychological plane, within the child's own mind as an intrapsychological plane (Vygotsky, 1978).

Scaffolding processes encompass those helping mechanisms by which one person assists another to develop a function or task that she/he could not perform on their own (Bruner et al., 1986). According to Donato (2000), scaffolding provides clear directions for students, clarifies purpose of tasks at hand whilst keeping students on task, offers assessment to clarify expectations, points students to worthwhile sources, reduces uncertainty, surprise and disappointment, and delivers efficiency whilst creating momentum. For Donato (1994; 2000) scaffolding implies the MKO's iterative evaluation of the capabilities of the learner, to adjust scaffolding responsively to the learner's development. Donato (ibid) posits that in an L2 classroom pupils working in collaboration with each other also creates opportunities for scaffolding.

The ZPD refers to an area of potential development lying between the learner's actual development and a skill or function that s/he could access with mediational assistance by a MKO. The Vygotskyan concept of the ZPD characterises the difference between what one can do individually and what one can accomplish with assistance from an expert, or at least someone more expert than oneself at that point. The ZPD is not stable but is created in the course of social interaction as the activity unfolds. Donato (1994) and Ohta (2000) have extended the concept of ZPD to include peer-peer interaction as opposed to a MKO who can only be the teacher). Despite the fact that at times there may be no clear expert in peer interaction, the concept is still applicable (Swain, 2000; Swain and Lapkin, 1998). The ZPD can be conceptualised as the collaborative construction of opportunities (Lantolf, 2000a: 17) or alternatively as occasions for learning (Swain and Lapkin, 1998). For language learners, this interaction can push learners to internalise new language capabilities using language as a cognitive tool to mediate their linguistic problem-solving with peers.

Storch (2002) conducted a study of collaborative classroom-based classroom activities with ESL adult learners. Learners were classified according to roles: collaborative, expert/novice, conversation dominant/dominant, dominant/passive orientation. In her study, the most predominant pattern was

collaborative (high mutuality and high equality). In this pattern, the role of 'expert' was fluid, with either peer taking on the role or more often pooling resources whenever uncertainties arose concerning language choices.

Ohta's (2000) study of Japanese ESL learners showed that both more and less proficient peers benefitted from interacting with more proficient peers (Watanabe and Swain, 2007).

It may be that Krashen's concept of input plus 1 (i + 1) was influenced by Vygotsky's ZPD. The difference is that Krashen took more of a Piagetian approach to learning, assuming that learning develops in a fixed and predictable order whereas Vygotsky saw development as a more messy and uncertain path, with learning not always following the same order.

Whether learners actually learn involves their agency (Lantolf and Thorne, 2006) and the creation of the ZPD. The ZPD determines the potential for instruction and the learners, as agents, acting with mediational means (teacher/pupil/ICT/book) interact in the ZPD. It is through this interaction that learners as agents respond and develop expertise. Being aware of this conceptualisation I was keen to ascertain the extent to which the learners I observed in this study were agents of the communication process in the target language in the classroom interaction. How did the teachers help construct learners' ZPDs with their interactive moves? What were the different roles of the teacher as the mediator?

The implications of Vygotsky's conceptualisation of learning can be seen in the shift from product approaches in the 1960s and 1970s based on behaviourist theories towards a process approach. The emergence of process approaches is also linked with the rise of Assessment for Learning pedagogy where planning, setting goals, sharing clear objectives, and formative feedback are seen as key elements of learning. This resonates with the CEFR concept of learning to learn reviewed in section 2.4.6.

From the perspective of a sociocultural theory of mind, written texts and oral language act as tools to mediate learning and the social formation of ideas (Daniels, 2001). In the context of L2 learning, feedback in the form of instructional procedures can also assist learners in their language development

(Ohta, 2000:61). I was keen to see if this would be observable in the classes I followed. I was particularly interested in the teacher's role in mediating in the target language, providing corrective feedback, managing output and pushed output, making learners notice salient features of language and orchestrating all the different seven principles of the PCA (Dörnyei, 2009a; 2009c).

This section has discussed the sociocultural theory of interaction, and certain research foci emerged, linked to Long's theory of interaction (1983;1996). The following table summarises the main differences between IH and sociocultural theory. The following section discusses Gass and Mackey's (2007) IA, which takes stock of Long's IH and sociocultural theory.

**Table 2.5: Long's IH versus Sociocultural Theory**

| | Long's Interaction Hypothesis | Sociocultural Theory |
|---|---|---|
| Views on interaction | Social interaction | Interaction can be social and private |
| Focus of study | Negotiation of meaning | All varieties of interaction |
| Role of Interaction | It assists acquisition by helping to meet learners' input needs | Social practice which shapes and constructs learning |
| Necessity of Interaction | Neither necessary nor sufficient, it only facilitates learning | Sufficient for learning. Learning happens in interaction |

### 2.5.4.3 Gass and Mackey's Interaction Approach

Gass and Mackey's (2006) IA draws on socio-cultural learning and important SLA aspects of interaction such as those discussed by Long (1996). Recent interaction research has either concentrated on the holistic relationship between interaction and L2 development or sought to explain this relationship through the study of the different components of interaction. As noted by Mackey (2012: 9) 'unsurprisingly, current work suggests there are diverse ways that both individual and collective interactional processes support second language development'. The IA, as outlined by Gass and Mackey (2006) provides an insight

into the factors and processes which they claim affect language learning to different extents. In addition to the constructs explored in section 4 of input, output, feedback, Gass and Mackey's IA takes into account the social context of learning and the internal processes linked to learning, such as attentional control and individual cognitive differences, which have been briefly discussed in Kumaravadivelu's review of intake (2006) in section 2.4.2.

The major tenets of Gass and Mackey's (2006) IA can be seen below and will be discussed individually, building on the literature on interaction which has already been reviewed.

1. Learning takes place in the actual interaction, not in order to interact

2. The role of attention in learning, which is socially gated (within social and cognitive factors of the learner)

3. Exposure to the target language: links between comprehensible input and output

4. The role of feedback as part of pushed output

5. Comprehension does not guarantee acquisition

The major aspects of the IA, as outlined by Gass and Mackey (2006) include social factors, such as the extent to which motivation can affect learners' uptake of input, type and frequency of feedback. They argue that social factors and context affect the attention learners pay to the input and their willingness to produce output. The classroom is a social space, and the different factors surrounding the social enclave where that classroom is situated will play a part in learning. In this sense, their interactive approach takes cognisance not only of language as a linguistic system but also of ideology and discourse (Kumaravadivelu, 2006).

Learners' individual cognitive factors, such as working memory and developmental level, are considered to play their part in the learning process as they may also affect the amount of attention a learner may pay to input, whether s/he notices any salient features, and how feedback is processed and internalised. Consequently, the level of attention to input and feedback is likely to affect the kinds of output the learners are likely to produce.

Attention is a major element in L2 development (DeKeyser,2007). Interaction helps draw learner's attention to features in the input, and again while producing output, or when receiving feedback. Feedback occurs often during interaction in the form of negotiation and recasts, as explored in the previous section.

As previously discussed, input refers to the learner's exposure to the target language, and it is essential but not sufficient on its own for language acquisition. Interaction helps make the input comprehensible. Some salient aspects of the input, if noticed by the learners, will speed up the learning process. The learner's output during interaction allows for hypothesis testing and the development of automaticity, and can lead to the learner focusing on form, rather than meaning. Small changes in production can indicate learning (Dekeyser, 2007).

To sum up, Gass and Mackey (2006) articulated the IA based on principles which are intrinsically linked to sociocultural theory and Vygotsky's constructs on interpersonal to intrapersonal mediation, construction of understanding, MKO and ZPD.

Firstly, attention and noticing are seen as a central component in development; some acquisition happens incidentally (implicitly) but some sort of explicit focus on form is necessary for certain types of learning. Secondly, there is a link between interaction and learning with a focus on three main components of interaction: exposure (input), production (output) and feedback. Interaction involves conditions under which learners can establish links between unfamiliar items in the input and their existing knowledge. Negotiation of meaning provides learners with opportunities to attend to L2 form and to relationships of form and meaning, as expressed in Dörnyei's PCA (2009a; 2009c). This study sought to explore the four participants' realisation of these tenets: what interactive moves did they make with regard to input, feedback and pushed output? How did they strike a balance? Could they, following Swain's pushed output construct, push all learners for output? How did they manage oral feedback in a class? So far, most of the theoretical paradigm of the IA is underpinned by laboratory studies with mature students. Would there be any differences with early career ML teachers when working with young adolescents in comprehensive schools?

Mackey and Goo (2007) conducted a meta-analysis of interaction studies which showed the strong correlation between interaction in the target language and ML learning. Most of the studies are classified as laboratory settings with adult triads. In terms of the effectiveness of interaction to promote acquisition of linguistic forms, the main findings showed that interactional treatments produced a strong effect on acquisition in both immediate and delayed tests. These findings showed the strong undisputed correlation between interaction and learning, at least in small groups, dyads, and with adults. For more detailed information please refer to appendix 4.

This study explores interaction in the classroom context, to establish whether similar findings seemed to resonate with the observed classrooms. As Gass and Mackey's IA (2006) emphasises social factors such as motivation and cognitive factors such as working memory and developmental level of literacy and cognition, the next section will look at these.

### 2.5.5 Learner Differences Influencing Interaction

#### 2.5.5.1 Language Aptitude and Working Memory

Working memory is one of the learner differences identified by Gass and Mackey's IA (2006). Working memory is linked to the learner's ability to notice language and use feedback to internalise learning. Since the 1960s working memory has been linked with language aptitude. The language aptitude debate has been influenced by the works of cognitive psychologist Carroll and his study of *Human Cognitive Abilities* (1993). For Carroll (1965; 1993) language aptitude is underpinned by Chomskian universal grammar and is influenced by four factors: 1) phonemic coding ability, that is one's ability to retain unfamiliar auditory material through appropriate coding; 2) inductive language learning ability, that is, the learner's ability to find generalisations arising from input, and the ability to extrapolate those to produce language; 3) grammatical sensitivity, that is the ability to identify the functions of words in sentences and 4) associative learning, which is the capacity of making links between L1 and L2. Carroll's work came about in a context of learning led by audiolingual methodology and Krashen's critical period hypothesis (1981).

Carroll and Sapon (1957) created a ML Aptitude Test (MLAT) based on number learning, phonetic script, hidden words, words in sentences and paired associates.

Carroll's four factor theory was underpinned by associative memory, whereas since the 1980s and the work of Skehan (1982; 1989; 2002) there has been a shift to attributing more importance to working memory (Miyake and Shah, 1999) and phonological working memory (Ellis and Sinclair, 1996) than associative memory. Mackey et al. (2002) showed in a study that learners with a high working memory function were able to benefit more from feedback and notice more in interaction. Different studies (French, 2006; O'Brien et al., 2006; Kormos and Safar, 2008; Miyake and Friedman, 1998) have all reported the consistent correlation between working memory and language development. Miyake and Friedman (1998) identified the following steps in L2 processing linked to working memory:

1) Input processing: phonological memory helps the learner to process longer stretches of language;

2) Noticing and handling form and meaning simultaneously: more capacity allows parts of the input to be extracted and to form-meaning connections;

3) Pattern identification: more input available in working memory helps with the identification of longer patterns;

4) Complexification and restructuring of language: more capacity helps bridging connections between current working memory and long-term memory, as well as changing long-term memory;

5) Error avoidance: working memory allows monitoring of errors;

6) Response to feedback: working memory allows attention to be paid to feedback and the incorporation of feedback into language, and can lead to long-term memory changes;

7) Automatisation: more language in working memory helps 'chunking' which can be transferred towards long-term memory.

Dörnyei's declarative input, focus on form and formulaic principles (2009a; 2009c) are linked with the seven stages identified by Miyake and Friedman. Input processing, noticing, pattern identification and the restructuring and integration of language are linked with working memory whereas error-avoidance, repertoire and salience creation, response to feedback and automatisation are linked with long-term memory. Aptitude in this sense could be linked with proceduralisation of declarative knowledge, and the extent to which learners convert noticing and pattern insights into fluent and error-free language speech.

In this vein, Ellis (2005; 2007) advocates 'chunk' learning, or in Dörnyei's terms formulaic learning. In the Common European Framework Languages (CEFR) section, 'learning to learn' was highlighted as one of the areas of importance of language learning determining success. In the next section, Robinson's Aptitude Complex Hypothesis (2007) is explored. Robinson links the ability of language learning with the developmental character of aptitude abilities. This is very important for this study, as it sought to establish the interactive moves the teacher participants might take to help learners in the process of language learning, and their role in mediating and facilitating that learning, including what they do to build up learners' aptitude, working memory and motivation.

#### 2.5.5.2 Robinson's Aptitude Complex Hypothesis

Robinson's Aptitude Complex Hypothesis (2007) looked at aptitude conceptualised as acquisition processes. Robinson linked primary cognitive abilities, such as perceptual speed and pattern recognition, which help the learner to notice the gap, with type of memory, understood as an ability factor, and learning methodology or context. Table 2.6 presents an overview of Robinson's ACH (2007). The ability of the learner to notice the gap constitutes an important factor in Gass and Mackey's IA (2006), hence the reason Robinson's study was included in this literature review.

**Table 2.6: Robinson's ACH (2007)**

| Learning Context | Memory as an Ability Factor | Cognitive Ability |
|---|---|---|
| Learning via recasting | Contingent speech | Noticing the gap: perceptual speed and pattern recognition |
| Incidental Learning (oral) | Contingent speech | Phonological working memory capacity and speed of phonological working memory |
| Incidental Learning (written) | Contingent text | Deep semantic processing, analogies, capacity to infer word meaning |
| Explicit rule learning | Contingent text | Metalinguistic rule rehearsal , grammatical sensitivity and rote memory |

One of the aims of this study was to establish, through classroom observation and in-depth interviews, the four teacher participants 'interactive moves to help students in the process of language learning. The analysis chapters will look into the different exercises and patterns of interaction which helped students to learn how to advance their grammatical sensitivity, or use their rote memory, and phonological working memory capacity. The next section turns to the vast area of motivation. Motivation is considered by Gass and Mackey's (2006) IA as an important influence in learning and was likely to play a major part in the context of this study, that is, in comprehensive secondary schools in Scotland.

### 2.5.5.3. Motivation

Motivation is acknowledged within second language acquisition research as an important factor influencing learning success. Gass and Mackey's (2006) IA considers learning as 'socially gated', and motivation is seen as one individual internal cause of learning. This thesis uses Dörnyei's (2009a; 2009c) PCA as a

framework for classroom observation and analysis. However, Dörnyei is better known for his work on L2 motivation. SLA motivation research has evolved mirroring developments in motivational psychology. In the context of this study, while motivation is very important for the learners, I am taking a narrow view with regard to motivational aspects, purely because the field is so vast.

Throughout the 1960s Gardner and Lambert researched learning attitudes and motivation in the bilingual context of Canada. They published a report in 1972 on motivation arguing that motivation had a decisive effect in L2 learning independent of ability or aptitude. Their theory was bifold: the integrative motivational orientation of learners interested in the people and culture represented by the other group, and an instrumental orientation which reflected the practical advantages of L2 learning (Gardner and Lambert, 1972:132). The social-psychological analysis of L2 motivation made the distinction between motivation per se, that is effort, desire to learn, positive affect towards learning on the one hand, and the social psychological determinants such as orientations and attitudes. Research within this period pointed to the integrative nature of L2 motivation: motivation can be instrumental but the willingness to interact with other communities is always there (Gardner, 1985).

In the late 1980s and early 1990s research moved on to align motivation with cognitive theories in motivational psychology and from the study of ethnolinguistic communities to focus on FL classroom research. This entailed the addition of education research concepts such as intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, self-efficacy and attributions (Dörnyei, 1994). Intrinsic and extrinsic orientations were helpful in studying classroom motivation and pedagogical influence on internal and external self- regulation (ibid:1994). Dörnyei's (1994) framework analysed motivation at three levels: the language level (integrative and instrumental); the learner level and individual motivational characteristics; and the learning situation level, that is, the classroom as a social learning environment.

Dörnyei and Otto (1998) investigated the temporal perspective of motivation, differentiating between the motivation to engage in L2 learning, such as learners' choices, reasons and goals and the motivation when engaging in the actual learning process, that is, how the learner feels, behaves and interacts in

the learning process. Dörnyei (2000; 2003) made the distinction between pre-actional motivation (learner's choice); actional, that is the executive motivation and the post-actional motivation. These three mechanisms can enhance: the learning process, the learner's sense of self-efficacy, or positive teacher-pupil rapport. Alternatively they can thwart the learning process, by means of competition or distracting influences (Dörnyei, 2000). Studies in this phase looked at how motivation could be initiated, nurtured, or sustained (Dörnyei 2002); and secondly at the interaction between the learning situation and the individual's cognitions and behaviours (Dörnyei and Tseng, 2009). The focus on the relationship between pedagogy, classroom ethos and the interpersonal rapport between teacher and students with the learner's goals, attitudes, beliefs and self-regulatory strategies is at the heart of Gass and Mackey's IA, since they claim that learning takes place within the social context and the interplay of all of these factors has an effect on the role of noticing language and the process of language learning.

There are other areas which are linked to motivation and aptitude which are categorised under individual differences in language learning within Gass and Mackey's (2006) IA. These include educational level, literacy and oracy in L2 learning, which are relevant to the context of pupils studying in comprehensive schools. This will be further explored in the methodology chapter and in the analysis of the data. Another area is learners' anxiety and willingness to communicate. Crichton and Valdera-Gil's (2017) research into teachers' feedback moves in Scottish secondary schools which helped teenage learners 'save face' has already been discussed in the feedback section. The teacher-pupil rapport in creating a sufficiently sociable and purposeful context for learning in the classroom is very important and will be further discussed in the analysis chapters. The literature review so far has explored the PCA and the IA as the framework for observation and analysis for this study. However, none of these pedagogical principles could be enacted in the classroom without the pedagogical tools planned by teachers. Therefore, it is important to provide a succinct review of the literature regarding the exercises, activities or tasks teachers prepare to engage students in talking. The next section will explore the differences between activities and tasks based on CLT.

### 2.5.6 Exercises in the Modern Languages Classroom

Tasks, activities, and exercises have generated interest amongst SLA researchers. For some SLA researchers and many teachers the three terms are used interchangeably (Ellis,2003), for others there are clear distinctions between a task on the one hand, and activities or exercises on the other (Ellis,2003). This section will explore the main terminological differences and will determine the connotations of the words used when analysing the classroom observations in this study to avoid ambiguity.

Traditionally, exercises have been viewed as a way of consciously practising new language with a view to automatisation (Dörnyei, 2009a; Ellis, 2003; Prabhu,1987). Exercises which provide controlled practice usually take the form of drills which provide a great deal of (often de-contextualised) repetition, where accuracy is seen as more important than fluency (Richards, 2006). However, a growing number of language theorists now believe that foreign language acquisition is best achieved through 'tasks' which build on controlled practice in a 'genuinely communicative' context where communication is the key performance criterion (Ellis 2003, Dörnyei 2009a). 'Communicative views of language learning and teaching as well as a growing body of SLA research have significantly enhanced the status of 'task' as an important building block within the curriculum' (Nunan, 1993:66). Research confirms that tasks will trigger language acquisitional processes (ibid). Richards and Rodgers' (2001) definition of activities is aligned with the CA and PCA tenet of personal significance and the pupil centred nature of Curriculum for Excellence. Learning activities should be evaluated depending on the extent to which they engage learners in meaningful and authentic language use, as opposed to mechanical practice of language patterns through drills.

A main distinction regarding the shift in conceptualisation of tasks in SLA is whether they should be meaning focused or form focused. For Ellis (2003) tasks should be meaning focused, whilst focus on form exercises would be defined as activities (or exercises). Ellis recognises that both tasks and exercises have the ultimate goal of learning a language, but the means to achieve this are different (2003). Widdowson (1998) contributes to the task versus exercise conceptualisation by focusing on the linguistic skills of the learner. A task

requires learners to be language users in real-world activities, by means of comprehending, producing and interacting with each other. In an exercise, the learners' focus is to manipulate the language forms involved. It is acknowledged that during a task, at times learners will also focus on form, but that is not the main function of the task.

To sum up, for Ellis (2003) a task is a workplan. It entails a plan for learner activity. This workplan is made up of teaching materials or ad hoc plans for activities which arise in the course of learning and teaching. As mentioned above, a task mainly focuses on meaning, and involves real-world processes of language use. A task can involve any of the four language skills. For Ellis, tasks can entail input or output outcomes. Even though the main focus is meaning, form could also be practised in the context of communicative activities derived from the task. A task engages cognitive processes such as selecting, classifying, ordering, reasoning and evaluating information. This is where Ellis' task conceptualisation is closely linked with the personal significance PCA principle (Dörnyei, 2009a; 2009c). For Ellis, there needs to be a 'real' communicative outcome, there needs to be a real interactive exchange, meaning that learners are not using language for the sake of 'practising' it. Pupils will draw from their own linguistic and non-linguistic resources and knowledge of the world to complete the task. The tension between tasks having real world relevance and how to go about stimulating this in the classroom has been identified by Skehan (1998). Hedge (2000) equally describes the tension regarding how to create a gap of information or opinion which would exist between speakers in the 'real' world and which creates the unpredictability of normal discourse. Finally, a task has a clearly defined outcome. The classification of task versus activity used in this thesis is in line with Ellis' definition (2003).

As the teacher participants in this study were observed to track the development of interactive moves in the classroom to promote L2 use, notes were taken with regards to whether tasks or the more traditional activities were used. The different categorisation of tasks will be used to summarise observations and findings. These were linked with the previously discussed interplay of the interaction constructs of meaning negotiation, input, output, pushed output and feedback.

This literature review has looked so far at interaction theory, the main constructs within the IA, and elements of CLT pertinent to this study. Although communicative competence has been discussed following Hymes' ground-breaking work (1972) and most recently the CEFR and ACTFL conceptualisation of communicative competence in terms of linguistic, socio-linguistic and pragmatic competence, Dörnyei's PCA (2009a; 2009c) seems to focus explicitly on the linguistic aspects of foreign language learning. The review has presented Gass and Mackey's (2006) IA in section 2.5.4.3 which advances the position that learning a language is socially contextualised and takes individual learning differences into consideration.

As this study seeks to investigate whether SLA theory concerning interaction was consonant with the four teachers observed and secondly the teacher participants' perceptions of their development of interactive practices in their classrooms, Chapter Three reviews the literature on teacher development and conceptual development as well as teacher agency and professional space, in a context in which there seems to be a tension between performativity, wash-back effects of high stake assessments and a hierarchical education system, but which also encapsulates the conceptualisation of the teacher as an agent of change (Ball, 2003).

## Chapter Three: Teacher Conceptual Development

### 3.1 Overview

The previous chapter has discussed different interaction theories, and Gass and Mackey's IA (2006) in detail, and the links between sociocultural theory and ML learning and teaching within the CA. Both Dörnyei's PCA (2009a; 2009c) and Gass and Mackey's (2006) IA were used as frameworks for discussion of the classroom observations and organisation of findings to answer the research question **in what ways is interaction in SLA theory consonant with the ML classrooms studied in Scotland?**

This chapter is dedicated to teacher conceptual development and the literature reviewed helps the purpose of exploring the second research question: **What affordances and constraints impacted on the conceptual development of the ML pedagogy of the teachers in the study?**

Sociocultural theory conceptualises learning as participation rather than acquisition and understands that learning occurs through social interaction within the ZPD of the learner; and initial teacher education has moved in this direction since the 1960s. Hence, rather than understanding teaching as the transfer of knowledge, a sociocultural perspective views it as 'creating the conditions for the co-construction of knowledge and understanding through social participation' (Burns and Richards, 2009).

Richardson and Placier (2001) conducted a review of teacher conceptual change which is referred to in the literature as teacher development, improvement, teacher learning or teacher change. A review of the literature on teacher conceptual change is important as the participants in the study were recent NQTs, and the study explored if their initial perceptions of themselves as teachers had developed over their NQT and student-teacher years, particularly with regard to target language interaction in their classrooms.

Richardson and Placier identified two traditions of study of teacher change: firstly, from an anthropological and sociological perspective, teachers' change has been studied within the broader social, cultural and political contexts of learning. A second tradition has researched cognitive, affective and behavioural processes on individual teachers or small groups of teachers (Richardson and

Placier, 2001). The second tradition has been related to teacher education research, which explores teachers' epistemologies, and educational psychology research which has looked at belief change and decision making. Some studies, such as the CfE and Agency study (Priestley et al., 2015a; Priestley et al., 2015b), which is reviewed at a later stage in this chapter, are influenced by both approaches.

Research into the impact of initial teacher education (ITE) and teacher continuous professional development programmes has taken two approaches to teacher change: an empirical-rational perspective and a normative re-educative one (Richardson and Placier, 2001). Empirical-rational approaches to teacher change entail successful implementations of top-down mandated or recommended policies whilst the normative re-educative approach perspective is underpinned by the idea of the evolving and constant nature of teacher change as a consequence of evaluation of and reflection on classroom practice. Change within this perspective is conceptualised as naturalistic and voluntary. In Scotland, all ITE students engage with the practice of practitioner enquiry as set out by the GTCS standards of the teacher profession (GTCS,2012) with a view to stimulate evaluation and reflection.

Teachers' epistemologies, that is, knowledge and beliefs, are considered under the normative re-educative approach as filters of change but also targets for change (Borko and Putnam, 1996). Lortie (1975) coined the term 'apprenticeship of observation' as by the time individuals become teachers they will have been in classrooms as pupils from age five to maybe twenty-two years of age, so they will have accumulated through observation and engagement in learning strong knowledge and beliefs about learning and the role of the teacher in learning. Transformation of beliefs and knowledge comes under the umbrella of teacher conceptual change (Borg, 2003). The second research question in this study aimed to investigate the four teacher participants' perceptions of their conceptual change in their first years as ML teachers in order to address the current shortage of published research looking into the connections between teacher development and student learning (Grossman et al., 2005; Richardson and Placier, 2001).

Research in ML teacher cognition tends to align with the findings in general education, showing that ML teachers' pedagogical decisions and classroom practices are influenced by the interplay of cognitive and contextual factors (Borg, 1998; 2003). Borg documented that, in the area of L2 learning and teaching, teachers' decisions to include (or not) explicit grammar teaching did not align with recommendations by SLA research. Instead, those decisions were closely linked with teachers' epistemologies, knowledge regarding students' expectations, classroom management and students' intellectual and affective needs (Borg, 1998; 2003). Borg's findings are relevant for this study, as the four participants had been highlighted to me by members of the community as 'real' users of the CA, in contrast to teachers whose pedagogies were highly embedded in the audio-lingual or grammar-translation methodology. Therefore, it was interesting to observe the practices of these four teachers and to find if there were any disjuncts between what was reported and what was enacted in the classroom regarding CLT - which is often the case highlighted in the literature (Karavas-Doukas, 1996; Borg, 2006). Borg (1998; 1999) also argued that learners' L2 acquisition did not always seem to be the primary reason behind pedagogical approaches, and that, what SLA research and theory may treat as competing and mutually exclusive practices, may in fact co-exist in the classroom with the same teacher.

As mentioned above, teachers' prior knowledge based on their apprenticeship of observation (Lortie,1975) plays a fundamental role in teacher development. In addition, the context of learning during ITE plays another major role. Johnson (2009) posits that ITE programmes attempting to promote teacher change should provide student teachers with opportunities to situate theory within their own sociocultural contexts through reflection. The practice of reflection is well embedded in ITE programmes in Scotland, linking with the GTCS standards (GTCS,2012).

The following section discusses research on the impact of language teacher education programmes paying special interest to the key messages found in the literature in terms of tracing conceptual development and change. Shulman's definition of PCK (1986;1987) is reviewed. The revised Common European Framework of Reference of Languages (CEFR) (Council of Europe, 2001) and The American Council Teaching Foreign Languages (ACTFL) (ACTFL, 1996)

frameworks as well as communicative competence and Dörnyei's PCA (2009a; 2009c) should be borne in mind whilst reading these sections. Finally, Kubanyiova's work with in-service ML teachers which led to the development of her model of language teacher conceptual change (LTCC) will be reviewed, as her terminology and the key concepts used in terms of conceptual change were used as a lens to analyse the discourses of the four participants in this study.

### 3.2 Impact of Language Teacher Education Programmes

There has been a number of research studies into the cognitive development of teachers in ITE programmes, including ML teachers in PGCE programmes in England, EFL CELTA and TESOL courses (Caboroglu and Roberts, 2000; Borg, 2005; Farrell, 2009). Most of the studies have focused on the content of the ITE teachers' cognitions, but other studies such as those of Caboroglu and Roberts focused on the process of change. Crichton and Valdera-Gil (2015) also researched how the process of reflection helped 25 PGDE ML students to bridge the gap between the CA as theorised at university and enacted during teacher placements. Although student teachers had internalised certain reflective processes, they did not 'tag' them as such. Revisiting the theory and having conversations with their peers helped them to understand their practice when in situations of apparent disjunct between CLT theory and practice. Caboroglu and Roberts (2000) created a scale of belief shifts which they tried to apply to their PGCE students. The students' beliefs were categorised as: awareness, consolidation, elaboration, addition, reordering, re-labelling, disagreement, reversal, pseudo-change, no change. They concluded that belief and knowledge shifts were linked to the early confrontation of students' epistemologies and the self-regulated opportunities of learning in their ITE programme.

A methodological issue of teacher change in ITE programmes is linked with the duality of the researcher also being the evaluator of the student teacher. Borg (2006) stresses the fact that a change in behaviour does not equate to a change in cognition and beliefs of trainee teachers, especially given the fact of the double role of the researcher conducting the student teacher assessment. This is one of the reasons for beginning this study once the four participants were fully registered as ML teachers. As beginning teachers they might have felt some

pressure to teach according to the established pedagogy at micro-departmental level. This issue did not disappear completely in this study, and my influence in the study will be further explored in the methodology chapter, however, the four participants at the time of the study had full time permanent jobs and were not in a situation in which I was formally assessing them on their teaching practice - as they were considered as competent experienced teachers (Berliner,2001). A second reason for taking the decision to study teachers who had already been teaching for two years (ITE year and NQT year) is linked to research which points to ITE impact being noticeable only after two or three years of teaching practice. Richards and Pennington's (1998) study into CLT and teacher change concluded that in their first year of teaching, teachers were still in a transitional period and their priorities were more closely linked to establishing themselves as teachers, and having management control of the classroom than developing a pedagogy which reflected the theory they had studied as student teachers. Watzke (2007) followed teachers in the first three years of their careers. His study showed that once students had addressed their concerns related to classroom management and instructional content, their pedagogy started to mirror communicative teaching as advocated in ITE. Shulman (1986; 1987) created a framework which classified Teacher Knowledge, which is relevant to understanding teacher development. The next section reviews Shulman's Major Categories of Teacher Knowledge (1987) which was used to explain Watzke's (2007) findings, showing the importance of a transitional period for early career teachers.

### 3.3 Shulman's Major Categories of Teacher Knowledge

Shulman's (1987) Major Categories of Teacher Knowledge have been instrumental in understanding the different facets of knowledge, skills, and pedagogical expertise teachers need to develop in the classroom. Shulman defined Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK) as:

> *The most regularly taught topics in one's subject area, the most useful forms of representations of those ideas, the most powerful analogies, illustrations, examples, explanations, and demonstrations - in a word, ways of representing and formulating the subject that makes it comprehensible to others. Pedagogical content knowledge also includes*

> *an understanding of what makes the learning of specific topics easy or difficult; the conceptions and preconceptions that students of different ages and backgrounds bring with them to the learning of those most frequently taught topics and lessons (Shulman, 1986:9-10)*

Grossman et al. (2005) pointed out that the ideas behind PCK stem from Dewey's need to psychologise subject matter (Dewey, 1902) in order to connect disciplinary knowledge to learners' experience. PCK has been the focus of research to develop practice-based theory on content knowledge for teaching, particularly in the areas of maths and science (Ball et al., 2008), and technologies (Jones and Moreland, 2004). Section 3.4 reviews recent research conducted on ML conceptual change, although the author, Kubanyiova (2012) does not refer to the terms PCK herself.

The following table from Shulman's original work (1987) provides an overview of certain traits of teacher development which are generic such as (1) general pedagogical knowledge, which includes classroom management. For Shulman, the categories transcended subject matter. Although this table is not organised in a sequential order, it seems that Shulman believed that category one is crucial for teacher development and their transitional period during their early career. The discussion chapters will question whether a clear distinction can be traced between these seven pockets of knowledge or whether they all interlink with each other.

**Table 3.7: Shulman's Major Categories of Teacher Knowledge (1987:8)**

| | |
|---|---|
| 1 | General pedagogical knowledge, with special reference to broad principles and strategies of classroom management and organisation which seem to transcend subject matter |
| 2 | Knowledge of learners and their characteristics |
| 3 | Knowledge of educational contexts, ranging from workings of the group/ classroom, the governance of schools, financing of school districts, knowledge of the community(ies) and their cultures |
| 4 | Knowledge of educational ends, purposes, values, philosophical and historical grounds |
| 5 | Content knowledge |
| 6 | Curriculum Knowledge, with particular grasp of the materials and programs which serve as 'tools of the trade' for teachers |
| 7 | Pedagogical content knowledge, which is the special amalgam of content and pedagogy which is uniquely the province of teachers, their own special form of professional understanding |

These seven categories mirror the three areas of the GTCS standards (appendix 2) : 1) Professional Values and Personal Commitment ( Social Justice; Integrity; Trust and Respect; Professional Commitment); 2) Professional Knowledge and Understanding ( Curriculum; Education Systems and Professional Responsibilities; Pedagogical Theories and Practice); 3) Professional Skills and Abilities (Teaching and Learning; Classroom Organisation and Management; Pupil Assessment; Professional Reflection and Communication). Although the GTCS standards (2012) seemed to adopt Shulman's conceptualisation placing some kinds of knowledge such as professional values and personal commitment outwith the distinctive PCK of the different subjects, the National Framework for Languages Scotland (NFfL) (2018) took a different approach. The NFfL (appendix 12), is equally aligned with the GTCS Standards, however, PCK does not apply solely to categories 2 and 3 (Professional Knowledge and Understanding; Professional Skills and Abilities). In contrast, the NFfL defends the position that teachers' and education stakeholders' understanding of plurilingualism, diversity, policy and legislation and transformative practices, which all underpin ML learning and teaching, cut across the three areas of the GTCS Standards, including Professional Values and Personal Commitment. In this sense, it seems that the boundaries of Shulman's Categories of Teacher Knowledge are blurred as concepts such as social justice, which could be placed in Shulman's

categorisation (1987) in the sections 3 or 4, are linked in the NFfL with plurilingualism pedagogical practices, which in Shulman's categorisation would appear under section 7.

The CEFR and ACTFL policy frameworks discussed in sections 2.4.5 and 2.4.6 would appear to encapsulate ML PCK in the twenty-first century. Both view language learning as communication, and in the case of Europe, the CEFR is also committed to plurilingualism.

The next section will explore Kubanyiova's Language Teacher Conceptual Change Framework (LTCC). She evaluated the impact of a CLT course with eight practising teachers. The review of Kubanyiova's LTCC will also include theories of learning and change in psychology, relevant to teacher conceptual change.

### 3.4 Kubanyiova's Language Teacher Conceptual Change (LTCC) Framework

Kubanyiova developed a theoretical model of language teacher conceptual change (LTCC) following research conducted with Masters students on a TESOL course she taught. This research was the basis of her PhD thesis, and, as Kubanyiova herself acknowledged, the aims of her course were not realised as it did not lead to any substantial pedagogical conceptual development nor change amongst the participants - at least as far as she was able to measure within her study. Kubanyiova followed eight teachers who had taken part in the course and observed them teaching in a longitudinal research study. She concluded that they did not manage to convert the theoretical aims of the course into any pedagogical changes, which would had been the outcome anticipated by the researcher. The findings instead showed that the university course, and subsequent CPD (continuing professional development) course which Kubanyiova led, despite having the fundamental aim of developing the participating teachers' conceptualisation regarding teaching using a CA, did not achieve any of its aims. Kubanyiova's work, *Teacher Development in Action, Understanding Language Teachers' Conceptual Change* (2012) is, as described by the author herself, the story of failure, due to the fact that the participants did not show any re-conceptualisation of their thinking nor attitudes, and therefore, there was no substantial difference when closely observing their classroom practices

regarding learning and teaching within the CA. Kubanyiova's integrated language teacher conceptual change (LTCC) framework was her way of encapsulating the different processes behind teacher change, those which yield change and trying to understand those which do not. Kubanyiova's LTCC is underpinned by theoretical frameworks relating to attitude change, conceptual change and possible-self theory. Kubanyiova based her framework on Gregoire's (2003) Cognitive-Affective Model of Conceptual Change (CAMCC). Gregoire's model is theoretical and Kubanyiova's LTCC is the result of empirical action research with ML teachers.

### 3.4.1 LTCC Overview

Kubanyiova (2012) argued that it may no longer be satisfactory to describe what language teachers think, know and believe. Instead, she advocates the need to engage with more complex questions of the purposes and social relevance of our activity, which in turn, will influence the directions 'we' decide to pursue (2012:29). In light of post-modern theories, social constructivism, and Gass and Mackey's (2006) IA, Kubanyiova's LTCC seeks to explore the complex relationships between a number of factors which underpin the process of teacher conceptual change.

Kubanyiova's LTCC aimed to incorporate theory from five domains researching learning and change: language teacher cognition; social cognitive perspective of learning; dual-process theories of attitude change; conceptual change models and possible-self theory (Kubanyiova, 2012:30-53). According to Kubanyiova, there are four key features of LTCC:

1)Defining teacher education impact: intentional conceptual change;

2)Deep-level cognitive engagement as a mediator of intentional conceptual change;

3)Affective and motivational factors as an inherent part of language teachers' cognitive development;

4) Possible Language Teacher Selves: a central cognition in teachers' intentional conceptual change (Kubanyiova, 2012:56-58). These dimensions will be looked at

in turn, as they fed into the process of my creation of an Early Career ML Development Framework for this study.

**In the LTCC impact is defined as intentional conceptual change**, meaning 'goal-directed and conscious initiation and regulation of cognitive, metacognitive and motivational processes to bring about a change in knowledge' (Sinatra and Pintrich, 2003:6, in Kubanyiova, 2012:56). Regarding conceptual change, Kubanyiova is not only referring to knowledge, but also to attitudes and beliefs. Kubanyiova posits that the word intentional does not equate to a top-down rational-empirical approach to teacher change, and instead emphasises the depth of engagement with the teacher education input which could lead to transformative impact. The other clarification she makes is that as much of teacher's learning is intuitive, tacit and incidental rather than conscious and intentional, this intentional perspective might appear to undermine intuitive learning, however, she argues it complements it.

**Regarding deep-level cognitive engagement**, this learning approach in teacher development is linked to reflective practice. Kubanyiova used Jay and Johnson's reflective framework (2002): 'identifying a problem at a descriptive level; comparing alternative ways of approaching it and making a judgement for a solution on the basis of a critical assessment of wider implications of alternative proposals' (in Kubanyiova, 2012:58). In Scotland, the four participants of this study had been expected to write a formal evaluation of every lesson taught during ITE, and also shared weekly reflections with supervising teachers. During their ITE and NQT years there was a strong emphasis on reflection on practice.

According to Kubanyiova, in language teacher change, **motivational factors** such as identity goals and self-efficacy beliefs are very important. The LTCC equally looks into the role that positive and negative emotional appraisals play in teachers' cognitive development.

An innovative aspect of Kubanyiova's LTCC was the incorporation of teachers' future goals and fears into the analysis of what teachers think, know and believe, that is, their evolving epistemologies. To do this, feeding from the framework of possible-self theory, the LTCC explores teachers' cognition in terms of their ideal teacher self, their ought-to teacher self and their feared selves, based on Dörnyei's (2009b) conceptualisation. **The Ideal Language**

**Teacher-Self** is formed by future images of identity goals and aspirations. The assumption is that teachers are motivated to overcome any pedagogical dissonances to reach their ideal teacher self. The Ought to Language Teacher Self is the teacher's representation of his responsibilities and obligations at work. There is a subtle but important difference between the ideal teacher self and the ought to teacher self, although, at face value, it might be difficult to disentangle. If a teacher does not do what she has to do as part of her teaching responsibilities and obligations, the Feared Language Teacher Self would surface. The teachers' motivations and epistemologies were very important in Kubanyiova's study, to explain the reasons behind what the teachers did. The Ideal Language Teacher-Self concept was used in this study for the creation of the Early Career ML Development Framework which will be discussed in depth in the methodology chapter.

As advanced in the previous section on Shulman's categories of teacher knowledge (1987) work in PCK has been conducted mainly in the STEM area. Ball et al. (2008:403) made the distinction between subject matter knowledge and PCK. Subject matter knowledge included common content knowledge; horizon knowledge, that is, the awareness of how mathematical topics are related over the span of maths included in the curriculum and specialised content knowledge. On the other hand, PCK included the knowledge of content and students; knowledge of content and teaching; knowledge of content and curriculum. These findings could be applied to ML but ML PCK is intrinsically connected with certain interactive practices which involve target language use as reviewed in the IA (Gass and Mackey, 2006). The next section starts with a visual representation of Kubanyiova's LTCC and an explanation of the different sections and processes.

### 3.4.2 LTCC in detail

This is an overview of Kubanyiova's Language Teacher Conceptual Change (LTCC).

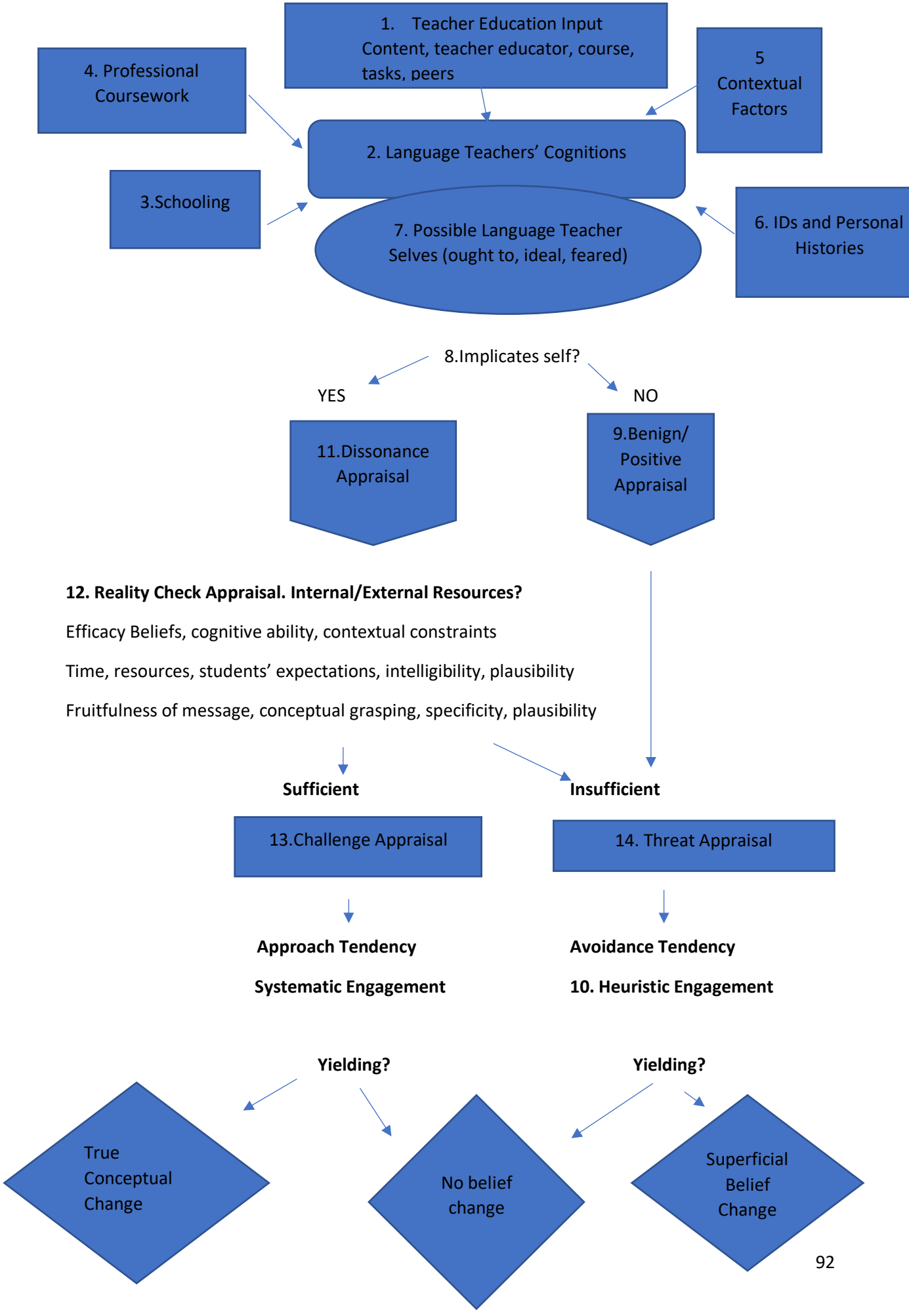
The first point Kubanyiova makes is that teachers' development is not linear, and therefore, her visual representation should not be considered as one-directional.

However, they have been numbered for the flow of the explanation which follows.

At the top of the graph one can see (1) the teacher education input, which includes the content (message) and variables such as the teacher educator, the tasks, peers and the course.

When teachers or teachers to be are presented with a message (input), for example, regarding CLT as the preferred model for teaching languages, teachers will filter the content through their cognitions (2): that is their epistemologies, for example, what a teacher knows, believes, hopes, feels, thinks as a result of many variables, such as the teacher's own apprenticeship of observation (Lortie, 1975) or schooling (3), professional coursework (4), contextual factors (5) and individual differences and personal histories (6).

**Figure 3.8: LTCC (Kubanyiova, 2012:60)**



Central to the LTCC is the idea that the teachers' possible selves (7) (ideal; ought-to or feared) are intertwined with the language teachers' cognitions (2). However, these three possible selves (Dörnyei, 2009b) might not be available to teachers at all times.

When presented with a new message/content, the teacher might implicate himself (8) with the message in a more intentional and conscientious manner if the teacher ideal-self (Dörnyei, 2009b; Kubanyiova, 2012) is implicated with the message. This is likely to happen if the message matches the teachers' available, accessible and central possible self and if the message makes the teacher think about the perceived actual teacher self and the ideal or ought-to teacher self, that is, the teacher might have to suffer some sort of cognitive dissonance in his epistemology (knowledge, beliefs, attitudes, hopes, feelings) between what she can do in pedagogical terms and what she would aspire to do. It is therefore the discrepancy between the actual and ideal or ought to teacher self which triggers conceptual change.

Some teachers might not suffer any dissonance, for example, they feel they are already doing what the message is asking them to engage with, or their possible teacher-self does not align with the teacher education input. These teachers will appraise the content of the message in a positive way or in a neutral way (9), referred to as benign in the chart. The LTCC argues that positive or neutral engagement with the message will lead to heuristic processing (10) as the teacher has no motivation to engage with the message.

However, dissonance (11) does not lead to automatic conceptual change. For it to begin, teachers have to perceive internal and external resources sufficient to engage with the change: teachers need to identify self-regulatory strategies to evaluate the message and set themselves specific goals for implementation. The LTCC classify these under the term Reality Check Appraisal (12). Factors include personal and collective efficacy beliefs and factors such as perceived control, actual cognitive ability, subject-matter knowledge and language proficiency, educational context and collective practice, supportive colleagues, learners' expectations, resources and time. If the teacher has a clear understanding of the implications of the message for his possible teacher self (activated by the message/ content), and has enough tools to design and implement a plan, which

will help him achieve his ideal teacher self, he is likely to engage with the message. LTCC posits that teachers with strong self-efficacy who perceive themselves as able to control external factors, and who have the necessary skills (cognition, knowledge) will appraise the situation as challenging (13) and will engage.

As the chart shows, some teachers might not have enough resources at the Reality Check Appraisal Stage (12) and might therefore not engage with the message. The LTCC argues that the threat appraisal (14) is underpinned by the teacher's vision of his feared self, which, in turn, can trigger avoidance goals. For example, teachers might argue that they cannot use the target language in the ML class due to discipline issues. Yowell (2002, in Kubanyiova, 2012:63) argued in the context of Latino youth schooled in the USA that the absence of specific and achievable ideal selves in a context of well-defined feared selves, could lead to the adoption of maladaptive patterns and avoidance strategies, and Kubanyiova applied these conclusions to teacher development.

As mentioned above, the LTCC advocates a dynamic and cyclical nature of teacher conceptual change, as shown by the arrow from accommodation of message (14) back to possible language teacher selves.

One of the drawbacks in Kubanyiova's LTCC is that the word agency is not mentioned. Nevertheless, as will be discussed in the following section, there are many links between Biesta et al.'s (2015) model for Teacher Agency and Kubanyiova's LTCC (2012). In this study the LTCC cannot be applied to the four teacher participants in the same way as in Kubanyiova's study. She was the tutor teaching on the Master's course on CLT to a group of ML teachers, so she was able to discern the extent to which the teacher participants had engaged with the intended CLT transformative message. In this study all four teacher participants potentially had different 'messages' in the field of CLT, target language use and classroom interaction pedagogy from a variety of sources. Kubanyiova argued that the model was empirically tested although none of the teachers showed conceptual change, but conversely it could be argued that her model failed to capture conceptual change. However, such a lengthy part of the literature review has been dedicated to the LTCC, as this study and Priestley et al. (2015a;2015b) have provided the basis for the creation of an Early Career ML

Development Framework, which will be discussed in the methodology section. The framework designed for this thesis places agency and professional space throughout the process of development. The next section will look at Priestley et al.'s study on teacher agency in developing CfE (2010) and Biesta et al.'s, agency framework (2015).

## 3.5 Agency in Education

### 3.5.1 Introduction: Teachers' Professional Space and Teacher Agency

The concept of professional space is linked to the 'amount of say' teachers have in the organisation of their own teaching practice and pedagogy (Kostogriz and Peeler, 2007). Teachers are asked to conform to a set of regulations such as school rules, local and national policies. These aspects of teachers' professional contexts are often depicted as objective and play a role in teachers' autonomy and their practice (Baumfield et al., 2010; Imants, Wubbels and Vermunt, 2013). However, as Imants et al. (2013) argue, the teachers' perceptions of space can be more influential than the actual objective factors. These perceptions mediate the effects of those regulations and policies. Ellström et al. (2007:86) posit that whether certain situations were seen by teachers as enabling or constraining was dependent on the ways in which teachers evaluated and dealt with them, not only based on objective characteristics. The concept of teacher agency departs from the understanding that teachers do not simply repeat given practices as set in school rules, local and national policies. Instead, teachers are reflective and autonomous professionals, and 'exhibit capacity for autonomous actions, a process through which they intentionally transform and refine their worlds and thereby take control of their lives' (Oolbekkink-Marchand et al., 2017:38). Agency is thus defined as the capacity teachers have to initiate purposeful action which implies autonomy, freedom and choice (Biesta and Tedder, 2007; Emirbayer and Mische, 1998; Priestley et al., 2015a). Agency is at the forefront of educational debate since in order to increase attainment educational leaders are advocating standardisation of educational practices which is perceived to reduce teachers' autonomy and increase derision of the profession (Ball, 2009).

CfE policies place a vital importance on teachers as agents of change and curriculum enactment. The four participants in this study, having finished their ITE and NQT years, and having obtained full registration as qualified teachers, would be expected to act as agents of change in the enactment of the curriculum. Hence, it is important at this point to turn to research, theory and policy to see what is reported in the literature about teacher agency, given the links between teacher agency and teacher development. The next section will look at teacher agency from a psycho-biological perspective, through research conducted in Scotland by Priestley, Biesta and Robinson in 2010/11 on Scottish teachers' agency in the implementation of CfE. Finally, the third part of this section, will look at the literature concerning individual personality traits of teachers from a more psycho-social perspective by discussing a recent study on the development of early career languages teachers. In order to better understand the different aspects of teacher agency, firstly personality traits will be discussed in order to map out the factors underpinning conceptual teacher change from a psycho-social perspective, so that they can be used to gauge the epistemologies of teachers who took part in this study regarding the interactivist paradigm within CLT.

The following sections will report first on a research study conducted in Scotland into teacher agency in the context of the implementation of CfE. This study is reviewed due to the similarities in terms of context, the Scottish education system, and teacher change. Throughout this section and those following, reference will be made to policies in Scotland such as CfE, the GTCS standards for registration and the Donaldson Report into Teacher Education (2011) to see how agency is framed within policy.

### 3.5.2 Teacher Agency and Curriculum for Excellence

In *Teacher Agency: An Ecological Approach* (2015a) Priestley, Biesta and Robinson reported on a fifteen month study starting in school year 2010-11 working in collaboration with teachers from one primary school and two secondary schools in one Local Authority (LA) in Scotland which was engaged in the preparation of CfE. Priestly et al., (2015a) found that the reconceptualisation of the role of the teacher as *agent of change and active*

*developer of the curriculum in their own schools* (2015a: 127) was very problematic, as it involved a cultural shift from years of policies that had strictly regulated the work of teachers and had subsequently eroded their autonomy. They argued that educational policies had led to the derision of the teaching force in terms of input regulation, that is, prescriptive curricula and pedagogies, for example in the previous 5-14 curriculum. It could be argued that derision equally comes about by output regulation, which is linked with the neoliberal commodification of the education system carried forward by accountability systems, such as the use of SQA attainment data to judge the performance of schools and individual teachers. The effects of external accountability in curriculum and pedagogy are widely reported in the literature (Biesta, 2010; Lingard and Sellar, 2013; Sharon et al., 2006, Wyse et al., 2016). This is important to this study as all four teachers were presenting learners to high stakes exams.

Priestley et al.'s study questioned the structures for enacting CfE policy, as, according to them, although the policy raised the expectations that teachers would be expected to use their agency in order to enact the curriculum, teachers cannot become 'agentic when in their practical contexts they are unable to do so' (Priestley et al., 2015a: 127). For teaches to become agentic, the cultural and structural conditions which effectively allow, limit or deny that agency have to be addressed within the system and their study flagged up that they were not.

Priestley et al. (2015a; 2015b) took an ecological approach in their study on teacher agency. They conceptualised the development of teacher agency in its context, rather than as a trait one teacher has or has not. They viewed agency as a professional trait which teachers can (or cannot) develop to different extents during their careers and at different levels (own classroom/ department/ school/ LA) according to the circumstances and contexts which surround them in their professional environment at the macro, meso and micro levels of curriculum and policy enactment. These three levels will be further explored shortly, as well as the cultural and structural conditions that Priestley et al. (2015a) describe.

### 3.5.3. Agency in the 'Teacher Agency and Curriculum Change' Project

Priestley, Biesta and Robinson were interested in gauging how teachers responded to curriculum change when implementing CfE and the extent of the development of their agency. They conceptualised agency from an ecological perspective: firstly, agency is perceived as a capacity for people (teachers in this case) to achieve or do, 'rather than something that people possess' (Biesta and Tedder, 2006 in Priestley et al., 2015a:130). Secondly, agency depends on the conditions which enable actors to act in different situations, and on their own personal qualities as distinct individuals: 'achievement of agency will always result from the interplay of individual efforts, available resources and contextual and structural factors as they come together' (Biesta and Tedder, 2007:137). Thirdly, agency is 'temporal' and 'relational'. It is informed by the past, future oriented and acted out in the present (Emirbayer and Mische, 1998). According to Emirbayer and Mische, this shows the tri-dimensional aspects of agency:

- the iterational (past, habit): this is formed by personal and professional skills and knowledge, attitudes, values, beliefs and teacher's habits. Different teachers will have the ability to respond in different ways to problems and opportunities, and also to centralised, bottom-up, or top-down approaches in different ways. This links with Kubanyiova's LTCC framework (2016) in terms of teachers' epistemologies (IDs and Personal History)

- the projective (future, imagination): teachers will respond differently according to the ability to visualise different future alternatives, which could be shaped by short-medium-long term aspirations. This links with Dörnyei's possible teacher-selves theory (2009b) which influenced Kubanyiova's LTCC (2016)

- the practical-evaluative (present judgment): this refers to day-to-day situations. The extent of teacher's agency will be affected by social, cultural, structural factors but also by practical considerations and by evaluations of possible risks to themselves derived from their acts. Kubanyiova (2016) refers to these as contextual factors.

**Figure 3.9: A model for Understanding and Achievement of Agency (Biesta et al., 2015a: 627)**

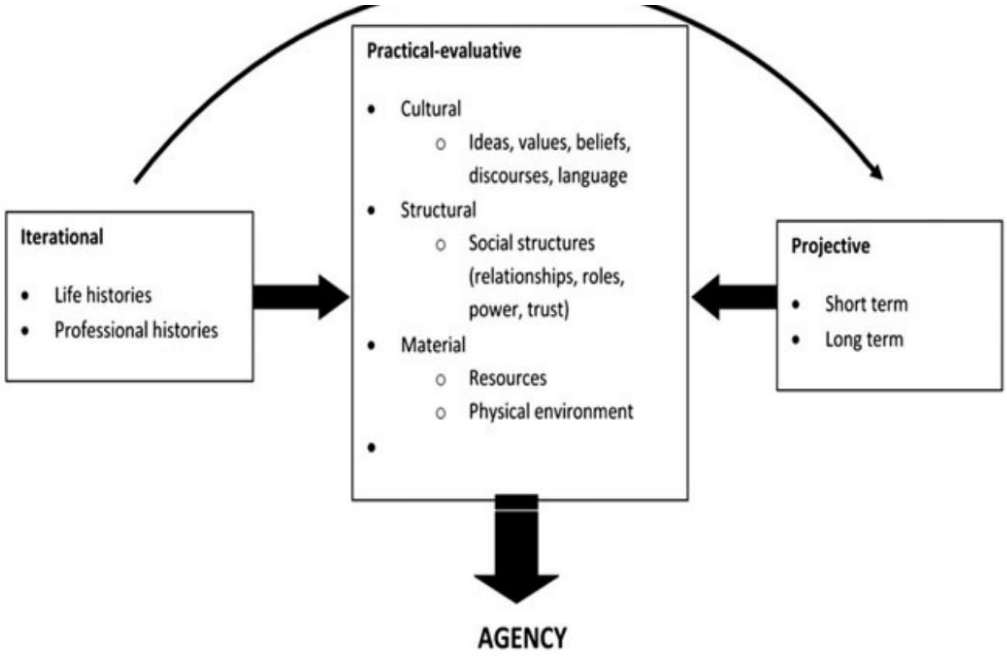



Figure 1. A model for understanding the achievement of agency.

The three dimensions of agency were used as part of the Early Career ML Development Framework created for the analysis of the perceptions of development for the four teacher participants in this study. This framework was used to analyse the second research question of this study: What affordances and constraints impacted on the conceptual development of the ML pedagogy of the teachers in the study?

### 3.5.4 Findings from the Teacher Agency and Curriculum Change Project

Biesta et al.'s (2015) study looked at cultural and structural features which influence agency as well as the capacity of the teachers itself. There were issues linked to teachers, such as teachers' beliefs, their use of language to look deeper into their discourse and their beliefs, and the social networks which contributed to their shaping of agency. The study then looked at the influence of external pressures on agency, such as accountability and performativity.

Priestley et al.(2015a) differentiated between beliefs and aspirations. The findings of the study organised beliefs into three types: beliefs about pupils,

beliefs about the role of a teacher, and finally beliefs about the purposes of education. The findings reported 'skilled, motivated and conscientious teachers' (2015a:132) but noted that teachers had 'deficit views' of their pupils. Although they appeared to welcome CfE and its policy discourse narrative, they also seemed reluctant to take the initiative in curriculum development. Thirdly, they seemed to have a short and instrumental view of the purposes of education. The researchers noted that 'the nature of these teachers' beliefs and the narrow scope of their professional aspirations limited their possibilities for agency' (ibid 132). When conducting interviews with the participants of this present study, I aimed to elucidate the four participants' epistemologies, whether they felt that they had agency to enact their vision of what kind of teacher they wanted to be.

Regarding networks, Biesta et al.'s study found very different rapport within school structures. In one secondary school there seemed to be high teacher agency; meanwhile, in a similar neighbouring school the corresponding faculty showed confusion and a lack of confidence. It was suggested that the difference could be explained by the nature of professional relationships within the schools. The school showing high levels of teacher agency was characterised by vertical and horizontal lines of communication and cross-faculty working. Relationships were deemed trustworthy, reciprocal and of comparative symmetry and longevity. However, in the other secondary school interactions tended to be top-down, a one way flow of information and power. It was concluded that teacher networks can provide teachers with access to support, ideas and act as protection when undertaking innovation. Staff interactions within a school lose their value *if* 'they are simply used to push through predefined and restrictive change agendas, if the collegiality is contrived (Hargreaves 1993) or if they foster groupthink' (Priestley et al., 2015a: 135). The study found that a key issue in enabling agency in teachers was the establishment of structures and cultures which were favourable to collegial professional working. It was noted that school cultures and structures often militate against such agentic activity:

> *in Scotland, and arguably more widely, schools are hierarchical organisations nested in a hierarchical system, where dissenting voices are not generally welcomed. Many schools, particularly in the secondary sector, are fragmented organisations, with professionals organised into silos, differentiated by school subject* (Sitkin 1994)

Priestley, Biesta and Robinson argued that attention cannot only be given to teachers' individual capacities, but also to the wider context in which their capacities interplay and that structures and cultures need to change. My study aimed to probe the extent to which schools or ML departments structures and cultures influenced the participants' perceived sense of agency.

According to Priestley et al. in Scotland, *The Donaldson Report - a Review of Teacher Education in Scotland* (2010) and *The McCormack Report - a Review of Teacher Employment* (2011) did not go into enough detail in unpacking the importance of agency to the development of teacher professionalism. Whilst Donaldson (2011) recognised the importance of the balance between accountability and autonomy, and advocated for new leadership, mentoring and partnership models to facilitate good quality teaching, it was felt that the main focus remained on the quality of individual teachers and that it did not offer an insight into the conditions which frame the contexts in which teachers work. However, as Priestley et al. stress in their findings, individual capacity is only one facet of teacher agency, and insufficient on its own for the achievement of agency (ibid 140). The next section moves on to discuss the recommendations on how to foster teacher agency emerging from their research study.

### 3.5.5 Recommendations emerging from the Teacher Agency and Curriculum Change Project

Priestley et al. (2015a) argued that major education policies in many countries only intervene at the education system levels: they tend to change the ways systems are monitored, measured and managed. In such systems, teachers do not seem to matter as much as the systems themselves. However, they argue that the creation of the conditions which foster greater teacher agency have the potential of making systems more intelligent: 'unintelligent systems which have been put in place to control education only work because of the intelligence of the teachers who have to implement them' (Priestley, 2015a:149). Priestley et al. did not argue for complete teacher autonomy, characterised by a total lack of regulation, as they also acknowledge that unrestricted agency can have the potential effect of creating damage in educational outcomes. This thin line between 'the right sort of regulation' (ibid 2015a:151) and an ecological

understanding of agency is explored in the findings and analysis chapter in the context of initial teacher education. The participants in my study explored their own beliefs and perceptions of their agentic contexts whilst taking part in the study as permanent fully qualified and registered ML teachers. However, they were asked to think back to their starting point as novice student teachers, drawing on their experiences and also those in their first year of teaching.

What seems to emerge from the Teacher Agency and Curriculum Development research study is that the teachers who took part used their agency to different degrees in a pupil centred approach, although one of the main principles of CfE of putting teachers at the forefront of curriculum development may still be considered somewhat problematic:

> *We could say that it is precisely because there is still so much good teacher agency in the system, …, that attempts to control the system from the top-down have not yet resulted in a total meltdown of education. Many teachers have become very skilful in 'managing the managerialism' so to speak (see particularly Gewitz, 2002), always for the benefit of the children and young people entrusted to them* (ibid, 2015a: 149)

Moving from CfE to the more specific context of the CA of in ML teaching, there also seems to be a disjunction between theory/policy and the enactment of policy in practice, in terms of teacher agency. Paradoxically, both processes are interdependent, and that interlinked relationship between the development of communicative practices in the ML classroom and the development of agentic practices by early career teachers will be discussed in the findings and analysis Chapters Five and Six.

Chapters Two and Three have provided a literature review outlining important SLA and ML teacher development research trends, especially in the field of CLT and Interaction, providing two frameworks, those of Dörnyei's (2009a) PCA and Gass and Mackey's IA (2006). Secondly, the literature review has assessed the strengths and weaknesses of existing research, namely the over-reliance on laboratory studies and lack of classroom research (Ortega,2005; Muñoz,2006) thus identifying a potential gap in knowledge that is intrinsically linked to the first research question: **In what ways is interaction in SLA theory consonant with the ML classrooms studied in Scotland?** The policy context in terms of ML pedagogy has been situated globally with the CEFR and ACTFL as well as within

CfE in Scotland. In Chapter Three, by reviewing Kubanyiova's LTCC (2012) and Priestley et al.'s (2015a; 2015b) ecological agency, to delve into teacher development research trends, I have created the theoretical basis for my Early Career ML Development Framework to explore the research question: **What affordances and constraints impacted on the conceptual development of the ML pedagogy of the teachers in the study?** My own framework will be discussed as part of the methodology chapter, which follows.

## Chapter Four: Research Methodology

### 4.1 Introduction

This study seeks to explore how Second Language Acquisition (SLA) theory, and more concretely that of the Interaction Approach (IA), (Gass and Mackey, 2006) is reflected in ML classroom pedagogy in comprehensive schools in Scotland. Secondly, it investigates the practice and perceptions of four *early career Modern Languages secondary teachers* (ECMLST) in terms of their pedagogical development in the classroom, from their first exposure to the classroom as student teachers to their current qualified status, focusing in particular on interaction with the learners in the target language.

This chapter offers a rationale for my ontological and epistemological positions and the methodology and methods chosen to collect and interpret the data in this exploratory one-year longitudinal study. First, the methodology used in the study is presented followed by a theoretical justification of the methods utilised in the research. Given the nature of the research into the perceptions of development of four teachers in the field of interaction in the ML, the ontological position of this study is one that views the social world as something that people are in the process of constructing, as opposed to a world regarded as external to social factors (Bryman, 2016). The study followed a constructivist paradigm, which considers that knowledge is constructed rather than there to be discovered. Meanings are socially constructed by people as they engage with the world (Crotty, 1998:43). This chapter introduces the teacher participants working in a post-method period (Kumaravadivelu,2006) and describes the research process and data collection methods, explaining analytical procedures as well as ethical considerations. Definitions of the terms used in the analysis regarding interaction in the target language and teacher conceptual development will be offered. Questions of validity and reliability of methods and findings will be considered.

## 4.2 Ontology, Epistemology and Methodology: Rationale and Research Questions

In the review of the literature it was highlighted that most of the studies available in the area of interaction are not of adolescents in classrooms. Ortega (2005) and Muñoz (2009) have both raised the same issue which Nunan highlighted with secondary learners (1991) in the context of early foreign language learning in classrooms versus immersion contexts. In the same sense, in this study, the pupils partaking in the ML lessons have different cognitive development, literacy, knowledge of the world, motivation, age, and schooling circumstances from most of the research data on interaction available. Many of these adolescents might not have had the choice over whether to learn the language, and the majority have not lived or are living in a country in which the language they are studying in the classroom is spoken. In this study the learners are, in the main, learning a ML in a mainly monolingual, English speaking environment, with very limited or no access to the language outside the classroom or peers of equal age who speak the language they are studying. In other words, most of the interaction in the ML studied only took place in the classroom, for two or three hours a week.

Taking Ortega's (2005) epistemological and methodological issues into account, this study approached the question of whether SLA theory regarding interaction in language learning in a ML classroom with 30 adolescents and a teacher was reflected in the classroom(s), taking the observations, the teachers' voices and perceptions of experience as a source of knowledge as valid as SLA theory in the field of interaction, given that many of those conclusions are based in laboratory studies, or studies about the classroom, not conducted in the classroom. As reviewed earlier, since the ground breaking theories of classroom interaction of Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) of IRE (Initiation/ Response/Evaluation) and feedback, there seems to be a gap in classroom research as most studies, (as revealed by the meta-analyses reviewed), apart from Crichton's (2013) seemed to take place in laboratory settings with university students or in immersion classroom contexts. This study, therefore, contributes to knowledge by studying empirically the groups of people about whom SLA research is trying to theorise.

To continue discussing this study's ontological perspective, that is, what the nature of reality consists of, what entities operate within reality and how they relate to each other (Bryman, 2016), in this thesis meanings have been socially constructed as the teachers engaged with their pupils, with theory, with their colleagues and with me. Unlike an objectivist ontological view which seeks 'new' findings (Crotty, 1998) which will always stand the same regardless of the social actors, constructivism posits that 'social phenomena and their meanings are continually being accomplished by their social actors and are in a constant state of revision' (Bryman, 2016:29). This ontological view of the nature of reality underpins the perspective on the nature of learning in the ML classroom through interaction in the target language and on the perceptions of development of the teachers who took part in this study. A year after this study took place, the relevance of the exploration lies in the process by which the teacher participants got to that particular point of their development, and what helped them to get there. However, they might not be able to recognise themselves in the pedagogies described in this study as their practice will continue to evolve and this reflects the nature of long-life learning.

### 4.2.1 Research Questions

The first research question is linked to the nature of reality and to what counts as knowledge of the 'real' world **, in what ways is interaction in SLA theory consonant with the ML classrooms studied in Scotland?**

To try to shed some light onto this research question, classroom observations of four teachers over a period of one year were conducted. In a positivist epistemology knowledge is truth defined by testable hypotheses and the researcher is an objective observer. For positivists, results are reliable in the sense that the same results would occur in similar conditions. This study was situated within an interpretivist epistemology, understanding that knowledge was constructed as part of a social process and consisted of multiple perspectives, hence the combination of observation and teacher interpretation of their own lessons through informal conversations throughout and semi-structured interviews at the end of the study was vital.

In an interpretivist epistemology such as in this study, I could not separate myself from the socially constructed situation and the evolving understandings of the phenomenon explored (Bryman, 2016).

This research employed a qualitative methodology as it focused on the interaction taking place in the ECMLSTs' classrooms and their perceptions of development in an area of their pedagogy, that is, interaction in the ML classroom. Mackey and Gass (2005) provide characteristics associated with qualitative research such as the provision of 'careful and detailed descriptions as opposed to the quantification of data through measurements' (p.162). This dissertation was interested in studying early career modern language teachers in years 1 + 2 after their NQT, in their natural settings, seeking to present 'a holistic picture of the phenomena being studied' (p. 163). Due to the nature of the IA, and the interplay of many factors within the approach, a qualitative methodology seemed to offer the kind of insights needed to explore this area. The methodological approach of four case studies was taken, following four teacher participants.

The second research area of this study involved teachers' conceptual development in terms of communicative language pedagogy, especially within the field of the IA: **What affordances and constraints impacted on the conceptual development of the ML pedagogy of the teachers in the study?**

The study sought to explore the teachers' perceptions of their pedagogical development, and how they developed their use of interactive moves, what helped them develop those and whether they would like or have liked to enact pedagogy in a different way. In Kubanyiova's terms (2012) the differences between their 'ought to' and 'ideal' teacher self, as discussed in the literature review. The most suitable methods seemed to be close observation of what teachers did through a year, from twenty to thirty observations per teacher, as well as their narratives of what they were doing, through interviews.

As discussed in the literature review, Borg (2006) and Kubanyiova (2012) have argued that there is a lack of SLA research studies which draw the links between classroom practice and teachers' cognitive development, so this study set out to address this gap in the research. The teachers who took part in the study were early career ML teachers (ECMLST) and the study sought to establish their

perceptions of shifts regarding their pedagogy within the area of interaction to aid pupils' learning and target language use, as they developed their teaching styles. Modern Languages Communicative Approach theory was still at the heart of the focus of this second research area: Do the teachers try to mirror what theory tells them they should be doing in the classroom, as they learned it in an experiential way during ITE and their NQT year? In other words, and using Kubanyiova's LTCC (2012), are there any disjunctions between their teacher ideal self and their ought to or feared self in terms of ML pedagogy? Did the teacher participants have a clear idea of the kind of teacher they wanted to become, or had they already become their ideal teacher self? Was it possible for these teacher participants to become their ideal teacher self? As a languages teacher educator, my interest also lay in what had helped or was helping those teachers in that given moment of their career(s) to develop their interactive practices. Exploring their perceptions of pedagogical shifts and listening to their stories to see what had or was helping them to develop, making links to their ITE course(s) can help in the planning of ITE ML courses.

Title (2006) advanced that teacher cognition could be disentangled by looking at the teacher interactions with pupils in the classroom and from their interactions with colleagues, mentors or researchers. She argued for looking into teachers' perceptions and narratives of what is happening in the classroom as well as objective descriptions of their classroom practices (Title, 2006). Following Title's recommendations, every teacher participant was observed teaching 20 to 30 lessons over a year, and in-depth semi-structured interviews took place at the end of the longitudinal study. In addition, throughout the full duration of the study there were many informal conversations about the observed classes, and I took notes after those conversations. The observations provided the main source of data, but the informal conversations throughout the year with the teacher participants and the formal semi-structured interviews helped to triangulate and make sense of the observations.

### 4.2.2 Case Studies

This study explored the perceptions of early career teachers interpreting phenomena in terms of the meaning the professionals involved attached to them. As Gass and Mackey (2005) in their analysis of research methods point out, qualitative research is often process-oriented, or open-ended, with categories that emerge. This qualitative research invoked the four participants' perspectives and it was important to understand the subtle differences in shifts of their perceptions of understandings of ML pedagogy. It is common for studies in the field of teacher cognition to take an ethnographic approach (Borg, 2006). It could be argued that this classroom-based study, although non-ethnographic, has some similarities with ethnographic studies.

Creswell (2007) defines case studies as a variation on, or a type of, ethnography in which the researcher provides an in-depth exploration of a bounded system, such as events, activities, processes, or individuals - teachers in this case, based on extensive data collection. Bounded means that the case study is 'separated out for research in terms of time, place or some physical boundaries' (Creswell, 2014: 493).

Although often the term case study is used alongside ethnography (LeCompte and Schensul, 1999 in Creswell, 2014:493) according to Creswell, case studies differ from ethnographic studies. Firstly, case studies might focus on individuals rather than groups (Stake,1995 in Creswell, 2014:493). Secondly, when case studies focus on groups, they tend to be more interested in 'describing the activities of the group instead of identifying shared patterns of behaviour exhibited by the group' (ibid:493). Thirdly, case study researchers tend to focus on an in-depth exploration of cases, as opposed to identifying a cultural theme to examine at the start of the study (ibid:493).

Stake (1995; 2000) made a distinction between intrinsic, instrumental and collective case studies. An intrinsic case study tends to be unusual and has merit in and of itself. Creswell (2014) provides the example of a bilingual school in a monolingual context. An instrumental case usually tends to be used to illustrate an issue, for example language learning in a bilingual school. According to Stake (1995), a collective case study involves the description and comparison of multiple cases to provide insight into an issue. This doctoral thesis could be

described as a collective case study following Stake's (1995) definition as it studied in-depth the perceptions of development of four ML teachers in terms of interaction in the target language, and explored the ways in which target language interaction theory is enacted through classroom practice in four comprehensive secondary schools in Scotland.

Cohen et al. (2007) have argued that case studies offer plausible and accessible explanations of examples of human activity which can only be understood and studied in context. In this case the four case studies offer insights into the interactive practices of teachers, which, it has been noted, are either under-studied or under-reported in the literature. Punch (1998) suggests that in case studies, cases will be studied in-depth, using whatever methods available. Case studies tend to explore significant features of the cases in question, to build up arguments supported by the literature and to communicate those arguments clearly to audiences (Punch, 1998). In this case, the departing point of these case studies might not align with Punch's criteria, as they were used to interrogate whether some aspects of SLA theory could be noticed in the classrooms studied. This helps in the understanding of what counts as knowledge of the real world and its sources, which are classrooms, not laboratory studies. As posited by Punch (1998) case studies tend to answer questions of 'how and why' and are used to generate theories in response. A criticism of case studies is the issue of the impossibility to generalise based on single cases, however Denscombe (2002) argues that lack of statistical analysis does not equate to absence of rigour.

Cohen et al. (2007) discuss that case studies offer 'fuzzy' generalisations about an instance, and from an instance to a set of instances. Although there might not be certainty from one case to another, case studies are focused on particular rather than unique experiences, and the value of comparison lies in the stimulation of thinking. The epistemological and ontological discussions above have advanced the possible advantages of the use of case studies in this thesis.

Classrooms can be observed in many different ways; two dichotomies are usually offered: participant versus non-participant observation and structured versus non-structured (Dörnyei, 2007). However, some level of participation underpins case studies (Creswell, 2007). As Morse and Richards (2002) argue, it is

impossible to observe without some participation, and during the one year study I visited the same classes four or five times. Every time students were engaged in groups, individual or paired activities, mainly talking, I circulated around the class and acted as a second teacher, offering help, asking questions about their learning, clarifying language doubts, and overall interacting with pupils in the oral activities they were undertaking. Students became used to my presence, and they would greet, smile on occasions, and, especially with S1 and S2 pupils, they tried to speak to me in French and Spanish.

This section has offered a rationale for situating the study in the qualitative paradigm, given the exploratory nature of the study and its research questions. The next section gives an overview of the teachers in the study, continuing with the exploration of the reasons chosen for case studies.

### 4.3 The Teachers in the Study and their Contexts: Four Case Studies

Chapter One of this thesis set the scene for the exploration of the ways in which the practices of the early career ML teachers who took part in this study, in Scotland, may reflect SLA theory in the domain of interaction in ML learning in secondary school classroom settings. It has been argued that the social contexts in which the teacher participants of the study operated were crucial to their development as a teacher, from both a generic point of view and as a ML teacher. Some of the character traits of the participants will be further discussed in this section, especially those which could be considered important in creating (or not) a positive classroom environment, which is crucial for effective learning and teaching to take place.

The participants, after successfully concluding their induction year in Scotland, were either at the end of their first year or at the beginning of their second year of teaching, as GTCS fully registered teachers. They had permanent employment positions in comprehensive secondary schools in Scotland as ML teachers and were observed teaching over a full year (June to June). The four participants in this study had gained a PGDE in Scotland and were a mixture of Scottish and other EU nationals.

The participants in this study were observed for an average of 25 one hour classes each, and asked to reflect on their professional pedagogical journeys to the point they were at, at the time of the study (from novice to more experienced teacher, and throughout the one year length of this study). Participants were asked about their perceptions of what helped them develop their CA pedagogical practices. It became apparent that the construction of knowledge and skills had been experienced and was still being experienced when the study was taking place by these teachers to very different extents. It is important to highlight that this study can only report on the participants' accounts and perceptions of their journey before the observations. It could be argued that becoming a teacher was one of the most emotional professional endeavours these four participants had experienced in their lives thus far and, when they were asked to think back to their year at university, or as a NQT, they were all in a relatively stable situation, with a permanent employment situation and in a position of feeling relatively competent. Equally importantly, there are rich data emerging from the classroom observations, and the way the participants made sense of what they had planned and what actually happened in their classrooms.

The teacher participants in the study were purposefully chosen as they had been identified as ECMLST who taught French and Spanish and used the target language in the classroom widely as part of their methodology. They were known to me through a variety of professional networks. A purposeful sample was pivotal for the research purpose of this study, as it was important to be able to have access to early career teachers who were thought of as strong users of the CA in ML learning and teaching, so that their use of interactive pedagogies in their classrooms could be the object of observation and discussion for this thesis. Creswell (2014:228) posits that when choosing purposeful sampling, researchers intentionally select individuals and sites to learn about or gain understanding of a central phenomenon. In random quantitative sampling the researcher selects representative individuals to generalise from sample to population in order to make claims about the population to either build or test theories which explain the population (ibid:228). By contrast, in purposeful qualitative sampling, the researcher selects people who can best help understand the phenomenon explored, in order to develop detailed

understanding which might provide useful information to help people learn about the phenomenon or which might give voice to silenced people (ibid:228). I had identified seven teachers who fulfilled the criteria set, but I decided to approach the four teachers in this study as there was a mixture of males and females, Scottish and French nationals, and they all worked in inner city comprehensive schools.

In order to avoid repetition and comply with the Ed-D word count, the four case studies will be discussed together in Chapters Five and Six. Chapter Five explores research question one, that is, **in what ways is interaction in SLA theory consonant with the ML classrooms studied in Scotland?** Chapter Six explores the second research question: **What affordances and constraints impacted on the conceptual development of the ML pedagogy of the teachers in the study?**

In order to anonymise the participants, gender has been changed in some cases. In order to make the reading of the discussion and analysis chapters easier to follow, false names were attributed to the participants to avoid referring to them by numbers.

ECMLST number one will be called from now onward Mary; ECMLST two will be referred to by the pseudonym of Rose; ECMLST three will be named Juliette. ECMLST four will be named Yannick.

Mary, Juliette, Yannick and Rose were all under 26 years of age at the start of this longitudinal study.

The four teachers taught French and Spanish and were GTCS registered for both. The four of them had studied a PGDE in Scotland. There was a mixture of different nationalities. They had studied at different ITE institutions in Scotland. However, two of them worked together during their NQT year and received full GTCS registration when working at the same school. They both knew they were taking part in this study. At different points, these teachers had coincided working with one of the other participants, in the same Local Authorities either as students, NQTs or teachers. It is interesting, that, although some teacher participants in this study had been in the same department at the same time, or in the same LA at the same time, their accounts of their experiences were very

different. This resonates with what Gass et al. (2005) when they refer to classrooms not being monolithic, that is, the same interactional moves with different groups of learners can lead to different results. Hence the importance of micro-contexts and interaction within those micro-contexts.

Mary is a Scottish national. She had undertaken a 4 years undergraduate degree studying French and Spanish and did a one year PGDE. She spent a 1 year Erasmus study exchange in Spain, and lived four months in France as part of her studies. Mary taught in an inner city comprehensive school. Mary was observed teaching French and Spanish with S1, S2 and S3, N3/4/5 Spanish and National 5/ Higher Spanish respectively. Every class was observed at least 3 times over the year. Mary's classes could be described as highly interactive. It was perceived that S1 and S2 pupils, regardless of whether they were in French or Spanish classes, seemed to be engaged and eager to take part and interact in the work of the classroom (with the teacher, in groups and in pairs) throughout the length of the study. Many pupils appeared extremely keen to use the target language among themselves, with the teacher, and also to come and talk to me in French and Spanish during the many speaking activities. The interaction in the target language with me when pupils were partaking in pair/group talking took place from day one.

Rose is a Scottish national. She studied French and Spanish at university. She spent six months as an Erasmus student in France and 6 months in Spain. Rose was observed teaching French and Spanish with S1, S2 and S3, N3/4/5/ Higher Spanish and National 5/ Higher Spanish respectively. Every class was observed at least 3 times over the year. Rose's classes could be described as highly interactive although English was widely used. Rose worked in a school in which the pupils were the most socially disadvantaged in comparison with the other three schools according to government statistics.

Juliette is a French national. She had studied English and Spanish at university in France. She came to Scotland to study a PGDE in French and Spanish. Juliette was observed teaching French and Spanish with S1, S2 and S3 classes and S4 French and Spanish and Higher French and Spanish. Juliette's school could be considered a typical comprehensive school in Scotland. In terms of social

deprivation her pupils would have been 'on average' less deprived that those in Mary's, Yannick's and Rose's schools.

Juliette's classes could be described as highly interactive in the target language. Juliette was the teacher who used the most target language of the four teacher participants in this study. In the observed lessons French and Spanish were used throughout. Juliette mentioned informally during the observations that she wanted her pupils to feel as if they were in a French or a Spanish speaking country when they entered her room. Although no exact percentage of target language used was measured, in the observations it appeared that approximately 90% of Juliette's speech aimed at the whole class was in the target language. When talking to individual pupils she used a mixture of the target language and English. Juliette's high percentage of target language use can be compared to that of Mary and Yannick (approximately 50-60%) and Rose (approximately 30%).

Yannick is a French national. He studied French and Spanish at a French university and came to Scotland to do a PGDE. He taught in an inner city comprehensive school. Yannick was observed teaching French and Spanish with S1, S2 and S3, N3/4/5 Spanish and National 5/ Higher French respectively. Every class was observed at least 3 times over the year. Yannick's classes could be described as highly interactive. Yannick used the target language extensively in his classes, and differentiated pedagogical approaches and differentiated work were noted according to learners' capabilities. In his classes he employed a lot of differentiated group work. Yannick seemed a very relaxed and smiling teacher who, during the year, was never observed raising his voice once. In his classes, there were a lot of cultural references to Hispanic and Francophone cultures.

Originally, it was beyond the scope of this study on the role of interaction in SLA, to look at the use of English language in the classroom to examine societal issues, that is, sociolinguistics of society; nor to examine the impact of social factors on the way languages were used by speakers (pupils/teachers). However, following the interactionist paradigm, individual social factors have to be taken into account to understand whether the social environment of the pupils contributed to the development of interactive practices in the languages classes

observed. As pointed out in the literature review, it is widely acknowledged that social factors, including motivation, can affect the relationship between input, output and feedback, as well as the attention learners pay to language. Therefore, it is important to acknowledge that due to the settings of these schools, learning a language may have been perceived with some reservations by some pupils and their parents; this, in turn, may have made teachers' efforts in creating a purposeful atmosphere for learning more challenging. The teachers taught across three LAs in what could be considered as inner city comprehensive schools. Accordingly, the purposefully chosen sample of the teacher participants could be seen as representative of the Scottish comprehensive school context, in terms of the social background mix of the pupils who attended those schools. Pupils' backgrounds were broadly comparable as these schools had a similar average in the Scottish Index of Multiple Deprivation (SIMD) with a similar proportion of pupils in the 30% most deprived and 30% most wealthy postcodes (roughly 15% respectively).

Regarding the personalities of the teacher participants, they could all be described as having very outgoing personalities. Based on the comments from colleagues from professional networks, and my close observations of the teachers' rapport with their pupils, they all appeared successful in having established themselves in the schools and were 'liked' by the pupils and perceived as 'fair' and interested in pupils' learning.

It appears that they all had a positive effect in their departments in terms of pupil uptake of languages beyond BGE, where languages are not compulsory. This was highlighted informally by head teachers, depute- head teachers and heads of departments. Their outgoing personalities might have been behind their reasons to accept taking part in the study. The next section turns to discussion of the observations.

### 4.4 Observations

Gold's (1958) continuum of participant/ non-participant observation showed the subtle differences and pointed to the fact that classroom research could not simply be divided into the dichotomy of participant versus non-participant.

Gold's continuum was structured into: complete participant; participant as observer; observer as participant; complete observer.

I was neither a complete participant nor a complete observer. As mentioned already, it was important to make sense of the realities observed, so, often, I was located in the observer as participant or on occasion participant as observer positions in Gold's continuum.

Carter (2017) argues that in structured/ non-participant observations, the researcher's detached status may reduce the risk of his actions influencing the behaviour of those observed, and reflections on The Observer's Paradox (Labov, 1972) are discussed in section 4.4.3. However, as already argued, it is difficult to remain a non-participant in many contexts, for example, the classrooms observed. Taking a completely non-participant status might have itself influenced the behaviour of learners in the class, given my continuous presence over a year. In this case, it was noted, in line with Carter (2017), that my participation in class dialogues and talking tasks seemed to encourage learners to be more accepting of my presence and perhaps more open in their classroom participation in using the target language, since they understood that I could also be a source of support if they needed help to accomplish individual, paired or group tasks. Carter (2017) suggested that it could be very difficult to observe, take notes and participate simultaneously as important events could be missed. For that reason, the observations were audio recorded, and that is discussed further in section 4.6 Data Collection: Note Taking and Transcription of the Data.

As part of the Ed-D programme, in year 3, the methods to be used in the dissertation were piloted in another context, in this case ML in the primary context in Scotland. Although that was also an exploratory study, a relatively focused structured observation sheet was constructed and used. Despite my experience as a  secondary ML teacher, and currently as a teacher educator, observations proved difficult. Serious and careful consideration was given to this very significant aspect of this research. The main challenge was linking theoretical frameworks such as Dörnyei's PCA (2009a; 2009c) and Gass and Mackey's IA (2006) and observing the extent to which these theories were consonant or enacted in the day-to-day learning and teaching reality of a

classroom, with all its idiosyncrasies, of teachers and of teenagers. The areas below (One to Seven) were the areas this thesis set out to observe, as presented in the ethical approval form and shared with the teacher participants. These areas encompass Dörnyei's (2009a; 2009c) and Gass and Mackey's (2006) IA, as reviewed in the literature. It was deemed that using the language related to theoretical frameworks might have created a barrier with the teacher participants, so easier user friendly language was used. The areas presented to the teachers and in the research ethics application were:

1 Sharing learning intentions and success criteria, in terms of Assessment is for Learning, but also in terms of modelling of language and target language use.

2 Design of exercises: were they tasks or activities? Were the pupils creators of language and meaning, or were they repeating/ using drills to learn the language?

3 Questioning: target language input, modified-input, scaffolding, display, referential questions.

4 Feedback, corrective feedback (grammar, pronunciation, meaning, word choice, politeness).

5 Construction of declarative knowledge versus procedural knowledge.

6 Interaction, modified-interaction: speech rate, gesture, provision of additional contextual cues, comprehension checks, clarification requests, self-repetition, paraphrase.

7 Pupil-pupil talk.

In order to note the different elements of interaction, scheduled observation frameworks which had been empirically tested were considered (Allwright and Bailey, 1991), and an observation schedule was created bringing different elements together, shown in the next section. However, after careful thought, it was decided that although the observation schedule informed the kind of behaviours I could comment on if they were to be observed in the class, an open notebook to take notes and the audio-recording of the observations were more appropriate for the nature of this exploratory study. Observational instruments

are very typical in linguistic studies but in studies related to teacher cognition, observation linked to interviews is the most common method of eliciting data. As Borg (2006) argues, observation offers insights into teacher's cognitions but does not allow in-depth exploration. For ethical approval reasons, audio recordings were chosen and note taking was considered the best option as it allowed me to contrast notes with the audio-recordings, following the observations.

In a review of Assessment is for Learning following Black and Wiliam's learning principles set out in Inside the Black Box (1990), Jones and Wiliam (2008) highlighted the IRF framework (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975) as the best suited for learning in the ML classroom. Therefore, in the initial phase of planning observation schedules in terms of interaction, as reviewed in the literature, Initiation/Response/Evaluation or Initiation/Response/Feedback (IRE and IRF) interaction frameworks were taken into account, to see whether, as reported in the literature, classroom observations in this case aligned with this framework.

Allwright and Bailey (1991) reviewed a selection of observation schemes used to study interaction in the classroom. These tools helped to record classroom observations with a focus on interaction in the ML classroom. Although it could be argued that they are outdated, the ones which were carefully reviewed for this study were: Flanders' Interaction Analysis Categories (FIAC) scheme (1960); Moskowitz (1971) Foreign Language Interaction (Flint) system; Fanselow (1977)Foci for Observing Communications Used in Settings (FOCUS); Long, Adams, McLean and Castaños (1976) The Embryonic Category System; Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) System of analysis; Frölich, Spada and Allen (1985) COLT (Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching); Chaudron (1977) Features and types of corrective reactions in the model of discourse. There were others explored such as Guilloteaux and Dörnyei MOLT (Motivation Orientation in Language teaching) (in Dörnyei, 2007:183).

COLT (Communicative Orientation Language Teaching) created by Frölich, Spada and Allen in 1985, was used as a useful identifier of classroom elements to be aware of. When the first observation schedule was created, COLT elements were taken into consideration, as different elements from Gass and Mackey's (2007) IA or Dörnyei's (2009a; 2009c) PCA. The COLT observation scheme can be seen in Appendix seven. A structured observation scheme was created, however, after

using it twice, I arrived at the conclusion that it was unworkable and un-manageable due to the amount of details in the observation scheme. The decision was taken to take notes instead, and to make sense of the observations by referring back to the notes taken, the audio-recorded lessons and by referring to the observation schedule to keep in mind the work at task. Secondly, it was perceived that the observation schedule might have limited the recording of what was actually happening in those classrooms. The kind of interaction that took place in the classrooms, which will be discussed in Chapters Five and Six could not be captured using the observation schemes I had devised. The actual interaction observed could not be classified under any of the organisers or descriptions in the original observation schedule. The original devised observation scheme can be seen in Appendix eight. The issues I encountered had already been highlighted in the literature. Allen, Frölich, and Spada, (1985) had already pointed out that the quantitative procedures based on COLT should be supplemented with more detailed qualitative analysis, with a view to obtaining additional information about the way meaning is co-constructed in the classroom (p. 143). Gass and Mackey's (2006) claim that in-depth qualitative research is needed to take cognisance of the interplay of all factors as opposed to measuring quantitatively learner's linguistic performance with pre- and post-intervention tests. The key focus of this research was the exploration of the different classes and teachers' conceptualisation shifts, hence the rationale for a qualitative approach only.

### 4.4.1 Observation Schedule

The observation schedule which was never used but nevertheless informed the focus of the observations was divided into two sections: Interaction and Tasks, since the tasks, as reviewed in the literature play a very important part in ML pedagogy. The Observation Schedule can be found in Appendix eight. It is important to discuss nonetheless aspects of the schedule because they pinpointed areas that should be observed.

As discussed, this observation list was not used to record observations, but was helpful in deciding the focus of the observation in terms of interaction and tasks, although, given the exploratory nature of the study, I was open to the possibility

of becoming aware of elements of which I had not thought when preparing for the observations. As Borg (2006:231) claims, observations offer a concrete descriptive basis for the examination of teachers' mental processes, and the observations on their own without the informal and formal interviews of the teacher participants and informal interactions with pupils would not have been enough to explore the meanings attributed to those pedagogies which had been deployed by those teachers in their engagement with their pupils. Secondly, from my point of view, I was part of the meaning construction as I engaged with 'the world' (Crotty, 1998), in this case the teacher participants and the learners in their classes.

### 4.4.2 Further Remarks regarding Classroom Observations

Mackey and Gass discuss the advantages and caveats of classroom observations. On the one hand observations provide an 'opportunity to collect large amounts of rich data on the participants' behaviou*r'* (2005: 176). In this way, the 'researcher can gain a deeper and more multi-layered understanding of the participants and their contexts' (ibid:176). Observation has traditionally been considered as non-interventionist with the deliberate purpose of non-manipulation of the observational situation (Adler and Adler, 1994). However, as aforementioned, in this classroom study, I interacted with learners to make sense of their learning process, as that would have not been possible to the same depth without any engagement with the learners. Equally I had informal conversations with the teachers throughout the observations: before and after lessons, at coffee break, at lunch, during non-teaching periods. This can still be considered non-interventionist, as I was not part of the lesson planning process nor dictating the pedagogy or the tasks in which the learners were took part. However, the lines between non-interventionist and posing no influence at all, can be blurred in this sort of classroom research (Crotty,1998).

This level of influence which may also be referred to as level of manipulation, although non-intentional, often occurs due to the Observer's Paradox (Lavob, 1972). In a classroom study The Observer's Paradox could be applied to learners and teachers. In this study, teachers were aware that I was there to see their use of the target language and their interactional moves with pupils to

encourage them to use the ML. It would be naive to think that the teacher participants were going to invite me to their classes on days in which they had planned for no talking activities at all. However, the longitudinal research design of this study, and the fact that I visited teachers throughout a year, seeing from twenty to thirty classes per teacher, aimed to minimise the Observer's Paradox. Familiarity with my presence in the classroom arguably had meant that I became a 'normal' part of the lessons.

The unavoidable researcher's bias (Draper, 2018) was taken into consideration after deciding not to use the observation schedule. Although it was too cumbersome to manage, I made sure to refer to it after the lessons, to ensure that I had not missed anything and to be more open and in line with the exploratory nature of the study.

Conversely to the notion of 'bias', Creswell (2007) argues that all research is interpretive, and the emphasis should be put on the capacity of the researcher to self-reflect, to be aware of the extent his/ her own epistemology is affecting the interpretation of the data. Since all the teachers knew that I was a teacher educator, they would have been aware of my views on target language and interaction, so every effort was made to ensure that they knew that it was the totality of their teaching I was interested in observing and that there was no judgement involved at all. As teachers were observed over one year, I gained understanding of what their practices were. Informal and formal interviews were paramount in this exploratory study to understand and construct the meaning(s) from the evidence collected through observations about the perceived realities of the participants' classrooms. Validity and reliability will be discussed in more detail in section 4.7. The next section discusses formal and informal interviews.

## 4.5 Teacher Interviews

A strength of observations lies in the fact that they allow researchers to see directly what people do without having to rely on what they say they do (Dörnyei, 2007). Therefore, such data can provide a more objective account of events and behaviours than second hand self-report data (Dörnyei, 2007; Mackey and Gass, 2005). However, recording a phenomenon does not necessarily lead to

understanding the reasons why it has happened, or the motivations or intentions behind the pedagogical interactive moves and other motivations behind the participants' actions. This is very important when working within an interpretivist epistemology as discussed in section 4.2.

For that reason, informal conversations took place on the days of the observations, and semi-structured interviews were conducted after all the observations were concluded. The decision to conduct the semi-structured interviews at the end of the longitudinal study was consciously taken to further minimise the Observer's Paradox discussed in the previous section. Interviews can allow researchers ‘to investigate phenomena that are not directly observable, as interviews are interactive, researchers can elicit additional data if initial answers are vague, incomplete, off topic or not specific enough’ (Mackey and Gass, 2005:173). Kvale (1996:5-6) refers to informal and un-structured conversations as professional conversations and 'semi-structured life world interviews'. Both the informal conversations and semi-structured interviews at the end of the study helped me to the understand the reasons behind the teachers' pedagogical decisions taken in the classroom as well as their conceptual development.

Dörnyei (2007) recommends that researchers conduct a sequence of three interviews with the same participant to obtain sufficient depth and breadth. He suggests that the first interview usually breaks the ice and helps to develop rapport, while also providing a quick sweep of the areas to be investigated later. The interval between the first and the second interview allows the interviewer to prepare a more made to measure interview guide and offers the interviewee the chance to think more deeply about the first. The third one is the ‘mop up’ or follow up questions to fill in and to clarify the account (Dörnyei, 2007: 135). He further suggests that in a longitudinal interview study, the first interview would create the baseline knowledge and the subsequent, regularly occurring interviews would focus on how and why the particular phenomenon under study changes.

In line with Dörnyei’s arguments (2007), Hall and Rist (1999:297) point out that interviews may involve selective recall, self-delusion, perceptual distortions, memory loss from the respondent and subjectivity in the researcher’s recording

and interpreting of the data. Dörnyei's three interview approach was considered, but, as discussed, the decision was made to conduct one semi-structured interview per teacher participant at the end of the one year study to minimise The Observer's Paradox effect, potential disruption, time commitment and stress to participants. Secondly, I wanted to check whether there had been any observable pedagogical shifts during that year without alerting the teacher participants too closely to them. However, considering Dörnyei's approach, when schools were visited throughout the year, I spent from thirty minutes to one hour engaged in informal conversation or un-structured discussion with the teacher participants. Therefore, it could be argued that multiple interviews, that is, interviewing the same person more than once, in this case through the informal conversations throughout the study, was one potential means of addressing the issues identified by Dörnyei or Hall and Rist (1999).

Part of those conversations involved the teachers explaining what they were about to do. At times they involved teacher participants sharing pupils' work with me, showing their progression schemes or exploring the reasons behind certain exercises. To ensure the dynamics of the teacher-researcher conversations were minimised, for example, in those informal conversations, the theoretical differentiation between task and activity was never discussed with the teacher participants.

Often, those informal conversations were used as a way to understand certain interactive practices and pedagogical choices, after which I made notes to reflect what had been discussed. Arguably, that data provided the breadth and depth suggested by Dörnyei (2007).

In the formal semi-structured interviews, there was a set of pre-prepared guiding questions and prompts, based on observed pedagogical episodes. I described some observed patterns and asked the teacher participants to comment on them and to explain whether they had always approached certain pedagogical moves in the same way. Had the semi-structured interviews taken place closer to the observed lessons, they could have been described as stimulated recall (Gass and Mackey, 2000), given the fact that they were audio-recorded. However, given the significant time distance from the observations to the interviews, it cannot be claimed that stimulated recall was used. I drew the

attention of the participants to certain patterns of actions and behaviours evidenced in their sustained practice through the use of the fieldnotes, worksheets or presentations, or books, arising from the observations. Although I tried my best in contextualising the learning situation by describing what I had observed in the classroom at given times to re-activate memories of the 'scene', it is acknowledged that it was difficult for the participants to remember certain aspects of their actions which may have taken place some six to nine months in the past. For that reason, many of the questions were aimed at the overarching principles of their practices which had become evident thanks to the aid of some twenty hours of observation per teacher, over the period of a year. By the time the semi-structured interviews were conducted I had coded the classroom practice observed, and due to the informal conversations that took place throughout the year, had partly attributed some meaning to the interactive moves observed. The interviews at the end of the study helped to fully understand the observed practices from the point of view of the different teacher participants in the study.

The format of the interview was open-ended, and the interviewee was encouraged to elaborate on the issues raised in an exploratory manner, including going off topic from the original question. That is, I provided guidance and direction but was also keen to follow up interesting developments and to let the interviewee elaborate on certain issues (Dörnyei, 2007:137). It has to be acknowledged that interviewees go to interviews with a knowledge of what they are supposed to say in the interview (Kvale, 1996), and I had to interpret in some cases whether their narratives were a reflection of their realities or whether they were saying what they think it was expected of them to say, for example, in terms of target language use (Borg, 2006). These considerations were relevant given the nature of the study into their perceptions of change but given the longitudinal nature of the study these tensions were minimised to some extent.

Following Patton's (2002) suggestion there were six main types of question focusing on: (a) experiences and behaviours, (b) opinions and values, (c) feelings, (d) knowledge, (e) sensory information (seen/heard), (f) background information. Knowledge was interpreted holistically as there were no direct questions about teachers' knowledge, although interpreting teachers' answers as

they were making remarks about their observed practice, led to an understanding of their awareness and beliefs regarding target language use and classroom interaction.

Inevitably, respondents entered the interview session with some ideas of what may constitute preferred and dis-preferred responses; in this case, the use of the target language proved controversial, so this issue was dealt with earlier on, long before the first semi-structured interview. Before and after the first observation informal conversation I reiterated the idea that I was there to see what was working for them and how they were developing as languages teachers. Dörnyei (2007:141) suggests that if researchers do not deal with the issue of candidates' perceptions of preferred answers head on, we may end up with a neat, self-censored and rather sterile narrative. The truly neutral interview space encourages the sharing of even the socially less-desirable. When discussing lack of target language use with one teacher, for example, I used language such as: ‘researchers talk about the influence of the mother tongue in the language classroom (…)’; 'research shows that 80% of teachers do not use the target language as much as they would like because of discipline' ; ‘Many researchers now think that....’.Given my role as a teacher educator, I strove to maintain a balance between non-judgemental neutrality and empathetic understanding. One teacher in particular repeatedly asked if I thought what the teacher was doing in the classroom was ‘okay’. My answers emphasised that my role was not to judge or to comment either positively or negatively, but to gather evidence which would enable me to understand what had helped the teacher to develop his/her practices up to this stage.

The second research focus of this thesis was to explore teachers' perceptions of their conceptual development. Interviews (Gass and Mackey, 2005: 173) can allow researchers to investigate phenomena that are not directly observable; as interviews are interactive, research interviews can elicit additional data if initial answers are vague, incomplete, off topic or not specific enough.

So far, this first part of the chapter has discussed the ontological approach to the study and the epistemological stance in striving to gain knowledge of the 'real' world of the classroom, and the methodology and methods, observations and formal and informal interviews, used in the study to achieve understanding

of the research questions. The next section of this chapter will discuss the analysis of the data.

### 4.6 Data Analysis and Interpretation

Dörnyei (2007) sums up the term qualitative data analysis as 'different activities from imaginative and artful speculation to well-defined analytical moves, from deductive categorisation to inductive pattern finding' (Dörnyei, 2007:242). He suggests four phases for the analytical process: 1) transcribing the data; 2) pre-coding and coding; 3) growing ideas - memos, vignettes, profiles; 4) interpreting the data and drawing conclusions.

Creswell (2014: 285) suggests six steps in the process of analysing and interpreting qualitative data:

1) Preparing and organising the data for the analysis, which includes transcription, writing up of fieldnotes, and making the decision of analysing the data by hand or by computer. In this case the data was organised by hand.

2) Exploring and coding the data is described by Creswell (2014) as the process of reducing a text or an image to descriptions and themes of people, places and events. It involves examining the text iteratively, asking oneself what the participant is saying, and then labelling the text segments with codes.

3) Coding builds descriptions and themes, moving from segment coding to a broader abstraction than mere codes. 'These themes can be layered or organised to tell a story, or they may be also interconnected to portray the complexity of the phenomenon' (ibid: 2014:286).

4) Representing and reporting findings includes creating visual displays and reporting findings in narrative discussions.

5) The interpretation of the findings includes advancing personal views, making comparisons between findings and the literature reviewed, suggesting limitations and areas for further research.

6) Validating the accuracy of findings in this study included member checking and triangulation for validity and reliability purposes. This is further explained in section 4.7.

As this doctoral thesis took place over the period of a year neither Creswell's (2014) six steps nor Dörnyei (2007) four phases took place in that order. In fact, the transcription of data, pre-coding, coding, the creation of visuals on flip-chart paper, and analysis and interpretation of findings took place simultaneously over the year. The next sections explore in more detail data analysis and interpretation in this study.

### 4.6.1 Data Collection, Note Taking and Transcription of the Data

Observations and formal semi-structured interviews were digitally audio-recorded on a tablet and stored electronically as sound files. Notes of informal conversations between teacher-researcher were taken, before or after classes on the days of the observations and were kept in a notebook. Copious notes were taken throughout all the class observations in notebooks. Often, when re-reading the notes, the minute(s) of the audio-recorded class were also annotated, so I could return to the precise moment in the recording to listen to certain parts of the observed class and make further notes. This allowed me to re-visit certain pedagogical episodes which were considered to be specifically of interest for the focus of the study. As I took notes, I left space to write further comments and parts of the transcriptions after listening to the audio-recordings. This process was repeated throughout the one year study.

The four semi-structured interviews of approximately one hour and a half were transcribed in a Word document. Both the semi-structured interviews with the four teacher participants and classroom observations were listened to on several occasions. By repeatedly re-visiting the audios as highlighted in the literature, the transcriber may notice patterns which are not necessarily conspicuous on the page (Silverman, 2006) and in this case, I wrote further comments and clarifications in my notebooks. However, as Cook (1990) stated, all transcription is to some extent interpretation. Kvale (1996:166) goes further and argued that transcriptions 'produce hybrids, artificial constructs that are adequate to

neither the lived oral conversation nor the formal written style of texts'. Considering these voices and the interpretivist nature of the thesis, my interest was to provide as close as possible an account of the language used in the classroom and the interviews. Lapadat and Lindsay (1999) argued that the transcription stage is two steps removed from the interaction: the interaction which occurs may be interpreted by the participants in different ways, then secondly the audio recording is a step removed from what happened although it tries to represent it. Thirdly the transcription is the third step, which is another re-representation of the original interaction. For Lapadat and Lindsay 'acknowledging transcription as representational avoids the mistake of taking the written record as the event' (1999:81) thus understanding the transcription process as an 'interpretative act' (ibid: 81).

### 4.6.2 Pre-coding of Data

Following the process of initial analysis described by Dörnyei (2007), the pre-coding stage of qualitative analysis took place simultaneously with the data transcription process described above throughout the year during which the observations took place. After each day spent in a teacher's class, I listened to the audio-recorded lessons, in order to complete the notes in the notebooks, making sure that the different nuances of non-verbal communication and paralinguistic features such as tone, pitch, pause, engagement, were captured, while they were fresh in my mind, as described in section 4.6. This process takes place as researchers take an inductive approach with the data, 'noticing relevant phenomena; collecting examples of those phenomena and analysing those phenomena in order to find commonalities, differences, patterns and structures' (Basit, 2003:144).

This was a time-consuming process, given the volume of observations, hence the reason for choosing not to transcribe the full lessons, but only interaction episodes. I highlighted important segments from my notes, inserted commentaries after having listened to the digitalised audio recordings and transcribed certain sections which involved target language use and interaction. Hiring a professional transcriber would have been counterproductive, as the context of the classroom was of extreme importance and it would have been

difficult to find someone who could transcribe in English, French and Spanish. In addition, it was of vital importance to get very well acquainted with the recordings, so using a transcriber would have not served that purpose (Gass and Mackey,2000).

The pre-coding process informed the semi-structured interviews, and led me to think of topics of conversation, as opposed to questions, which could be raised informally when visiting the same teacher participant, the following time for more observations. This supported the reflective process as I kept track of categories and themes emerging from the data, with descriptions, hunches, further areas for focused observation, possible relationships and further topics for informal interviews and conversations I wished to raise over the year.

This pre-coding stage helped with research question number one: In what ways does interaction in the ML theory reflect ML classrooms studied in Scotland? In fact, the lines between pre-coding and coding became blurred as the study progressed. As certain pedagogical dynamics were taking place in the classroom, and given the necessity of conveying information in the note-taking process as quickly and precisely as possible, I made up some terms such as 'ping-pong' interaction, as they differed from patterns reviewed in the literature such as IRF/IRE (Sinclair and Coulthard,1975) or 'target language mindset'. These terms will be explored in detail in the findings chapter of this thesis.

With regards to research question number two, what affordances and constraints impacted on the conceptual development of the ML pedagogy of the teachers in the study?, the pre-coding stage, as noted before, as well as allowing me to establish some pedagogical traits of the teachers which seemed to be different for each teacher, also helped me to think of possible topics of conversation during the informal conversations which took place during the year which aimed to track any indicators of change in the participants' thinking.

Importantly, as the description of this process shows, by the time I 'formally' interviewed the teacher participants of the study, I had a clear focus of the semi-structured questions requiring to be asked to make further sense of their perceptions of their development. Secondly, I had familiarised myself with the data to such an extent that a more systematic coding procedure seemed to have started and be underway during the observations and the informal discussions. In

other words, in hindsight, the lines between pre-coding and coding were very much blurred in this study, which, seems to resonate with the constructivist and interpretivist nature of this thesis (Cresswell, 2007:2014; Punch,2014).

### 4.6.3 Coding

Initial qualitative data analysis was conducted using the notebooks for observations as the one year study progressed and on the Word files of the semi-structured interviews at the end of the study, following pre-coding (Dörnyei, 2007). The pre-coding activity proved helpful in pre-empting coding traps (Richards, 2005). Iterative readings of notebooks and transcribed data helped establish new interpretative and analytical nodes (Richards, 2005; Dörnyei, 2007). As explained in section 4.6.2, this process took place throughout the year in which the observations took place. As noted above, analytical memos and annotations in a variety of formats were created and added to the notebooks throughout this process, blurring the lines of pre-coding and coding even further. According to Dörnyei (2007) these documents show the real analysis taking place. This he calls phase number three.

Significant coding emerged from category and mind maps drawn in flip chart paper, which in turn helped with the business of abstraction into broader themes, referred to by Creswell (2014:285) as step number 3. To analyse the data in line with the research areas of this study it was important to consider possible meanings and purposes attributed to actions in the field of target language interaction by teachers. The teachers were engaged in target language interactions and I was making the attributions of meanings and purposes at that time. During the process of coding, the data was subdivided and organised into categories, each one with a common theme (Dey, 1993) which in turn allowed meaning to arise from the data. The task of analysing data was not approached with a pre-conceived hypothesis to be proven or challenged, as that was not in the spirit of a constructivist and interpretivist approach to research. Patton (1980:306) points out that ‘inductive analysis means that the patterns, themes and categories of analysis come from the data; they emerge out of the data rather than being imposed on them prior to data collection and analysis’. However, because of my professional background, I did not come to the data

analysis process with no prior knowledge, as discussed in the epistemological remarks section. Blumer (1954) coined the term 'sensitising concepts' referring to the researcher's 'general sense of reference and guidance in approaching empirical instances' (Blumer, 1954:7). Charmaz (2006) referred to these 'sensitising concepts' as the researcher's background knowledge which helps to define the focus of the investigation and may be used as departing points when engaging in the data analysis process. Nightingale and Cromby (1999) referred to the researcher's 'reflexivity', which requires an awareness of his contributions 'to the construction of meanings throughout the research process, and an acknowledgment of the impossibility of remaining outside of one's subject matter while conducting research' (ibid:228).

The iterative process of data-analysis led me to investigate areas of the literature which initially had not been reviewed in so much depth, for example, the literature on teacher change in Scotland related to teacher agency. Similarly, it emerged that the dichotomy between developing the competency traits of a secondary school teacher with generic teaching and learning skills versus developing as a ML teacher seemed to play an important role in the development of interactive practices amongst the participants. Hence the literature review was also adjusted accordingly.

### 4.6.4 Identified Codes

After a great deal of consideration, I came up with the following codes, which helped in the formulation of finding themes:

In the area of interaction, 'ping-pong' in terms of pupil-pupil, teacher-pupil interaction was identified as an alternative to the traditional IRE/ IRF (Coulthard, 1975). 'Ping-pong' interaction linked with Gass and Mackey's (2006) IA tenets as teachers realised that 'noticing' language was not enough for learning. Another code used was the flow (or lack of flow) between listening/talking/reading/writing and whether they were integrated or taught separately. When going over notes and listening to the audio recordings, the code of Assessment is for Learning (AifL) E (English) or AifL T LG (target

language) was also used. The criteria satisfied for me to apply these codes will be discussed in turn in the analysis chapters.

In the area of exercises, the coding reflected whether students were engaged in tasks or activities. This linked to Dörnyei's (2009a; 2009c) PCA and: the use of formulaic language, controlled-practice, the different ways learners automatised language, whether they were authors of language or repeating drills. In terms of learner's capacities and the role of noticing, as in Gass and Mackey's (2006) IA, codes pointed to which exercises helped learners to achieve this, and the teachers' perceptions when preparing for these.

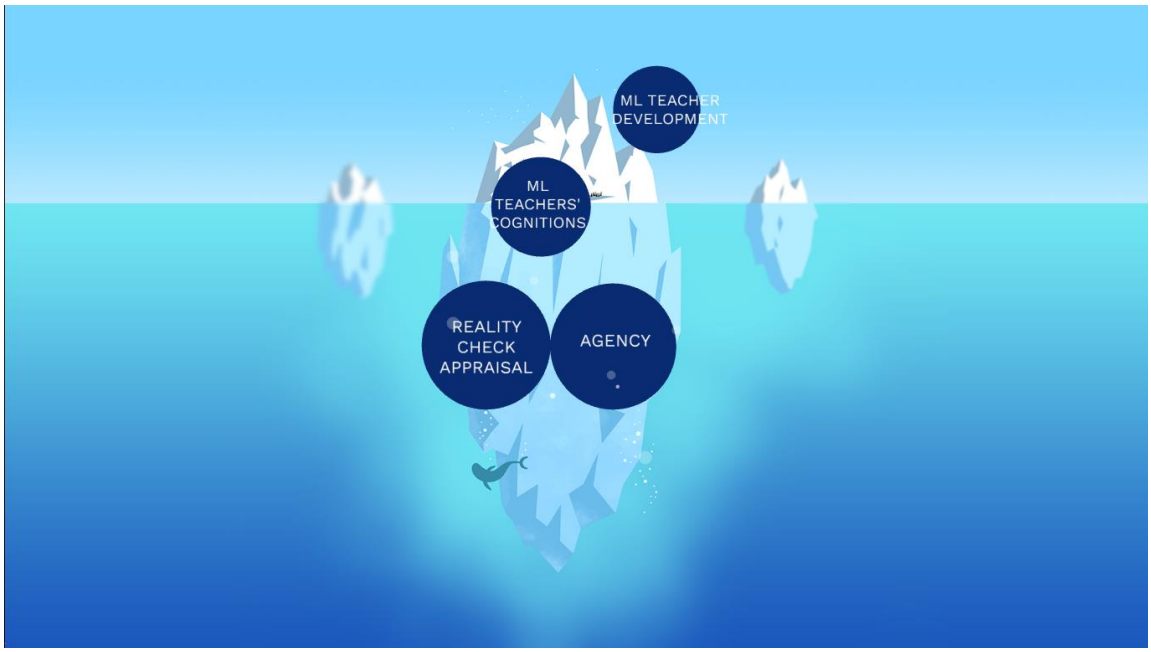
In the area of teacher development, I used 'A' standing for teacher agency and 'C/A/P', meaning Curriculum, Assessment, Pedagogy. These were emerging codes which made me go back to the literature and to formulate finding themes.

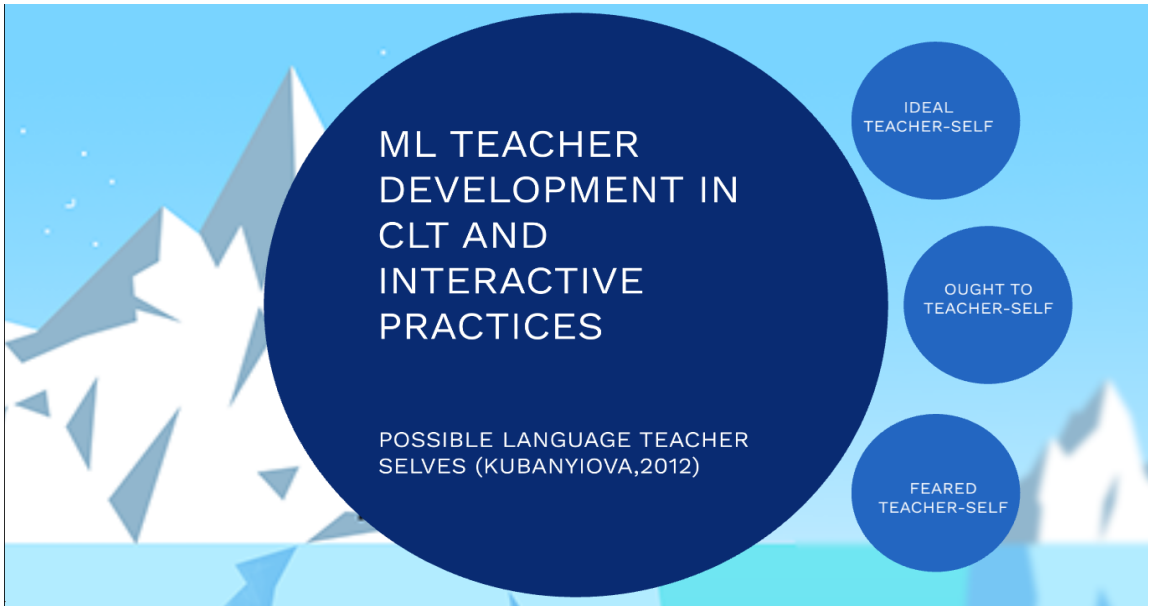
### 4.7 Early Career ML Teachers' Development Analysis Framework

The framework below is an adaptation of Kubanyiova's (2012) Language Teacher Conceptual Change (LTCC) and Priestley et al.'s (2015a;2015b) Ecological Model for Understanding Achievement of Agency. As explained in the literature review chapter, Kubanyiova's LTCC (2012) was useful for her study of teachers' conceptual change, as she was the academic who led a course on CA pedagogy and followed eight of the teachers who took part to see the extent of their pedagogical shifts in terms of CLT. However, this thesis is looking at the conceptual development of early career teachers who, although they had completed their ITE and NQT in Scotland, worked with different academics during their teacher education process and were working in different schools. As discussed in the review of the literature, Kubanyiova's work does not mention explicitly the word agency, although many of the concepts expressed in her LTCC have to do with the development and enactment of agency. For this reason, Priestley et al.'s (2015a; 2015b) Ecological Agency Model concepts were utilised in combination with Kubanyiova's LTCC (2012). For example, Priestley et al.'s (2015a) projective dimension of agency enactment is very connected with Dörnyei's Motivation Learners' Selves theory used by Kubanyiova for her LTCC (2012); equally the iterational dimension of ecological agency reminds us of the

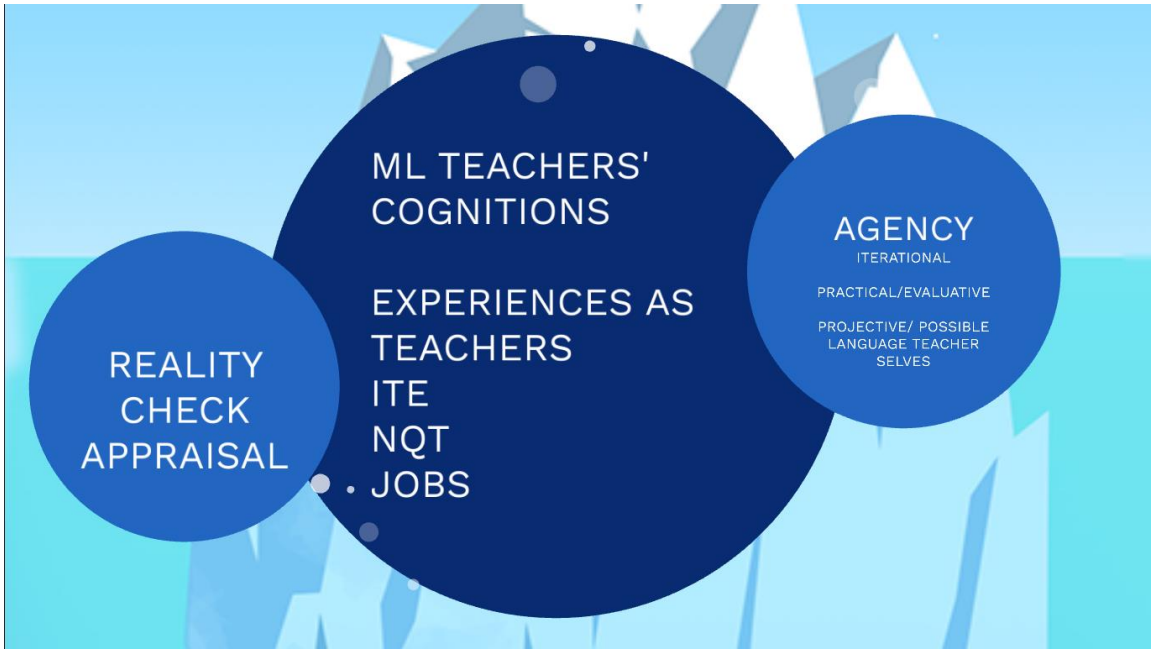
ML teachers' epistemologies and finally the practical-evaluative dimension is reflected in the contextual constraints on teachers. The following framework was therefore designed to analyse the teachers' perceptions of what helped them to develop their interactive practices, and the visual representation intends to portray the connectedness of the ML teacher cognitions with the enactment of agency. ML teachers' development of their cognitions in CLT seemed to go hand in hand with their enactment of agency and what Kubanyiova defined as 'reality checked appraisal', that is, a mix of the professional traits which were developing to different extents depending on their enactment on agency, and which would lead them towards their ideal teacher self - the issue at the heart was to tap into their perceptions of what ideal teacher self they strived to be (Kubanyiova, 2012). The different components table 4.10: ML Teacher Development; ML Teachers' Cognitions; Reality Check Appraisal and Agency are available as a Prezi presentation and the different components are also available as screenshots in Appendix nine. A visual representation of the development of ML pedagogy and interactive practices can mirror that of the tip of an iceberg. In order to gain in depth insights of teachers' ideal, ought to or feared-selves (Kubanyiova,2012) it is necessary to go deep inside underneath the surface.

**Table 10 and Appendix 9: Early Career ML Development Framework**



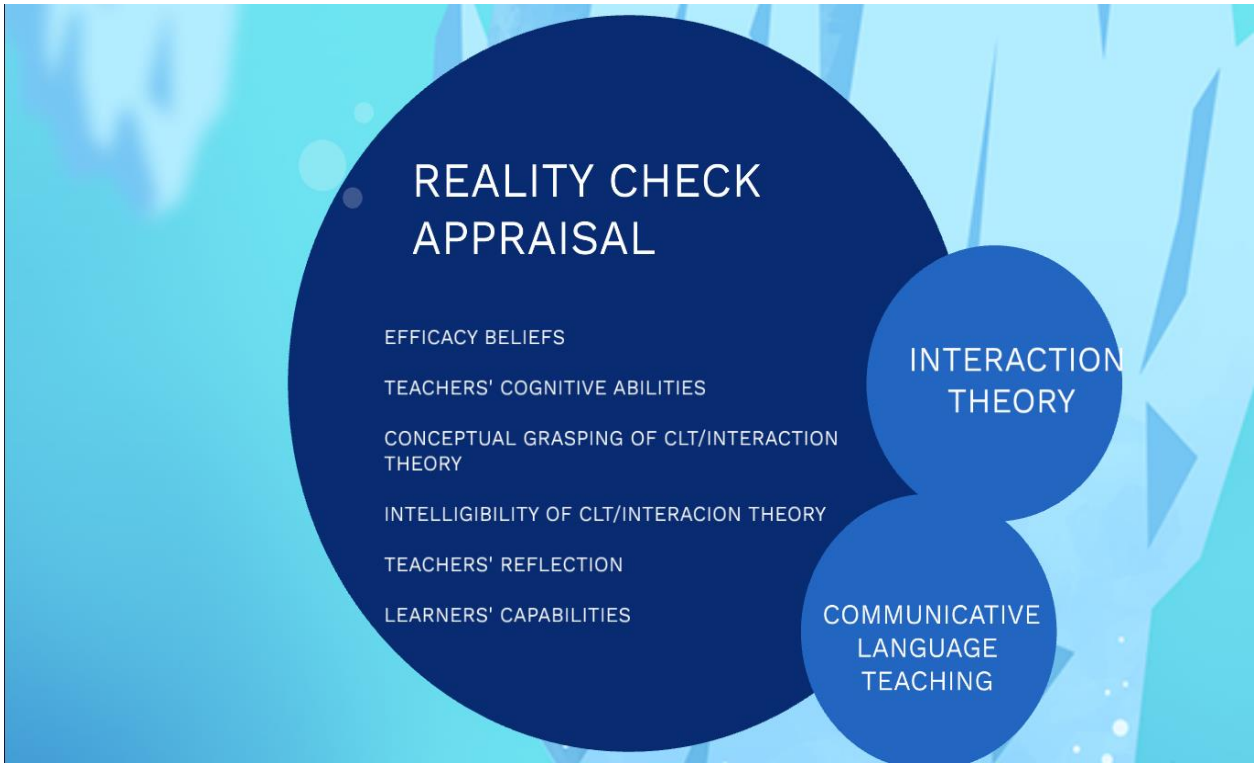




Early Career Teachers will draw from their experiences as ITE students and NQTs, and their first jobs to continue developing their PCK. However, overall, teachers' cognitions are not always visible, hence in the illustration they are partly under water. It might be more or less apparent whether they are able to 'do' agency, in the ecological sense, (Priestley et al., 2015a; 2015b), therefore some aspects of professional space are also halfway in and halfway out of water.




All the processes involved with the reality check appraisal are difficult to articulate for early career teachers, and arguably for most teachers, especially as they become more intuitive, moving from reflection on action to reflection in action (Schön, 1983).

The literature review has established that, in terms of Interaction Theory, I decided to deploy Gass and Mackey's IA (2006) as it is based on a comprehensible collection of contemporary SLA theories; and for CLT, Dörnyei's Principled Communicative Approach (2009) also provided a clear rationale of the state of current affairs for communicative teaching and learning. This framework will be used in Chapter Six as it analyses the teachers' perceptions of development of interactive practices. Appendix nine provides all the screenshots of the Prezi presentation.




### 4.8 Emerging Themes

The Early Career ML Teachers Development Framework was a useful tool to arrive at the emerging themes for analysis regarding the second research question: *What affordances and constraints impacted on the conceptual development of the ML pedagogy of the teachers in the study?* The emerging themes in this area which will be analysed in Chapter Six are: agency and professional space; ML PCK and the interplay of Curriculum, Assessment and Pedagogy, linked with Gass and Mackey's (2006) IA.

With regards to the first research question: *In what ways is interaction in SLA theory consonant with the ML classrooms studied in Scotland?* the emerging themes arrived at through the process of coding described in section 4.6.4 are: Ping-pong interaction within Gass and Mackey's (2006) IA and Dörnyei's PCA (2009a); the alignment (or lack of) Curriculum, Assessment and Pedagogy (C/A/P) and linked to this emerging theme, also, the flow between the skills of listening, talking, reading and viewing; and finally the role of target language use within Assessment is for Learning (AifL). These emerging themes will be discussed in Chapter Five.

## 4.9 Validity and Reliability

In an interpretivist epistemology, validity notions involve recognising that the accuracy of the data gathered depends on the validity of the methods and on the integrity of the researcher (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). A number of qualitative researchers in the social sciences suggest that the concept of 'trustworthiness' is a better term when addressing issues of validity and reliability (Creswell and Miller, 2000; Lincoln and Guba, 1985). As explored in the epistemology and ontology section, in a study situated in an interpretivist paradigm, the researcher is not separated from the data collected, and which is needed to explore real word situations (Creswell, 2014). All research is interpretative, and the focus is placed on the self-reflectiveness of the researcher, and how she/he is interpreting the findings whilst being aware of his/ her own epistemology (Creswell, 2007).

In qualitative research, the validation of findings is linked to the researcher using strategies such as triangulation (Creswell, 2014). Reliability does not rely on replicability but on multiple sources of data, type and methods of collection. In the case of this research study observations as well as formal interviews and informal discussions provided triangulation to ensure as much as possible, the various data sets provided a clear picture of the issue.

## 4.10 Ethical Discussion

In this study, the need to treat the four teacher participants and the learners observed with respect and according to ethical principles was of paramount importance. Research ethical codes of practice usually follow the Kantian Moral Philosophy of respect for persons (Evans and Jakupec, 1996). Social research usually takes a rights-based framework, which takes as its starting point the rights of the individual and her/ his entitlement to respect and protection from harm whilst participating in research studies (Alderson and Morrow, 2011). This research followed the British Sociological Association (2002) principles. Teachers were aware of the nature of the research and they had their right to withdraw from the study at any time, without providing any reason.

In a paper on conceptualising the practitioner doctorate, Lester (2004) refers to the different modes of knowledge creation, comparing a PhD with an Ed-D.

> *PhD programmes are based in a sequential philosophy that sees research as being applied to practice in one way relationship. They approach professional practice from the perspective of the researcher working on a practice situation, rather than from that of the practitioner working within it. In contrast, in Ed D programmes, research and practice coexist in a cyclic or spiral relationship, where knowledge is created and used by practitioners in the context of their practice* (Lester, 2004:758).

My context in ML ITE resonates with Lester's conceptualisation of knowledge creation in a cyclical spiral rapport between research and practice. However, there were further ethical considerations to be taken into account linked to the professional integrity of the teacher participants in the study. Smith (1997) argues that all kinds of participant observation take time and commitment, offering opportunities to generate new understandings and to build theories. The teachers' interpretation of classroom interaction in the target language were seen as as valuable as the theoretical underpinnings of SLA theory in interaction. The point of view of the teacher, their perceptions and opinions of their emerging pedagogies, were at the heart of this study. Nevertheless, as Smith (1997) has described ethical considerations such as power relationships between researcher and participants and paternalism needed to be taken into consideration. Borg (2003) has reported that in the field of TESOL the rapport between researchers and teachers is not a convivial one. Borg described it as 'a static disjunction characterised by an awkward silence and seen as the subject of extensive agonising within our field' (Borg, 2003:1). Kubanyiova (2015) and Kubanyiova and Feryok (2015) have offered advice on how to reduce the power distance between teacher and researcher. Although their advice was intended for researchers outwith teacher education, who might not have access to certain networks, and therefore, might have to work harder to build that culture of trust, their advice was nevertheless taken into consideration in this study:

1) I avoided long conversations and alignment with individuals in positions of authority, for example, with Headteachers, Depute-headteachers or Heads of Department when I visited the schools to conduct observations. Any such conversations took place in front of the teacher participants in order to maintain an open and transparent ethos.

2) I avoided showcasing knowledge, particularly about ML teaching, to minimise the possibility of being seen as a 'know-it-all'. As discussed in the section on questioning, I offered at times research to show disjunctions between classrooms and theory (for example a high percentage of teachers do not use the target language) and I wrote plain language statements avoiding theoretical terms that the teachers might not have been familiar with.

3) I spent 'down time' in areas where the teacher participants usually went, for example the ML bases or staff rooms, to have conversations on other topics, not only learning and teaching conversations.

4) I was aware that certain visible actions such as note taking could place emphasis on my role as researcher. For this reason, no notes were taken during informal nor formal interviews with the teacher participants. Notes were taken afterwards on the same day as soon as possible.

5) I avoided evaluating the participants' teaching, even when they asked for feedback. As already discussed in the observations section, I often tried to turn the focus of the conversation back to the teacher participant, with questions such as: 'tell me a bit more the reasons for doing that'. At times I said 'I think, I might have done something similar' after the teacher expressed her or his views on the matter, which was intended to be a way of acknowledging their expertise.

6) Finally, Kubanyiova (2015) suggests that the researcher has to be ready to accept that, despite how hard he might try, he might not be able to close the power distance gap between researcher and participants in the study. Thus, I kept in mind that the participants were trying to 'please' me with the answers given. This had to be taken into account given the focus of the study in early career teacher development, so as to be able to disentangle the teacher participants' ideal self from their perceived opinion of what I thought they should look like.

This chapter has discussed the steps taken to provide as clear as possible an analysis of the teachers' interactive moves in the target language in the classroom, and their perceptions of development. It has offered a discussion in terms of ontological, epistemological, methodological underpinnings to show the decisions taken for the methods used. Finally, it has provided justifications for the analysis and the steps taken in the coding process and the ethical considerations which had to be taken into account. The next chapters provide details of the findings of the study, within the frameworks reviewed in the literature chapter.

## Chapter Five: Analysis and Findings

**In what ways is interaction in SLA theory consonant with the ML classrooms studied in Scotland?**

### 5.1 Introduction

This chapter will present findings and discussion of the four case studies in this dissertation with regard to the first research question *'In what ways is interaction in SLA theory consonant with the ML classrooms studied in Scotland?'* Clear references to SLA theory and especially to Gass and Mackey's IA (2006) and Dörnyei's PCA (2009a) are made explicitly throughout this chapter, however there are other times in which links to theory are implicit in the interest of keeping the flow of the narrative.

As explained in the methodology chapter, informal conversations with the teacher participants in between classes, coffee break or lunch took place throughout the one year study and in depth semi-structured interviews took place after all the observations had taken place, that was, one year after the beginning of the study. Whilst the informal conversations were used to make sense of the observed realities of the now and then, the semi-structured interviews allowed me to seek to establish pedagogical patterns and perceived PCK understanding, and whether there had been any conceptual change or development since the participants' ITE years. Chapter Six will analyse the findings regarding the second research question: *'What affordances and constraints impacted on the conceptual development of the ML pedagogy of the teachers in the study?'*

In the informal conversations the participants engaged in talk without a lot of prompting, but in the final semi-structured interviews I highlighted patterns I had observed and asked for further clarification to make sense of the pedagogical practices of the teacher participants at that given point. The participants had understood the research was looking at their use of interactive practices as part of CLT, so it is possible that they were conducting their classes with raised awareness of their interactive practices. The informal conversations and semi-structured interviews, as explained in the methodology section, will feed into this chapter as the observations only make sense with the explanations

attached to them given by the participants. As explained in the ontological and epistemological reflections in the methodology chapter, I was interested in establishing whether there were patterns of development of change of the teacher participants over the year.

This chapter will show the analysis, findings, and discussion of the observations intertwined with the participants' insights extracted from the in-depth interviews and the informal conversations over the one-year study, regarding the rationale of their use of pedagogies in the classroom. The four teacher participants, Mary, Rose, Juliette and Yannick will be discussed in an order which helps the discussion unfold to explore the 'how' and 'why' questions (Carter, 2017) within the different emerging themes. An overview of the emerging themes is offered in the following section.

## 5.2 Emerging Themes

As identified in the methodology, in the area of interaction an important finding will be discussed under the heading of **'ping-pong interaction'**. This will be discussed first. It seems that the 'ping-pong' observed scheme of interaction departs from the IRE/IRF (Coulthard,1975; Wiliam and Jones, 2008) so it could be argued that while the interaction frameworks reported in SLA theory still fit well for laboratory studies in which the researcher explores interaction in dyads or triads and might start the interaction as well as providing feedback, it was not characteristic of the pupil-centred classrooms in the study with 30 learners in which all of them partook in interaction. Thus, SLA theory does not quite reflect what happened in these four Scottish classrooms in terms of interaction in the target language. The role of technology in ping-pong interaction will also be discussed in this section.

This section offers an analysis of the observed interaction through the lens of Gass and Mackey's (2006) IA, investigating the connection between input, output, pushed output and feedback, and the iterative re-shaping of the scaffolding to support learners in their ZPD. The section will also explore cognitive factors of pupils such as the role of attention and working memory as observed in the classroom. As argued in the methodology chapter, in order to do

this in a more systematic manner, by situating the IA within the CA, Dörnyei's PCA (2009a) has been used as a framework to analyse the classroom practice and interaction observed. This was deemed a reasonable approach to ascertain the extent to which theory was reflected in the practices of these teachers.

Secondly, another emerging theme within the interaction, was the washback effect of high stakes exams and **the lack of alignment between Curriculum, Assessment and Pedagogy (C/A/P).** This was both observed and expressed by the four teacher participants. This apparent lack of alignment traverses both research questions as it links to the conceptual development of the teacher participants, however, it will be discussed in terms of interaction first.

Thirdly, an emerging theme was linked to the teacher's Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK) related to the ways of linking the four skills to learning a language, and the **flow** or **lack of flow between listening /talking /reading /writing**. This theme was connected with the question of alignment between C/A/P.

Finally**, Assessment is for Learning (AifL)** and the different approaches teachers took to implement it, will be discussed, focusing on the use and role of the target language within AifL.

### 5.3 Overview of the Four Teacher Participants

Mary, Rose, Juliette and Yannick were all under 26 at the time of this study. Mary and Rose were Scottish nationals and Juliette and Yannick were from another European country. The four teacher participants had an undergraduate degree in French and Spanish and had studied a one year PGDE in Scotland. They were all observed teaching a variety of French and Spanish classes at BGE and Senior Phase levels, that is junior and senior classes. Every class was observed, at least, three times over the year. The following sections provide an overview of the four teachers. The four teachers have been presented in this overview according to target language use. Mary and Yannick used the target language to a similar extent, and they have been grouped for this overview.

### 5.3.1 Mary and Yannick

Mary's and Yannick's classes could be described as highly interactive, with a high target language use by learners and teachers, across BGE and Senior Phase classes, following Stern's dimensions (1983), crosslingual/crosscultural, and a mixture of explicit and implicit learning, but with more experiential than analytical learning. It seemed that the observed classes were well aligned with Dörnyei's PCA, (2009a). However, although I observed that they used the target language consistently, both teacher participants acknowledged that they thought learners should get even more exposure to the target language and have more opportunities for focused interaction.

Mary and Yannick made use of many frameworks to enable pupils to take part in as many interactions as possible. For example, in Mary's class every pupil in every class had a 'round the clock partner', so Mary would say: *'ahora os toca hablar con vuestra cita de las* 3' (go to your 3'clock speaking date) and three minutes later: *'ahora buscad a la cita de las 3:3*0'. In this way all pupils changed speaking partners continuously. Throughout the one year of observations, it was noted how pupils stood up at different times throughout the one hour lessons very naturally in order to engage in speaking exchanges with their 'talking dates'. It seemed clear that this was a well-established routine as pupils did not look in their exercise books to find their 12 different speaking peers (o'clock, five past, ten past and so on). In my experience as a teacher educator, having pupils moving around 'freely' in the classroom tends to happen quite a lot in primary schools but pupils tend to become very quickly accustomed to the secondary regime in which they might have to ask for permission to stand up. This notion of pupils going around the classroom 'making noise' will be further discussed with Rose, whose views on 'behaviour management' prevented her from implementing certain approaches to interaction.

Yannick had different frameworks to engage learners in talking tasks. In Yannick's classrooms, ability grouping and differentiated work from S1 was very noticeable and different groups of learners had different work to do in the class from junior up to senior learners.

In the N3/4/5 Spanish/French classes (S4) and the Nat 5/ Higher classes I observed, all learners generally took part in the speaking activities proposed by

both teachers, but they did not show the level of enthusiasm perceived with the younger learners. This is in line with what is reported in the literature about pupils' need to save face in the ML classroom during teenage years (Crichton and Valdera Gil, 2017). Both Yannick and Mary played Spanish or French background music during the talking activities which were not teacher led, so pupils could not overhear others, or the teacher correcting others.

Throughout the observations, the high level of target language used by the teachers and the pupils in Mary's and Yannick's classes was noticeable. French and Spanish were used by teachers and pupils for transactional classroom language use (calling the register, instructions, pupils asking for permissions, questions) but also as an integral part of most activities, including explanation, performance of exercises, correction and bringing the learning together at the end of the activity. All the observed lessons included a mixture of the four language skills. It was noticeable that the element of talking underpinned all the other three skills, and, no matter the nature of the activity, pupil and teacher interaction in the target language was central to the development of the different activities. Following the ACTFL classification of communication as interpersonal, interpretive and presentational, it was observed that there was more interpersonal communication (listening and talking) than interpretive (reading) and presentational (writing), and that, for interpretive communication, the teachers helped with the target language and a set of prompts such as gesture, intonation, asking learners and providing prompts. In the same way, when learners were presenting their written text to their peers there was interaction in the target language to make sense of the language.

### 5.3.2 Juliette

Juliette's classes could be described as highly interactive in the target language and mostly aligned with all of Dörnyei's PCA seven principles (2009a). Juliette used the most target language of the four teacher participants in this study. Using Stern's three dimensional pedagogies (1983), her practice was situated in the intralingual and intracultural axis mainly, especially with seniors, although there was L1 and L2 translation, in line with the crosslingual and crosscultural dimension.

In the observed lessons French and Spanish were used throughout the full lesson including, for example, grammar explanations when focusing on form. Juliette mentioned informally after the observations that she wanted her pupils to feel as if they were in a French or a Spanish speaking country when they entered her classroom. Although no approach to measuring the exact percentage of target language used in the observations was taken, it appeared that roughly 90% of Juliette's speech aimed at the whole class was in the target language. When talking to individual pupils there was a mixture of the target language and English. This compares to Mary's and Yannick's use of 50-60% and Rose's use of approximately 30%.

Overall, the pupils in Juliette's classes appeared to have what could be described as a '**target language mind-set**'. Pupils seemed to understand all the exercises at hand whether they were tasks or activities, and they were not afraid of saying if they did not understand something. It was noted that pupils were 'guessing' a great deal of the time, translanguaging with the teacher and amongst themselves. There were observed routines in which pupils did not have to concentrate very much on the content of the target language when the teacher was giving instructions, but there were many instances in which pupils were engaging with a topic or linguistic structure for the first time through target language use and they seemed equally engaged and focused. Interestingly, pupils seemed to have accepted that their teacher was going to use the target language as much as possible and they were there to speak in French or Spanish as much as possible; pupils' strategies included asking for help in the target language to another group member and making eye contact with the teacher to work out what she was telling them. Most interestingly, Juliette mentioned that she had been extremely proud on a couple of occasions when she had been absent, her pupils had passed on comments to her colleagues such as: *'Miss X does that using French'; 'Miss X would have explained that in French'; 'Miss X would have made us say that in Spanish'.* This sense of learners' understanding the importance of target language use and their desirability to use it, gave me the idea of target language mind-set at the time of the observations. The concept of the target language mindset will be further explored in this section, including the extent to which Juliette was making an impact in her department. Her colleagues had been observing Juliette whilst

teaching and she was recognised among colleagues as professional with a sound pedagogy in terms of target language use. Her Head of Department had asked Juliette to lead several workshops and to speak at departmental meetings about interaction in the target language.

Considering Gass and Mackey's (2006) IA, it was noted that Juliette had developed an array of pedagogical strategies to draw learners' attention, so they noticed the different salient features of the language(s) studied. These strategies included changing voice tone or singing certain parts of sentences when she was using the target language, or writing sentences on the board with certain structures and asking learners to work in pairs or groups to work out rules inductively. Her input in the target language always had an element of difficulty in line with Krashen's (1981) i + 1. There were many opportunities for pupils to engage in conversational tasks to produce rich output which Juliette regulated with different forms of feedback. The tasks led to opportunities for pupils and teacher to ask for pushed output. Motivation seemed to be taken care of because teachers' tasks involved the communication of purposeful messages, which took into account the appropriate level of demand at linguistic and intellectual cognitive level. These interesting topics discussed stimulated discussion and controversy at times among teacher and pupils who took different views. There were a number of different approaches to the tasks at hand which provided pupils with opportunities for repetition and automatisation of language.

Juliette's practice and the intertwined connection of listening, reading and writing skills with interaction through talking in the target language evidenced, firstly, Juliette's understanding that comprehension does not equate to learning. Juliette referred to this in the formal interview and informal discussions when explaining progression in the ML, from understanding language to being able to express oneself, the aim of CLT. Secondly, due to the ping-pong strategies I observed, (which will be analysed later) which provided opportunities for feedback and learning, Juliette's practice showed that managing communication in itself does not guarantee learning either. Therefore, there were different mechanisms to provide pushed output and corrective feedback, mainly in the target language.

It is interesting to contrast Mary's and Juliette's departments: in Juliette's case she said they discussed target language use at departmental meetings, and they observed each other teaching with the focus on target language use. By contrast, Mary's colleagues, after taking over classes which had been taught by Mary for a year, recognised that pupils were for their first time in their teaching careers willing to use French and Spanish in the class (among themselves and to the teacher). Nevertheless, Mary said at the interview that her colleagues told her that they were not going to use the target language more when teaching.

Juliette had an array of techniques to emphasise the role of noticing and drawing the attention of pupils to language development. She could be described as an 'actress on stage': she used a lot of mimicry, humour, gesture, body language and had a vivid expression; she changed her tone of voice, delivery speed, occasionally she ran or danced across the whole classroom. At times she used a lot of visuals, including Power Points or other props and at times she wrote words or drew on the board. Juliette appeared to smile all the time and she used a lot of humour in her classes. In my notes I often wrote 'L' for 'laughter' referring to pupils and teacher, as there seemed to be a lot of spontaneous laughter in her classes. At times the laughing came about from references to cultural or linguistic anecdotes. For example, in a lesson observed on the topic of free time she was referring to the expression going out dancing in French: *'On France, on danse dans une boîte*' and she danced quite mechanically making a square with her hands. One pupil shouted: *'aye, yous dance in a box'* and more pupils laughed. Research into use of humour as part of classroom interactions show that it helps the learners' linguistic development (Bell,2011; Bell,2012) as they are more relaxed and also helps learners remember memorable learning moments. Research also points out that humour helps learners to develop their own voices in the classroom (Hirst,2003) as well as creating a sense of belonging to the class and a better classroom atmosphere more conducive to learning (Talmy,2010).

### 5.3.3 Rose

Rose's classes could be described as highly interactive; however, at times and with certain classes, the interaction took place in English. Target language use was minimal outwith the talking activities the learners undertook and there was a high use of English and translanguaging to address the pupils' apparent lack of literacy and knowledge about language. There was a clear delimitation between the four skills of listening, talking, writing and reading. English seemed to be the main language used by teacher and pupils to set up and discuss listening, reading and writing activities. The target language was rarely used by pupils independently and when used was always directed to some extent by the teacher. Although the ping-pong framework did occur in Rose's observed classes as well, there were important differences linked to target language use.

In most cases, with junior classes, the oral exercises observed could be categorised as activities rather than tasks, and the language in many cases was not personally significant to pupils. Very often interaction in the target language with senior classes was mediated by the use of technology platforms. Yannick equally made use of technology to aid interaction in the classroom. Rose's reasons for not using the target language will be further explored in the following section as well as the extent of the alignment of her teaching with Gass and Mackey's IA (2006) and Dörnyei's PCA, (2009a).

Rose worked in the most socially disadvantaged school of the four in this study. The average SIMD for the school was around decile 3, with a large proportion of students in deciles 1 and 2 and 3 (more than 50% of the school population). This meant that, according to government statistics, the pupils attending this school were the most socially disadvantaged in comparison with the other three schools. The links between social exclusion, social deprivation and educational attainment have been widely researched in the UK (Goodman and Gregg, 2010), and in Scotland (Croxford,2001; McKinney et al., 2012). Gass and Mackey's IA (2006) connects learning with the fact that attention is socially gated, therefore, it is very important to consider the social backgrounds of learners. Rose was the participant who had the most levels of certification taught in the same classes.

As was the case with Yannick, Mary and Rose, the observations indicated that pupils were highly engaged to learn French and Spanish in Rose's classes, and

uptake in the post-compulsory stage had doubled since Rose started in that school, so it might be argued that because Rose had a very outgoing personality and had many strengths in building rapport with pupils, many learners were choosing her subject indirectly because of her. In the senior Spanish class, there were learners studying for qualifications at four different levels, some of whom had never studied Spanish before. For this reason, Rose said she felt obliged to use English for speed and efficiency when organising work for the different levels.

Rose grew up in a similar area in terms of SIMD and her pupils were aware of this. Her beliefs in comprehensive education and the empowerment of education as a life changer were very strong in her discourse to pupils in her day-to-day practice, motivational remarks to pupils, demonstrating a growth mindset narrative often with her own examples, as was also apparent during the informal conversations and in-depth interview. Following Stern's (1983) three dimensional classification, Rose operated in a crosslingual and crosscultural dimension, but more analytic than experiential learning was observed. Stern himself justified the use of L1 and translation if learners had literacy issues with their L1. Returning to Kumaravadivelu's (2006) classification of interaction as textual, interpersonal and ideational, all three seemed to take place in Rose's classroom. Ideology played an important role. For example, on one occasion Rose engaged in a conversation with S2 learners, looking at a map of the World and asking them why they thought Spanish was spoken in those countries in the American continent. She prompted them by asking them why English was spoken in different parts of the world. She initiated a discussion about colonisation and the perceived importance of one language or accent over another, drawing on different attitudes within Scotland and Spain and the learners seemed very engaged.

Having provided an overview of the four teacher participants, the next section analyses and discusses the theme of 'ping-pong interaction'.

### 5.4 Ping-pong Interaction

In Juliette's and Mary's classes, especially, there was a high level of what I coined *'ping-pong'*, meaning short, sharp interactive moves usually initiated by teacher questions but not exclusively. This interaction pattern engaged more than one learner in the same conversational sequence. As part of the ping-pong interactive pattern, learners asked questions and provided feedback to each other. This happened at times at whole class level as a role-model and then in three, four or five mini-groups within the class. Both teachers had the classrooms arranged with learners sitting in groups of four/five learners around a table. Ping-pong moves were also observed with Yannick and Rose, but to a lesser extent. In Yannick and Rose's classes technology aided ping-pong interaction.

The concept of 'ping-pong' in this thesis is used to illustrate the complex nature of teacher input, pupil output, teacher feedback and pushed output as a result of the teachers' and learners' interactive moves which constantly reshaped learners' ZPDs due to the development of their cognitive factors, specifically the role of attention and working memory as outlined by Gass and Mackey's IA(2006). The visual image of a ping-pong match came to my mind when observing these classes. Secondly, this label helped my need to take notes quickly during the observations.

At a first glance, the observed 'ping-pong' practice seemed to resemble Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975) IRF (initiation/response/feedback) pattern or Mehan's (1979a; 1979b) IRE (initiation/response/evaluation) discussed in the literature review, with its different forms: (1) Positive Evaluative Feedback (EFP); (2) Negative Evaluative Feedback (EFN); (3) Teacher repetition of student's utterance (REP); and (4) a speech act leading to more interaction between pupil-teacher. However, when analysing the interaction in-depth, it emerged that the teacher was not always in charge of the initiation, neither was always responding nor providing the evaluation or feedback. This resonates with Crichton's study (2013) of ML secondary classrooms, in which in many instances, the learners, were responsible for the meaning expressed and were the originator of the messages, nor merely respondents to the teachers' questions.

The teachers used role-modeling but quickly passed it on to learners working in pairs, or in groups whilst still providing support when circulating in the class. Adding to Crichton's study (2013), it could be equally argued that the IRF is at odds with the learner-centred pedagogy CLT advocates. Nunan (1989) argued that an issue in classroom pedagogy was the fact that teachers used to be in control asking all questions and that learners did not take the lead in asking those questions. Mary's and Juliette's practices seemed to be more in line with a pupil-centred pedagogy.

Research shows that teacher feedback enhances the student learning of the language in a task (Lyster and Ranta, 1997). SLA research has come to the conclusion that the IRF pattern supports and promotes interaction if the teacher uses 'the third turn' to continue providing further opportunities for interaction rather than using evaluative comments (Hall, 1998; Ohta, 2000). Cullen (2002) identified in his research two main roles of the 'F move', evaluative and discoursal, connected to the focus of the feedback, either on form or meaning. The evaluative or discoursal roles of the F move are shaped by the nature of the activity or task at hand. Cullen's study identified that discoursal feedback had the purpose of picking up students' contributions to incorporate them into the flow of the classroom discourse (Cullen, 2002). As with the teacher in Cullen's study, Mary's and Juliette's questions had a referential function rather than a display function. As in Cullen's study, reformulation, elaboration, comment, repetition and responsiveness were observed with Mary's and Juliette's practices, which seemed effective for follow-up with a discoursal role, which in turn appeared to promote students' pushed-output and further learning.

Kumaravadivelu (2006) problematised learner centered methods typified by CLT as often these methods have a focus on language form which follows a linear model of learner progression. Even though the CA puts an emphasis on interaction and meaning negotiation, there seems to be a tension between meaning negotiation, linear progression, and a class of thirty learners. Due to the large number of cognates used by the teachers, it seemed that at all learners were able to demonstrate meeting the stated learning intentions although a large number of learners were able to respond further to the follow-up teacher questions. On those occasions when there were communication breakdowns the teachers used different feedback strategies to make sure

learners understood the input. Mary and Juliette also asked learners to formulate and re-formulate utterances (metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, recasts, and many clarification requests) in different ways, depending on the level of learner language development. Many learners, at least one per table of 4-5, were able to ask questions themselves, as many of the question formulas were displayed on the classroom walls (Lyster, 2004).

Despite what has been reported in the SLA interaction literature in terms of 'third turn' and 'F' move, it was difficult to match interaction patterns described in research with the observed classroom practice. Mary's and Juliette's practices usually involved the so called third turn, and there was a mixture of evaluative and discoursal feedback, however, they involved more than one pupil at a time, and pupils often also took the lead in the interaction, especially as they moved from whole class to group interaction, and then back to whole class in only two/three minutes. It was noted that the 'I' move did not always depend on the teacher as learners were prompted to pose questions to their peers, and the 'F' or 'E' did not rely on the teacher providing the feedback at all times either as often learners responded to each other, both in terms of the communicative message of the questions asked and in terms of error correction. These interaction moves taken by learners do not seem to match Cullen's teacher initiated third turn. In the case of Juliette, she had soft toys in the classroom which learners threw to each other to indicate talking turns when five or six learners were partaking in talking activities.

In Yannick and Rose's cases, with senior classes, as learners had access to technology, they were able to read peers' oral utterances in their tablets at the same time they were spoken and this approach provided another layer of support for all learners to notice correct use of language as well as a mechanism for peer and teacher feedback.

With senior classes, such as Nat 5 and Higher Spanish and French classes, the classroom discourse constructed by adding different students' contributions to the classroom discourse seemed closer to the one reported in Cullen's study (2002). As the size of the class was smaller, learners and teachers could interact with each other as one big group. However, often students also took the lead in asking questions, and engaged in the feedback. There were occasions in which

learners had a list of detailed questions in the target language, but in other occasions learners had lists or bullet points in English of the questions they had to formulate. The teacher acted often as a moderator as opposed to the holder of the 'right' answer, as more often the focus was on communication rather than form. For example, in one of Mary's lessons the learners were discussing characteristics of good friends, having to rate certain traits of friendship from 1 to 5, and students often argued and disagreed about what made a good friend. Most statements seemed designed to create discussion, for example, 'Friends always tell you the truth' (*Los amigos siempre te dicen la verdad*). The teacher's role in this observed lesson was merely the prompter, but in other occasions learners took on the role of prompter as well: '*¿Y tú? ¿Estás de acuerdo?*' (what about you? do you agree?). On some occasions the teacher played devil's advocate: *'Claro, un amigo te dice siempre la verdad: que mal te queda ese vestido' ( A good friend always tells you the truth: that dress you are wearing is awful*). The main focus at this point was communication and language in use, and then, the teacher moved on to focus on form, as the lesson followed on into direct and indirect object pronouns (*me dice/ te dice* etc).

In the observed use of 'ping-pong' there were usually up to six pupils involved answering the same question or a similar question relating to similar themes as part of the same interactive pattern, for example, '*Qui est le meilleur joueur du tennis, a ton avis?' (in your opinion, who is the best tennis player?)* although at times the full class was involved. In turn, the repetition and listening to others' interaction, seemed to help learners with the process of feeding implicit mechanisms leading to automatisation (Dekeyser, 2001; 2003; 2007) in line with Dörnyei's PCA (2009a).

With junior classes there was a mixture of positive evaluative feedback, negative, positive reinforcement on its own, with focus on form, and discoursal feedback which led to more meaning focused interaction. Both evaluative and discoursal feedback seemed to overlap constantly. To illustrate this, in the model lessons provided in the appendices, the ways in which the teacher used recasts or elicitation moves to get learners engaged with the pronunciation or sentence structure, whilst at the same time they were asking learners to justify their answers can be seen, e.g. '*Pourquoi Nadal n'est pas le joueur du tennis numéro un?' (why Nadal is not the best tennis player?).* The teacher allowed

learners at times to justify their answers about why Nadal was not the best tennis player in English. Socioculturalists posit that the evaluative function of the IRF reflects a constricted transmission model of learning which is at odds with what learning should be in a pupil-centred classroom (Walsh, 2002), as no matter what the learners' answers are, the teacher will always have the last word. Conversely, Cullen's study (2002) and other studies such as Nassaji and Wells (2000) point out that in situations in which teachers avoid evaluative comments and instead ask for justifications or counter arguments, the third move can lead to purposeful learning.

In Mary's and Juliette's observed lessons, discursive feedback was provided at times by the teachers and other times by individual pupils or by the whole class which led to further interaction. This could explain the extent to which pupils were able to provide peer feedback during certain exercises, as they were used to doing this because the teacher role-modeled it constantly as part of her pedagogy. This sort of interactive move (discursive feedback) was at times supported by technology. The role of technology will be further discussed with Rose and Yannick, as it was more prominent in their practice.

The prevalent IRF or IRE interactive pattern within the CA has been criticised because, as reported in the literature, the teacher provides the great majority of the initiation moves and it fails to give students opportunities to ask questions, choose topics of their interest or to negotiate meaning (Nunan, 1989). In Yannick's and Rose's observed practices, the teacher was still the person initiating most of the time and providing the feedback or evaluation. In Rose's case, there was a lot of interaction, although in English. Regularly, Rose asked closed questions and learners responded in the target language to what the teacher was asking them to say in English. In Yannick's case, as the learning seemed to be differentiated by group work there was less full class interaction, but the interaction pattern still seemed to mirror the IRF/E.

By contrast, the 'ping-pong' interactive moves and the different follow up strategies to offer further interactive moves among pupils such as 'round the clock date' observed in Mary's practice and the soft toys thrown around the class in Juliette's case, seem to depart from the IRF pattern. Thus the 'traditional' IRF pattern was not evident in their classrooms.

Following Black and Wiliam's influential work on assessment and learning (1998). Jones and Wiliam (2008) pointed to the benefits of the IRF pattern in the ML classroom as a pattern to promote interaction in the classroom. They argued that the IRF pattern helps student self-regulation of learning, and the creation of next steps based on teacher feedback. Looking at the four teacher participants' practices, it might seem that in a post-method period there are many variations of the IRF/IRE or the 'F' turn, so teachers have themselves intuitively overcome the issue of learners taking the lead asking questions. When talking informally with the four teachers about this, and later at the interviews, they acknowledged that a reason was to keep learners involved and interested. The four of them concurred that these sorts of interactions helped exercising learners' memories, so they were learning in the class, at times by listening to the same utterances over and over in different answers from their peers. The 'ping-pong' interaction scheme is a very important finding of this study, as the IRF/IRE might still be pertinent and used for interaction in laboratory studies, in dyads or triads interaction sequences. However, it appears that the IRF/IRE interaction scheme does not fully apply to highly interactive learner-centred secondary classrooms. In this sense, it could be highlighted that these classrooms did not fully reflect the interaction patterns highlighted in SLA theory, such as IRE/IRF (Sinclair and Coulthard,1975; Mehan,1979a; 1979b) nor that suggested by Jones and Wiliam in the AifL Inside The Black Box ML series (2008). Instead teachers found ways of encouraging learners to initiate, respond and provide feedback amongst themselves as part of the classroom interactive moves.

Sections 5.4.1 to 5.4.4 offers observed examples of ping pong. Section 5.4.5 discusses the role of technology withing ping pong interaction and finally section 5.4.6 discusses ping-pong interaction within Gass and Mackey's IA (2006) and Dörnyei's PCA (2009a).

### 5.4.1 Juliette: An example of ping-pong with a S4 French class

This S4 French class were studying the topic of family and friends and family relationships. Learners were given each a worksheet with sixteen boxes with descriptions about young people and their rapport with family and friends. Within each box was text describing a person's relationships. A sample text follows:

*'Je m'appelle Serge. J'ai un frère ainé adorable, qui s'appelle Philippe. Il est très marrant et travailleur. Je m'entends bien avec mes parents, même s'ils sont assez démodés, mais quand-même ils sont gentils et tolérants. Je me dispute quelquefois avec mes parents au sujet de mes fréquentations'*. (My name is Serge. I have an older brother who is adorable, his name is Phillippe. He is very funny and hardworking. I get on well with my parents, even if they are quite old-fashioned, but, even so, they are nice and tolerant. I have arguments at times with them because of the friends I go out with).

Juliette started reading the beginning of sentences from the text boxes at random and learners had to guess to whom she was referring, and complete her sentences. Some boxes contained similar language and at times learners did not guess the correct person until the third sentence was read out by Juliette. Juliette read the sentences very slowly, focusing a lot on pronunciation, varying intonation within different elements of the sentences. This is an extract of the interaction I noted as ping-pong, with translations in English after each utterance in brackets:

Juliette: Je m'entends bien…, Learner 1 (I get on).

Learner 1: Je m'entends bien avec mon frère ( I get on well with my brother).

Juliette: Banane! (Sorry, you got it wrong!).

Learner 1: Zut! (Oh, dear !).

Juliette: On continue. Je me dispute quelquefois avec….. Learner 2 (we keep going. I argue at times with…).

Learner 2: Je me dispute quelquefois avec mon frère ainé… (I argue at times with my older brother…).

Juliette: Eh, non ! Je suis desolée, alors…. Mon frère ainé est adorable, marrant et…..  (Nope, sorry !, so…. My older brother is adorable, fun and…).

Learner 3: Mon frère aineé est adorable, marrant et travailleur. (My older brother is adorable, fun and hard working…).

Juliette: Bravo, Learner 3 ! C'est à toi! (Great, it's your turn now).

After playing this game as a whole class activity a couple of times, learners were instructed to play it with their groups. Juliette put a lot of emphasis on pronunciation, offering support with body language and miming some actions to make sure learners understood the language used, and at times used translanguaging to check L1 understanding, such as asking other learners to translate into English certain French sentences or words. On my notes I referred to Dörnyei's PCA third and fourth principles, that is, controlled practice and focus on form, but also, because of the focus on pronunciation, there was a lot of language exposure (principle number six). The follow up to this task was for learners to write about their own relationships with their families. Then, learners were asked to close their notebooks and Juliette initiated questions, which I noted again as ping-pong interaction.

1. Juliette: Alors, Learner 4, tu t'entends bien avec tes parents ? (so, do you get on well with your parents ?).
2. Learner 4: Je ne m'entends bien avec tes parents (I don't get on with your parents).
3. Juliette: Ah, bon ! Tu t'entends bien avec <u>mes parents</u> ? (So, you don't get on well with <u>my</u> parents?).

Learner looked confused.

4. Juliette: Mes parents habitent on France. Ils s'appellent Thomas et Jeanne. (My parents live in France. They are called Thomas and Jeanne).
5. Learner 4: Je ne m'entends bien avec mes parents (I don't get on well with my parents).

6. Juliette: Oh, c'est dommage ! il y a quelque chose à changer dans la phrase de Learner 4 Je ne m'entends MMMM bien avec mes parents. Vas-y Learner 5 ( What a shame ! There is something to be changed in Learner 4's sentence. I don't MMM get on well with my parents. What is it Learner 5?)

7. Learner 5: Je ne m'entends pas bien avec mes parents. (I don't get on well with my parents).

8. Juliette: Bravo, bravo pour la phrase, mais c'est dommage ! Moi, j'adore mes parents. Mais, quand j'étais plus jeune, je suis toujours très très jeune, ce n'était pas bien ! Et vous ? Pourquoi vous vous disputez avec vos parents, Learner 6 ? (Well done, well done for the answer, although it is sad. I love my parents, however, when I was younger, I am still very very young, we did not get on well. And you? Why do you argue with your parents, Learner 6?).

9. Learner 6: Au sujet de mes fréquentations, et toi, Learner 7 ? (Because of my friends, and you, learner 7?).

10. Learner 7: J'aime sortir ( I like to go out).

11. Juliette: Learner 7, et ? Tu rentres tard ? Jamais de bonne heure? (You get back home late ? never early?).

12. Learner 7: Oui, je rentre jamais de bonne heure (That's it, I never come home early).

13. Juliette: Ah, je MMMM rentre jamais de bonne heure. Regarde la fiche du travail Learner 7, en fait tout le monde ! (Ah, I MMM come home on time. Have a look at your worksheet, in fact, everyone have a look).

14. Learner 8: Ah, je ne rentre jamais de bonne heure (I never come home early).

15. Learner 9: Je me dispute avec mes parents de l'internet (I argue with my parents about the internet).

16. Juliette: Ah, je me dispute avec mes parents au sujet/ à cause de l'internet (Ah, I argue with my parents because of the internet).

**17.** Learner 9: Je me dispute avec mes parents au sujet de l'internet.

**18.** Juliette: Attention ! Dispute/ parents/ sujet/ internet (Teacher wrote words on the board and asked learners to think about the pronunciation of those words).

In this extract, in terms of feedback, there are examples of clarification requests, for example in sentences 3 and 4; elicitation, in sentence 6; recasts, in sentence 16; metalinguistic feedback, in sentence 13; reformulation, in sentence 7. There are examples in which the students asked the questions, as in sentence 9. This extract exemplifies the different strategies Juliette used to obtain pushed output from learners, as well as the scaffolding and practising of language which took place during controlled-practice (Dörnyei's PCA number three) and Focus on Form (principle number four), especially in sentence 18, sounding out words with all the learners in the class.

In a previous lesson Juliette had conducted a listening task in which many of these family relationship expressions were translated from French to English, but this lesson showed that comprehension in itself does not guarantee learning, and that learning was taking place in the interaction – as proposed by Gass and Mackey's IA tenets (2006).

### 5.4.2 Yannick: An example of ping-pong with a S3 Spanish class

Yannick was teaching a beginners' Spanish class about likes/dislikes and free time/hobbies. The talking task below exemplifies one of the moments where I noted ping-pong in my observation notes. This was the second lesson on this topic but the first one I observed. To start with, all learners had a card attached to the bottom of their chairs with a hobby written on it in Spanish. Yannick took a card he also had underneath his chair and made a sentence out of the card: ¡Sorpresa! ¡Veamos! Tengo 'bailar salsa', pues, a mí no me gusta bailar salsa (Surprise! Let's see! I've got ' to dance salsa' well, I don't like to dance salsa). Yannick also put his thumb down to show the gesture of 'not liking' and moved as if he was dancing salsa. Then he asked learners whether they liked dancing salsa to practise those structures of language and questions, which were also shown on the board.

He continued by asking four learners at random to engage in a similar kind of verbal presentation, reading their cards, asking the rest of the class to put their thumbs up or down and to do a gesture/movement/ to show understanding of the different utterances. exchange. Then, he split the class into pairs which interacted with each other asking and responding to questions based on the stimulus:

> Learner 1: Me gusta nadar en la piscina, ¿Y a tí, Learner 2, te gusta? (I like to swim in a swimming pool, what about you, Learner 2, do you like it?)
>
> Learner 2: No, no me gusta nadar en la piscina. ¿Y a tí, Learner 1, te gusta la música chill-out? (I don't like swimming in the pool, what about you, Learner 1, do you like chill-out music?)

Then the learners moved on to someone else:

> Learner 2: Me encanta la música chill-out. ¿Y a tí Learner 3? (I love chill-out music, what about you, learner 3?)
>
> Learner 3: No me gusta nada la música chill-out, pero me gusta ir al gimnasio, ¿Y tú, Learner 2, te gusta ir al gimnasio? (I don't like chill-out music at all, but I like going to the gym, what about you, learner 2, do you like going to the gym?)
>
> Learner 2: A mí me gusta ir al gimnasio, sí. (I like going to the gym, yes.)

At times he brought all the learners together, encouraging learners to be very theatrical, putting on a 'Spanish accent', modelling the pronunciation of some of those hobbies. Formulaic language was also included as the learners were encouraged to learn likes and dislikes as chunks.

The last task in the lesson was a guessing game. Yannick split the class into four groups. Learners were given very similar cards describing their own likes and the likes of someone else in the group that they had to identify, by asking questions about likes and dislikes with regard to hobbies written on the card. The fact that the cards were so similar meant the learners had to ask many questions to find

their match which brought the image of ping-pong to mind. This is an overview of the cards:

| Card 1 | Card 2 | Card 3 | Card 4 |
|---|---|---|---|
| A tu amigo le gusta:<br><br>Nadar en la piscina e ir al gimnasio tres veces a la semana<br><br>Escuchar música heavy-metal, dar paseos por la playa y comer helados de chocolate | A tu amigo le gusta:<br><br>Nadar en la playa e ir al gimnasio a clase de zumba dos veces a la semana<br><br>Escuchar música chill-out, tocar la guitarra flamenca y comer helados de vainilla | A tu amigo le gusta:<br><br>Nadar en la piscina e ir al gimnasio cuatro veces a la semana<br><br>Escuchar música heavy-metal, dar paseos por la playa y comer helados de fresa | A tu amigo le gusta:<br><br>Nadar en la playa e ir al gimnasio a clase de spinning dos veces a la semana<br><br>Escuchar música chill-out, tocar la guitarra eléctrica y comer helados de vainilla |
| A ti te gusta:<br><br>Nadar en la playa e ir al gimnasio a clase de zumba dos veces a la semana<br><br>Escuchar música chill-out, tocar la guitarra flamenca y comer helados de vainilla | A ti te gusta:<br><br>Nadar en la piscina e ir al gimnasio tres veces a la semana<br><br>Escuchar música heavy-metal, dar paseos por la playa y comer helados de chocolate | A ti te gusta:<br><br>Nadar en la playa e ir al gimnasio a clase de spinning dos veces a la semana<br><br>Escuchar música chill-out, tocar la guitarra eléctrica y comer helados de vainilla | A ti te gusta:<br><br>Nadar en la piscina e ir al gimnasio cuatro veces a la semana<br><br>Escuchar música heavy-metal, dar paseos por la playa y comer helados de fresa |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Your friend likes:<br><br>Swimming at the pool and going to the gym three times a week<br><br>Listening to heavy-metal music, going for beach strolls and eating chocolate ice-creams | Your friend likes:<br><br>Swimming at the beach and going to the gym to a Zumba class twice a week<br><br>Listening to chill out music, playing flamenco guitar and eating vanilla ice-creams | Your friend likes:<br><br>Swimming at the pool and going to the gym four times a week<br><br>Listening to heavy-metal music, going for beach strolls and eating chocolate ice-creams | Your friend likes:<br><br>Swimming at the beach and going to the gym to a spin class twice a week<br><br>Listening to chill out music, playing the electric guitar and eating vanilla ice-creams |
| You like:<br><br>Swimming at the beach and going to the gym to a Zumba class twice a week<br><br>Listening to chill out music, playing flamenco guitar and eating vanilla ice-creams | You like:<br><br>Swimming at the pool and going to the gym three times a week<br><br>Listening to heavy-metal music, going for beach strolls and eating chocolate ice-creams | You like:<br><br>Swimming at the beach and going to the gym to a spin class twice a week<br><br>Listening to chill out music, playing the electric guitar and eating vanilla ice-creams | You like:<br><br>Swimming at the pool and going to the gym four times a week<br><br>Listening to heavy-metal music, going for beach strolls and eating chocolate ice-creams |

### 5.4.3 Mary: An example of Ping-pong with a S1 French class

In this S1 French class, pupils were learning to talk about themselves and their likes and dislikes. The class was arranged in five groups with six pupils each. Mary used a French textbook, used frequently in Scottish schools. In an audio stimulus, French youngsters described themselves, their 'autoportrait', and what they liked and did not like. A large number of cognate words were evident in the stimulus, such as: les consoles de jeux, le sport, les pizzas, le racisme, le hard rock, les animaux, les voyages, le foot, la danse, l'injustice, les mangas, le tennis, les spaghettis, les reptiles, les insectes, la musique, la violence, la poésie, la capoeira or le reggae. After the listening exercise, in which learners had to match images (of the words above) with speakers, Mary started a talking task which I classified as ping-pong.

Mary started off by talking about herself, making some statements, asking learners to guess whether they were true or false. This is an extract of that interaction.

> Mary: J'adore les voyages. Je voyage tout le temps en Espagne, en France, aux Etats-Unis. J'aime les voyages. C'est vrai ou faux ? Learner 1 ? (I love travelling. I travel all the time to Spain, France, the USA. I love travelling. True or false, learner 1?)
>
> Learner 1: C'est vrai ! (It is true!)
>
> Mary: Et vous ? vous êtes d'accord ? c'est vrai ? (what about you/ the rest of the class? You agree? Is it true?)
>
> Learner 2: C'est vrai ! You tell us all the time you go on holidays Miss. (It's true)
>
> Mary: Oui, c'est vrai. Bien joué! Et le foot ? J'adore le foot. (True, well done! What about football? I love football)
>
> Learner 3 put his hand up: Miss, c'est vrai! J'adore Rangers. (It is true, I love Rangers- but learner 3 wanted to say that Mary loved Rangers)
>
> Learner 4 shouting out: No, learner 3, Miss adore Hibs. (No, Miss loves Hibs)

Mary: Ah, oui, j'adore Hibs, mais, toi, Learner 3, tu aimes Rangers ?

Learner 3: Only kidding Miss

Mary: C'est une blague ! Ok, maintenant, c'est à vous. Vous allez travailler à deux, et puis avec quelqu'un dans votre table. (It is a joke ! Ok , now , you are going to work in twos, then with someone else from your table)

Each group had a set of cards with the cognates shown above, and the questions were also noted on the white board. Learners were given five minutes to interact with each other asking whether what they said about their likes and dislikes was true or false, as the teacher had done.

### 5.4.4 Rose: An example of Ping-pong with a S2 Spanish class

As part of a topic on food Rose was working with a second year class on food combinations to engage learners in controlled practice. The learners were learning these combinations as chunks including transactional language to tell what they fancied eating, as well as colloquial language to interact in that context informally. The combinations below were presented on the board as a word cloud, displayed at random. The table below shows the correct combinations. For the first activity learners were chosen at random (names out of a hat) and they had to provide correct matches, for example, 'un bocadillo de jamón y queso' (a ham and cheese roll). Then, the second learner had to pick up another correct food combination, after repeating the first one, for example: 'un bocadillo de jamón y queso'; 'pan con mantequilla' (bread with butter). If a learner got it wrong, the next learner had to start from the beginning. They had five minutes (timed with a timer displayed on the board) to match all the combinations correctly while repeating all the previous ones. If they did so, they were able to choose their favourite song as background noise whilst they were doing a talking task. Otherwise, the teacher chose the music.

| | |
|---|---|
| Un bocadillo ( a roll) | De jamón y queso (ham and cheese) |
| Un café (a coffee) | Con leche (with milk) |
| Los cereals (cereals) | Con frutos secos (with dried fruits) |
| Un café ( a tea) | Con azucar (with sugar) |
| Unas alubias (beans) | Con tomate (with tomato) |
| Un té ( a tea) | Con limón (with lemon) |
| Un yogúr (a yogurt) | Con galletas (with biscuits) |
| Pan (bread) | Con mantequilla (and butter) |
| Un gofre ( a gofre) | De chocolate (chocolate) |

There was a lot of ping-ponging in this activity and the exercise served to build up automaticity. Three learners acted as 'judges' as they had the table with the correct combinations.

Rose: Empieza Learner 1, por ejemplo, un gofre…

Learner 1: Un gofre de chocolate, ahora, Learner 2, un té…

Judge(s): Bien, muy bien

Learner 2: A ver, un gofre de chocolate, un té con limón

Judge(s): Bien, muy bien

Learner 2: Ahora te toca a ti Learner 3, alubias…

Some learners shouted 'that's a wee shame, you could have left him (learner 3) choose

Learner 3: Mmmm, bien, I ken it, un gofre de chocolate, un té con limón, alubias con tomate

Judge: You are on fire boy!

Rose: Muy bien, remember the way we pronounce Spanish 't', you cannot spit, everyone, bite your tongues, 'tomate'. ¡Perfecto!

Learner 3: Ahora toca Learner 4, un yogúr

Learner 4: Miss, how do you say 'it's under control?'

Rose: Bajo control (she wrote it on the board)

Learner 4: Bajo control (not pronouncing it correctly)

Rose: Bajo, as in loch, everyone say 'loch' now, 'bajo'

Learner 4: Bajo control, un gofre de chocolate, un té con limón, alubias con tomate, un yogúr con leche

Judge(s): No, no

Rose: Vaya, ¿un yogúr con leche Learner 4? Leche, leche con cereales, leche antes de dormir (teacher made sleeping gesture with her hand and head). Then they had to start the combinations from the beginning again.

In the next task learners were shown the correct food combinations and they were asked to write two sentences starting with: (1)Tengo ganas de comerme/ beberme ( I feel like eating/drinking); (2)Me comería ahora mismo ( I would eat right now). Then they had to tell their partner what they would like to eat/drink.

The next task consisted in learners at random saying half of the sentences they had written, asking peers to finish them off:

Learner 1: Me comería ahora mismo pan, Learner 5

Learner 5: con mantequilla, y yo tengo ganas de beberme una coca-cola, no me gusta un café con …. Learner 2

Learner 2: Un café con azucar, no tengo ganas de un café con azucar, me comería ahora mismo patatas fritas con …. Learner 3

Learner 3: patatas fritas con tomate kétchup

Rose: Muy bien chicos, ahora vais a trabajar en equipos de cuatro, haciendo conversaciones así, Learner 8, ¿puedes traducir?

Learner 8: You just want us to make this sort of conversations in 4s Miss

The next section looks at the role of technology within ping-pong interaction, especially in Rose's and Yannick's classes.

### 5.4.5 The Role of Technology within Ping-pong Interaction

In most of the observed lessons with senior learners, Rose and Yannick used technology platforms to aid communication for learners in the classroom. In one of Yannick's observed classes, he asked two different groups of students, National 5 and Higher, to write French text individually on their tablets. In the observed classes this practice was linked to the writing component of the Nat 5 and Higher French exams. The Nat 5 students had to address bullet points about a work experience abroad scenario, and Higher students used bullet points to write about a past school trip/ learning experience/ summer job abroad. In one of the observed classes, for example, students were asked to write about what future career plans (Nat 5) and what tasks they had to do during their summer job in France(Higher). An ICT programme allowed Yannick to see what individual students wrote projected onto the interactive white board. This could be seen as a digitalised take on the traditional 'show me boards' approach, but with the differences that all learners' answers did not get wiped out. Teacher and peers could read everyone's contributions on the smart board, so interaction between all learners' written texts was more practical and easier. As learners had more time to read and process their peers' messages they were also more likely to engage fully with everyone else in the class. It could be argued that, if we follow Kumaravadivelu's classification (2006), through the use of technology in the classroom, there was textual and interpersonal interaction happening at the same time. Following the ACTFL classification, all three modes of communication, interpersonal, interpretive and presentational were combined. Textbooks generally follow the linear order of listening, talking, reading and writing exercises. However, in Yannick's observed classes, and as he noted, learners needed 'something to hold on to' to scaffold their speaking. Therefore, interpretive communication (reading to elicit key features), tended to be followed by presentational (learners wrote something) and then interpersonal communication took place (the messages were shared via technology with classmates).

I observed similar approaches related to technology use in Rose's classes. In Rose's cases she used technology to facilitate collaboration and learning between the different groups in the class which had different work, as there were, for example, Nat 4, Nat 5 or Higher Spanish learners in the same class.

When the teacher or learners were reading aloud, differentiation was in place, as there were learners who needed to see the written language whilst others could make sense of the messages by only listening to be able to respond. Rose stated that these techniques supported her learners, easing them into oral communication (listening and talking) through seeing the written text first.

It has been reported in SLA that watching film in the target language and reading the subtitles at the same time in the target language is better for learning language as it improves listening comprehension by turning learners into better listeners by raising their phonetic perception (Vanderplank, 2016). Both Yannick and Rose explained that they used a lot of technology to get learners listening closely to the pronunciation of words and sentences. This is closely linked with the role of explicit learning and noticing (Dekeyser, 2001; Dekeyser, 2003; Schmidt, 1990).

Following the IRE or IRF interactive pattern analysis, Rose and Yannick initiated, and all students responded simultaneously using I-pads. Then, the teacher asked all students to think about the evaluation phase of the IRE/F, so students evaluated each other's work and provided feedback; often students were seen asking questions to each other about what they had written. This interactive practice allowed thinking time and provided students with the written form for all of them to engage in evaluative feedback. This scaffolded approach allowed students to focus on communication and on form by giving them time to think about the messages that were communicated and to notice mistakes. The approach with senior pupils was different from the observed practice with juniors in which students had a written text in the target language before engaging in speaking practice as Rose's junior learners did not evaluate each other's language utterances.

From an organisational point of view, it was manageable for Rose to engage in ping-pong with the senior classes, as, in total, there were twelve students all together and this allowed the teacher to undertake what might be described as a very fluid ping-pong practice. The teacher had time to scan all answers, and to lead the ping-pong interaction when students did not respond. However, it was noted that learners also took the lead, in Crichton's (2013) study terms, they were creators of language, not only recycling language given by the teacher.

Arguably, Rose did not have that time to scan read all pupils' answers with the S2 or S3 classes which had approximately 30 pupils each. It is possibly the reason for those pupils writing smaller paragraphs, but also may be because of their level of language or because they did not have enough language, so she had the time to mark their work at home to provide pupils with feedback.

In the observed lessons with senior students, the teacher did not ask all the questions, and often she prompted students to ask each other, ' *¿Y tú, qué tenías que hacer en tu trabajo?' (What about you? what did you have to do in your job?)*. Although the nature of a bullet points exercise allows the learners to some extent to decide what to write about, for example, 'write about what you did at the weekends', in the observed practice Rose was often very directive in what the students had to write, for example: *'Last weekend I went out to the cinema in Edinburgh with my friends'* and this exercise would take the form of a translating activity. Rose said she did this because she had taught a chunk of language and was checking that the students could reproduce that under 'exam' conditions. In informal conversations she referred to her perceptions of the low self-esteem of learners and lack of literacy development as the reason behind mediating student's responses so precisely. There were observed instances in which one could argue students were 'authoring' language (Goffman, 1981, in Crichton, 2013) which may have been of personal significance to them, but a great deal of translation was also observed. It was noticeable that even if some of the language practised in these observed lessons derived from the need to prepare for the writing exam, Rose was helping learners to construct language which theoretically they could use to talk about themselves. However, this step was never observed.

In the interview Rose reported that she took a similar approach to prepare pupils for oral exams. Although aware of the desirability for students to use the language naturally in the class, for example, to talk about themselves, their likes and opinions, she cited lack of time and exam pressure as factors determining little focused interaction in the target language. The next section situates the 'ping-pong interaction' emerging interactional scheme within Gass and Mackey's (2006) and Dörnyei's PCA (2009a) theoretical frameworks.

### 5.4.6 Ping-pong within Gass and Mackey's IA (2006) and Dörnyei's PCA (2009a)

When observing the four teachers' practices, it was evident that they were aware of the paramount importance of the role of attention in language learning, and, as reported, there were different moves within their communicative pedagogies to create tasks which would draw pupils' attention towards what to learn and how, including the scaffolding of pupils' ZPDs through the intense activity described as ping-ponging. Mackey and Gass (2006) point to the fact that the role of noticing and paying attention is closely linked to cognitive factors which are nurtured and developed within the social factors of the learners.

Motivation is one of those social factors mentioned within their IA. Throughout the observed lessons, it was evident that pupils were highly engaged in learning. Administering pre and post-tests for evidence of change was not within the remit of this study, however, the teachers informally made comments throughout the year about the positive progress of their pupils in formative and summative school testing as well as in national exams. Through parental and pupil demand Spanish had been introduced at school level for all pupils from S1 in Mary's school, which could be seen as evidence of motivation. The rise in participation in school trips abroad could also be judged as an indication of pupil engagement and evidence of an environment that would foster motivation in Juliette's school. High uptake of languages at post compulsory level in Rose's and Yannick's case, could also be understood as a sign of motivation.

Throughout the year, Mary intimated that her colleagues had noticed that the pupils who had been taught by Mary were keener in using the target language in the class. Her colleagues' pedagogy differed as they acknowledged their lack of use of the target language for different reasons linked to perceived social and cognitive factors of the pupils. Her assertion can only be said to reflect her views, as this study did not interview or observe any of her colleagues teaching.

It seemed that Assessment is for Learning pedagogy was intrinsically linked to the four teachers' practices as inter- to intra-mediation, that is, teacher-pupil(s) and pupil(s)-pupil(s) mediation in the form of meta-cognition to help students to learn was observed. With some teachers, for example, Mary and Juliette, this

took place in the target language (with judicious use of English) through the interaction moves discussed in the ping-pong section, whilst Rose and Yannick with certain classes relied heavily on English to help learners. A connection can be made to the development of cognitive factors as outlined in Gass and Mackey's IA (2006) and the fact that the learning of a language at this age helps the development of these cognitive factors.

Rose was observed introducing different topics to different classes in French and Spanish, and the lack of personal language and opinions used by the learners could be said to be typical of the lessons observed. Conversely, this was not the case with the other three teacher participants. It seemed that, once the topic language had been introduced, and after pupils had used it to write about themselves, they participated in oral exercises in which they could resort to their written pieces in a role-play exercise with the pupil sitting next to them. Rose explained informally that, in her opinion, pupils would not be able to cope with 'un-structured' talk without scaffolding, and that she did not interact more with pupils, as she did with national certificate classes as she was worried about the large number of pupils leading to off-task behaviour, losing concentration, or simply not being able to pronounce certain words. In Rose's view, pupils 'practised' the language during whole class games which took place in every lesson to introduce, reinforce or revise vocabulary.

To work on pupils' comprehension skills, Rose used translation exercises, exercises in which pupils had to match pairs, for example, tasks in which pupils had to put conversations in the correct order, games in which pupils had to work out meaning and read out a sentence. It seemed evident that there were many opportunities for controlled-practice, and English was used to make pupils notice and engage in focus on form. With regard to talking activities, pupils always said in the target language what the teacher wanted them to say. 'Controlled-practice' language was never observed as a step for S1 and S2 learners to subsequently engage in meaningful communication (Dörnyei's principle 7). Rose was aware of this, and indicated she would like to have more talking practice in her classes but concerns about potential pupil misbehaviour prevented her.

In terms of Gass and Mackey's (2006) IA, the social factors of the pupils which had shaped their cognitive development in terms of literacy, learning skills and

self-worth could be the explanation for a higher use of English language, as this was needed to draw learners' attention to L2 learning. This could be disputed as Mary, Yannick and Juliette were observed with classes in which pupils had a similar level of literacy, learning skills or self-worth deficiencies, and they seemed to be nurtured into learning through target language use.

In terms of Gass and Mackey's (2006) IA tenets, it was noted that Rose's practice exemplified well the principle that pupils learn only what is noticed. In order to enact this, Assessment is for Learning pedagogy was used in English, to explicitly bridge the gap in pupils' literacy.

It has been noted that comprehension is seen as insufficient for learning (Gass and Mackey, 2006). However, this was not evidenced so clearly in Rose's observed practice. It seemed that a lot of exercises were focusing on pupils' understanding, and once pupils had demonstrated understanding through English, there did not appear to be follow up to support pupils to use the target language extensively. For example, pupils wrote answers to listening exercises in English, and they were marked in English. Conversely, the other teachers would then use the listening exercise as a springboard for further communication in the target language.

Overall, with junior classes the practices of Rose and Mary, Juliette and Yannick differed, as Mary, Yannick and Juliette, especially, created pedagogical opportunities for pupils to engage in talking during practice in all four skills, not only when doing a 'speaking activity'. The lack of target language use in comprehension work could be linked to the influence of high stakes exams, in which reading and listening skills are tested in English. Given the nature of the ML exams in Scotland, the role of L1 in L2 learning would benefit from further study, and this is explored in this thesis when analysing the alignment of Curriculum, Assessment and Pedagogy. The role of comprehension continues to be explored in the following section.

### 5.5 We Learn in Interaction, not in order to Interact

Gass and Mackey's (2006) IA argues that understanding the foreign or ML in itself does not take care of the business of learning or acquisition. Interaction theory

states that we learn through interaction, not in order to interact, (Gass and Mackey, 2006) yet, the observed practice in Rose's classes with junior pupils reflected the opposite: it seemed that pupils learned in order to interact with the teacher and pupils through the support of a given script, which could then be re-produced for a test. It could be argued that the practices observed related mainly to textual interaction as opposed to interpersonal interaction. Conversely, in Mary's and Juliette's cases there were many opportunities for learners to interact in the target language, and fewer in Yannick's classes, but learners were still interacting using unscripted texts in the target language.

Swain (2000) observed when conducting classroom research that teachers needed to create situations in the classroom to provide students with more opportunities to engage in spontaneous verbal output to develop the skills of speaking and writing. Textual interaction is not seen as enough, interpersonal interaction is needed. She noted that language use and language learning co-occur, and highlighted the importance of teacher led pushed output to encourage students to talk more. Whilst Mary's, Juliette's and Yannick's practices would align very closely to Swain's comprehensible output hypothesis (2005), Rose recognised that her practice was to some extent at odds with this principle. She acknowledged informally, throughout the year after the observed classes, that her practice with some classes was 'damage limitation'. In the in-depth interview, Rose explained the nature of her senior classes in which pupils were studying for multiple levels of examination and her class included students who were studying the language for the first time. There were also learners who had been in previous years in classes with very disruptive behaviour and allegedly had not made progress matching their capabilities. Rose's use of English addressed the lack of literacy skills and low self-esteem of some learners, whilst trying to build up language skills and getting learners to catch up with missed learning.

When answering this study's first research question, 'in what ways is interaction in SLA theory consonant with the ML classrooms studied in Scotland?' and more concretely thinking about the learning process (in interaction or in order to interact) it seems that the perceived socio-cognitive capabilities of the learners played a large role in the processes of teaching and learning.Two of the teachers in the study felt that one effective way to scaffold learning a ML in the

classroom was to learn chunks in order to interact. However, these two teachers equally were very focused on attainment and recognised that some of the ways they were organising learning did not represent their ideal-teacher self, but rather a facet of a feared teacher-self in which high stakes exams drove classroom pedagogy. This concept of teacher ideal-self and feared-self will be further discussed in Chapter Six, but at this point, the next section looks at the emerging theme of alignment of Curriculum, Assessment and Pedagogy.

### 5.6 Alignment of Curriculum, Assessment and Pedagogy

The previous sections have highlighted that the four teachers' pedagogical practices appeared to align well with Gass and Mackey's IA tenet (2006) regarding the role of noticing language in L2 learning although the teachers' methods to promote 'noticing' were very different and involved different levels of L1 and L2 use. Some teachers such as Mary and Juliette interacted extensively in the target language with learners to feed their implicit mechanisms (Dörnyei, 2009a). This meant that learners were using and learning language through extensive practice in the class. When subsequent lessons focused on form, learners were prepared to follow more inductive grammar learning methods. Mary and Juliette and to a lesser extent Yannick, (depending on the groups within a class), were observed using AifL strategies both in the target language and in English. The AifL pedagogy observed was in line with what has been reported in the literature as good practice (Hayward, 2015; Hutchison and Hayward, 2005). As discussed, Mary and Juliette used every opportunity to interact with learners in the target language, so any listening or reading task also became an opportunity for learners to use the language, at times in a more controlled-practice setting (Dörnyei, 2009a), at others the students offered their own opinions more freely. In contrast to Mary's and Juliette's approach, in Rose's junior classes, and sometimes in Yannick's case, interaction in the target language was not equivalent to unstructured pupil authored interaction (Goffman, 1981, in Crichton 2013). Instead interaction equalled a 'learnt' piece of text which could be used for assessment purposes, so learners were getting used to using language in routines in order to be successful in high stakes exams.

Nonetheless, in terms of the importance of attainment in high stakes exams, it could be argued that the final outcome for the learners of all four teachers was similar, as their pupils attained a higher number of passes when compared with their equivalent schools in national examinations.

The semi-structured interviews revealed the different pressures Rose perceived she was under in her school at departmental level. Rose's perception was that high stakes exams and the system of accountability and performativity had led the Head of Department and certain members of the department to focus on examination results, pressing pupils to rote learn, rather than providing more exposure to the language used in a natural manner, and therefore impeding the possibility for learners to be able to 'recycle' what they had learnt. Ball (2003) argues, using Dr Faust as an image, that in a neo-liberal hierarchical educational system driven by attainment, the 'evils' of attainment and accountability live side by side with teachers as they are enforced by a managerial system within the teachers' own school systems. The 'evils' have caused educational drawbacks in the UK educational systems in recent decades (Ball, 2003). Ball argues that the attainment and accountability agendas are responsible for the lack of teacher agency, which will be discussed in the next chapter.

It should be noted that Rose experienced professional dissonance as she understood that her practice did not help pupils to learn as much as they might have if she had used the target language. That is, there was a perceived gap between the ought-to, and ideal teacher-self and her current practice (Kubanyiova, 2012). The apparent lack of alignment between Curriculum, Assessment and Pedagogy will be further discussed as it was a very important theme emerging from this research. In other words, it might be that in laboratory studies with university or college students the attainment agenda present in secondary schools does not have such an important effect in the pedagogical enactment of the teachers.

## 5.7 Connectivity of Skills and Alignment of Curriculum, Assessment and Pedagogy

As this study was exploring the interaction taking place in the target language, it was interesting to note that for two of the four teachers, the target language interaction mainly took place when the skill of talking was being explicitly practised. In Mary's and Juliette's cases talking and interacting with learners in the target language was intertwined with all other skills, so there did not appear to be a clear delimitation between receptive and productive skills. This seems to be in line with the CfE curriculum which groups listening and talking together. The emphasis in these classrooms was on communication, and the ACTFL policy guidelines of interpersonal, interpretive and presentational communication would suit the description of Juliette's and Mary's classes. This was not always the case for Yannick's. When he was setting work for different ability groups many instructions were given in English, according to him to save time. In Rose's case, interaction with learners in the target language seemed to get one fourth of the time of the lesson. That was the only time dedicated to practising the skill of talking.

As postulated in Swain's interaction theory (2000), the observation of Juliette's and Mary's classes revealed that language was being learnt in interaction not in order to interact, since the extensive use of the target language underpinned Juliette's and Mary's pedagogies. In this sense Mary and Juliette's practices were closer to each other than those observed in Rose and Yannick's classrooms. Focusing in on interpretative, expressive and negotiation skills, Juliette seemed to strike a more equal balance between these three areas of skill development through her classroom pedagogy than Rose or Yannick. Regardless of the task at hand (listening/reading/writing) there was high use of the target language by means of teacher-pupil and pupils at group level interaction. The classroom seating arrangement appeared to have an effect in facilitating this talking approach.

Conversely, in Rose's case, there seemed to be a disjunction between helping pupils to prepare for a task or exercise, for example, talking and writing, and interactive practice in the target language. In a series of lessons observed which could be said to illustrate Rose's approach, there was a lot of preparation in

order to get pupils to write a small piece about their eating habits, however, more talking practice itself and interaction throughout the lessons might have served as an enabler to get pupils to do more unstructured interactive talking. It seemed that in Rose's class, junior learners 'learned' so they could 'read aloud' (as their talking practice) the piece they had written, and that entailed their individualised interaction or with their table partner in the target language. However, at times, as pupils were only reading their part, there was not real information exchange or communication. In some cases pupils were producing their own utterances, that is, following Crichton's (2013) application of Goffman's production theory (1981) they were acting as principals authoring language to make their own meaning, although in Rose's case, most of the time junior and senior learners were told what to say. In contrast, in Juliette's and Mary's classes, as interaction in the target language was used throughout the lessons, learners might take on the role of animators, that is, merely repeating language when undertaking reading and listening tasks, however, in talking and writing exercises, as they seemed more confident with the language, it seemed that they were more confident to be authors and principals of the language they used (Goffman, 1981, in Crichton, 2013).

Using Stern's (1983) dimensions, both Mary and Rose's junior classes would have been placed within a crosscultural, crosslingual dimension. However, whilst Mary appeared to make careful choices regarding her use of L1, and favoured L2 use, in Rose's classes, L1 was used throughout and it could be said to underpin her pedagogy, except for the talking exercises, which often had been scripted in advance. Yannick's practices were more mixed, as he used the target language in interaction to different extents depending on the learners' perceived capabilities.

Treating the four skills as different building blocks can help pupils in terms of their progression of learning (Jones and Wiliam, 2008), as it helps to provide feedback and work out next steps in learning. CfE ML policies show that the division between receptive and productive skills helps pupils' learning, that understanding precedes production and arguably could help build their confidence and language skills. This is intrinsically connected with Dörnyei's PCA. He aimed to shed light on the balance of the teacher's pedagogical role in fostering implicit and explicit mechanisms for L2 learning. However, there is also

the risk that the four skills are compartmentalised and talking is seen only as one fourth of learning and teaching in the L2 classroom. This compartmentalisation might be the result of the way the curriculum in ML is structured, in CfE (Scottish Government, 2009) or the CEFR (Council of Europe, 2001). At the same time, the curriculum structure has an effect on the way it is assessed through high stakes exams, in which often high stakes exams assess what they can, not what they should (Hayward et al., 2018). Finally then, assessment has an effect on pedagogy, CLT in this case and the role of comprehension in SQA exams. An area of future research could be to look at whether other curriculum proposals, such as the ACTFL (ACTFL, 2012), which was discussed in the literature review, in which conceptually the curriculum is organised in a different way, for example, around communication (as opposed to Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing) has a different effect on the alignment of Curriculum Assessment and Pedagogy. The next section continues with the discussion of linguistic competence and language skills.

### 5.8 Linguistic Competence and Skills

The blurred boundaries between linguistic competence and skills and conceptual misunderstandings within the languages teaching profession have been discussed in the literature by VanPatten (2010). He argues that a clearer understanding of competence and skill in the field of SLA would help the profession in clarifying the role of instruction in language learning as well as developing teachers' understanding of which pedagogical moves can make an impact on language learning (VanPatten, 2010). For him the mental representation of language (competence) and skill formation play a part in language acquisition but often teachers try to teach competence based on an erroneous assumption that all L2 learning is only skill learning (listening, speaking, reading, writing). For example, for VanPatten (2010) treating the teaching of grammar as a skill would be a pedagogical error as grammar is competence or mental representation of language. Mental representation stands for abstract, implicit and underlying knowledge developed through interaction in the L2. In CfE policy this is referred to as Knowledge About Language (KAL) (Scottish Government, 2009). The learner's mental representation is made of lexical, grammatical, semantic,

phonological, orthographic and orthoepic competence (terms reviewed in the literature review chapter). These are not prescriptive; they are a rather abstract array of factors which underpin the learner's Universal Grammar (Chomsky, 2000). This mental representation is implicit as it exists outside of the learner's awareness and this mental representation underlies the linguistic system in the learner's mind as it influences language utterances. This linguistic competence or mental representation, if VanPatten's term (2010) is used, cannot be explicitly taught by teachers. Teachers can only expose learners to language situations (in the target language) in which learners can develop their linguistic competence through the interplay of input, learner's UG and the processing mechanisms which mediate between input and learners' UG. VanPatten argues that mental representation is not amenable to instruction as UG operates only on processed data from language input, not on information about the language presented to the learners by the teacher explicitly. This, at a first glance, might be at odds with some of the practices observed in which teachers used English over the target language to explain certain language competence concepts, to try to fill the literacy gaps of learners. However, the languages classroom is very different from the naturalistic setting where the UG operates. Secondly, the learners are at an age where their UG may be fading.

Gass and Mackey's (2006) IA posits, following Schmidt (1990; 2002) and Dekeyser's research (1993;2001), that learners only learn what they notice, therefore it could be argued that Rose was helping learners to notice different aspects of linguistic competence by exploring those aspects in English, so they became noticeable to learners in the target language. It could also be argued that the learning is happening in the interaction itself, although in Rose's case it generally happened in English. Additionally, research on formative assessment (Black and Wiliam, 2001; Heritage 2010; Hayward et al., 2018) points out that within the interaction process the learning is taking place in the process of inter- to intra-mediation, and therefore those learning conversations in English are essential.

As discussed in the literature review, the CEFR (Council of Europe, 2001) highlights the importance of metacognition and teachers helping learners with the business of 'learning to learn'. Arguably, the running commentary which

Rose provided to learners helped them to focus on their learning and establish the steps they should take to improve.

In the examinations, interpretation skills (reading and listening); expression skills (writing and speaking); and negotiation skills (conversational interaction and turn taking) are equally important. The exam gives the same importance (25%) to reading, listening, speaking and writing. Unsurprisingly, it seemed that some teachers in this study found themselves spending more time on interpretation and expression skills in English than on negotiation skills. This seemed to be to the detriment of target language use and L2 interaction.

Dörnyei's PCA (2009a) which explains how declarative knowledge becomes proceduralised and then automatised extends Schmidt's (1992) and Dekeyser's (1998) research into skill development, as automated knowledge helps the learner with fluency, speed and accuracy. Both VanPatten (2010) and Dekeyser (1998) question pedagogical approaches in which 'learners engage in low-level mechanistic activities devoid of communicative purpose or goal from the get-go, where accuracy supposedly precedes communication, a questionable practice' (Dekeyser, 1998 in VanPatten, 2010:9). Conversely, Rose seemed to provide lively lessons to which learners responded well, showed enthusiasm, increased uptake once languages were not compulsory and did well in national exams. Referring to Gass and Mackey's (2006) IA, the question might be asked: were learners learning in the interaction, as widely perceived in Mary's and Juliette's classes or in order to interact, as in Rose's and Yannick's classes? It seems that learners were learning in both situations. VanPatten's (2010) discussion on language acquisition in terms of mental representation and skill has shed some light to help understanding Rose's stated frustration with her use of English to remediate her learners' gaps in terms of knowledge about language (in her own words). However, Dekeyser's work as well as Gass and Mackey's would point in the direction of target language use to provide opportunities for competence and skill development. Yet, the washback effect of assessments, with exams in which learners answer in English, might explain extended use of English in the class as Rose tried to teach linguistic competence - despite research showing that it cannot be taught explicitly, but only by exposing learners to input (Gass and Mackey, 2006; Dörnyei, 2009a). This theme is of particular relevance, given that the particularities of different exam systems in different countries might

shape SLA interaction in the classroom more than seems to be accounted for in the interaction theory, and therefore, what 'really' happens in the classroom might not inform theory building in the SLA interaction field. As noted earlier, future research could focus on exploring which high stakes secondary exams are more conducive towards CLT.

## 5.9 Focus on Form, roles of Noticing and Input-Output-Pushed-Output and Feedback

In the observations of the four teachers, the focus on form was very strong, and their practices reflected a sound understanding of the principle that one learns what is noticed, and that a teacher should engage pupils in learning to foster their working memory. Through the use of Assessment is for Learning strategies, the four teachers scaffolded learning for pupils through their ZPD at each stage of their learning (Black and Wiliam, 1998). However, in some cases, these processes were not integrated with target language interaction between pupils or teacher. Mary and Juliette used both English and the target language for AifL purposes, although the target language was predominantly used. Yannick used a mixture of both depending on the learners, and Rose used English and seldom the target language. Rose's interview showed that she was aware of what she considered good ML practice, including greater target language use, however, she used English as she thought it suited her learners better. The different understandings of AifL, and more particularly of what teachers thought about providing feedback, emerged as a striking theme when observing classes and interviewing the four teachers in this study. As discussed, for some AifL theorists such as Jones and Wiliam (2008) feedback seems to be mainly linked to the process of self-regulation and working out next steps in English. However, given the observed practice of three of the teachers in this study, this could be disputed. The next section analyses this theme in depth.

## 5.10 The Role of Feedback within Assessment is for Learning

Regarding the ways in which interaction in SLA theory was consonant with the practices in the classes observed, it seems that all four teachers' PCK allowed

them to plan lessons which incorporated the role of learning to learn as well as language learning. AifL played a special role and interaction in which learning occurred took place both in English and in the target language to different extents depending on the teachers and learners.

It seems that although the socio-cognitive factors of learners are highlighted as crucial in Gass and Mackey's (2006) IA, the literature of language learning seems to refer to this area of AifL as an aspect of learning which is mostly conducted in English. Following the Assessment for Learning guides published in the UK (Jones and Wiliam, 2008) it seems that they do not always take cognisance of the intertwined nature of learning to learn in language learning for high school learners. In other words, there seems to be a gap in the literature as it seems that the pedagogical advice is that Assessment for Learning programmes are delivered through L1 exclusively, reflecting the literature regarding the importance of mother tongue in developing cognitive understanding of language structures. For Socioculturalists (Brooks and Donato, 1994) L1 use helps in externalising the learner's inner speech (Vygotsky, 1986) throughout the learning activity for the purpose of self-regulation of thinking. Thus, it has been argued that L1 use can act as a critical psychological tool for language learning (Anton and Dicamilla, 2012). Cook (2001) argues that L1 is very important in learning for translanguaging and translation processes.

Hattie (2012:116) discussing a generalist overview of pedagogy, provides four types of feedback, namely: task; process; self-regulation; self. Task feedback relates to how well the task has been performed, and the feedback questions to the learner are 'Where am I going? What are my goals?' (Hattie, 2012:116). Feedback at process level is linked with the strategies needed to perform the tasks at hand. The feedback questions related to process level are: 'How am I going? What progress is being made towards the goal? (ibid). Self-regulation feedback concerns the conditional knowledge and understanding needed to know what the learner is doing, including self-monitoring and direction of processes and tasks at hand. The questions linked to self-regulation feedback are: 'Where to next? What activities need to be undertaken next to make better progress?' (ibid). Self-level feedback encompasses praise such as 'well done'.

The four teachers provided praise in the target language, self-regulation feedback in English, and, depending on the classes, learners, exercises and skills at hand, a mixture of L1 and L2 feedback at task and process level. As discussed, L2 feedback included recasts, elicitation and metalinguistic cues. Finally, it seemed that Mary's and Juliette's PCK allowed them to blend feedback given through L1 and L2 (Lyster and Ranta, 1997) but this was not always the case with Rose and Yannick. Their approach was to provide feedback in the target language with learners they thought could cope with it.

### 5.11 Communicative Competence

Juliette, Mary and Yannick (with some learners) were observed introducing topics at the beginning of the lessons and role-modelling exercises in the target language. This aligned with the different principles of Dörnyei's PCA (2009a) such as the Declarative Input principle (2). The different patterns and games which helped in the development of language skills did align themselves with Dörnyei's (2009a) principle 3, Controlled Practice Input, and principle 7, Focused Interaction. Regarding the role of noticing in Gass and Mackey's IA (2006) and Dörnyei's (2009a) principle 4, Focus on Form, throughout the lessons, the four teachers would refer pupils to points of language which were deemed necessary for communication of meaning. These linguistic competence points were linked to lexical, grammatical, semantic, phonological and orthographic salient features of the languages studied. However, the Focus on Form principle was linked, in Juliette's and Yannick's observed classrooms to a greater extent than in Mary's or Rose's, to socio-linguistic and pragmatic aspects of the CEFR as well as linguistic competence aspects of language learning. As discussed in the literature review, the CEFR (Council of Europe, 2001) offers a very comprehensive overview of the way cultural aspects and idiosyncrasies of the different groups of people who use languages can be considered paramount in order to be able to use language most effectively. In one of Juliette's lessons learners were practising the language of meeting to go out (where, what to do, when, day, time, place of meeting, excuses given for not being able to go out). In that lesson there were salient socio-linguistic and pragmatic competences which Juliette pointed out to pupils. They were focused on discourse

competence, and whether their conversations were coherent or cohesive. Points regarding turn taking were also highlighted to pupils. In order to do this, the teacher presented monologic conversations at times to raise pupils' attention. On other occasions she asked pupils to perform their conversations and asked for pupil feedback. Socio-linguistic elements seemed to play a strong part in Juliette's and Yannick's practice. In the going out task, for example, pupils at times had to take on the role of an older non-equal participant in order to practise politeness conventions. In addition, Juliette frequently carried out not only demonstrations in the form of oral activities but also listening and reading tasks to encourage pupils to notice the politeness differences. Some of the socio-linguistic elements were linked to formulaic language use. Pupils, as young as first year, were observed using French language such as: *'alors, on est polie; attention, il faut être polie; il faut porter de l'intérêt aux autres'* to tell their peers to pay attention.

Juliette and Yannick frequently made cultural references and they told short anecdotes in the target language to demonstrate different ways of understanding everyday life events and ethical issues to their pupils. During one lesson which took place during the French presidential elections, Yannick brought four different French newspapers with front pages of the different election candidates and asked the learners in the target language who would they vote for. Depending on the age/stage of the learners the conversations took different approaches. At times the conversations leading from these took place in English, depending on the age and stage of pupils, and at other times pupils and teacher translanguaged. During the lessons, with younger learners, in Yannick's and Juliette's classes the following topics were raised: shopping on a Sunday; free time; the importance of family values; setting by level in schools; school uniform; what schools should provide for pupils; food; colonial issues linking countries where English, French and Spanish were spoken with post-colonialism, to name a few. Following Kumaravadivelu's (2006) classification of language as a system, discourse and ideology, the three seemed to be part of Juliette's and Yannick's pedagogies, with topics and themes adapted to the age and stage of the learners. With National 5 and Higher classes, some of these topics were the springboard for discussion and learning and at times they were unpacked in more depth, due to the cognitive stage of students. Juliette and

Yannick brought newspaper articles at times for pupils to work on to understand key messages in the news. They also had a number of props such as pamphlets and brochures in Spanish and French, for example, supermarket brochures or teenage and gossip magazines. It seemed that Juliette's and Yannick's PCK was strong with regard to how to use the target language to be easily understood by learners.

Juliette used songs in Spanish and French and asked pupils to fill in spaces in the lyrics and at times she sent French songs to pupils via a technology portal which allows the teacher to send homework and information about cultural activities for students to read.

As discussed in the literature review, communicative competence encompasses linguistic, socio-linguistic and pragmatic competences. The CEFR states that in order to use the language successfully the user needs to understand certain cultural habits. One of the purposes of language learning in CfE is the intercultural development of the pupil and the extent to which this enhances the overall learning of the student. In a series of Rose's junior lessons on food, it was noted that the food names in this task were much the sorts of food a Scottish person could be said to have for breakfast, for example, a bacon roll, or baked beans. There was no apparent intention to raise pupils' cultural awareness of other sorts of breakfast in Spanish speaking countries. Kramsch (1993) argues that teachers try their best to bring the 'foreign' culture closer to the learner by getting pupils to use the target language to talk about their own habits and culture. This is in line with Dörnyei's PCA first principle: purposeful communication for the pupil. However, scholars such as Kramsch and Byram point to the need to go further in increasing pupils' cultural awareness by learning about other people's customs and habits (Byram,1997; Byram and Zarate,1997; Kramsch, 1998). Arguably, to follow the PCA's Personal Significance principle, it is important to be able to say that one has baked beans on toast for breakfast if that represents pupils' reality. However, it could be argued that not teaching the learners about other types of breakfast was a missed opportunity to widen pupils' understanding, especially when some of them had never been abroad. Looking at the series of food lessons through a CEFR lens, in terms of communicative competence being formed by linguistic, socio-linguistic and pragmatic competences, they were very much focused at the development of

semantics, pronunciation and grammar. Conversely, they did not seem to enhance the socio-linguistic or pragmatic competence of pupils.

This was not the case with senior learners in national examination classes. In those, it was noted that Rose often included cultural episodes from her own experiences to illustrate certain aspects of socio-linguistic and pragmatic knowledge. When comparing this with Mary's practice, it seemed that, maybe because Mary did not appear worried about 'bad behaviour', cultural references happened with all classes, regardless of the age/stage of learners. Mary's description of cultural episodes were nevertheless less frequent than those observed with Yannick and Juliette, and, in Mary's case, they took place at times in English whereas in Juliette's classes they always took place in French. The next section discusses the extent to which exercises, depending on whether they could be classified as tasks or activities, had a pedagogical effect in target language interaction in the classes I observed.

### 5.12 Exercises: Tasks and Activities

As defined in the literature review, Ellis (2003:9-10) identified certain criterial features of a task: it is a work plan; its primary focus is on meaning; it involves real world processes of language use; it can involve any of the four language skills; it involves learners using high cognitive processes; it has a clearly defined communicative outcome. Ellis listed the workplan criterion as number one in his list of seven. Although he does not mention the reasons behind this order, an assumption could be that they follow from each other logically. Yet, based on the lessons observed in this study, the workplan, seemed the most difficult to identify. Ellis puts the focus of tasks on the teaching materials or on ad hoc plans which naturally arise in the lesson. Juliette and Mary's lessons seemed to divert more from the workplan to take cognisance of the ad hoc learners' interactions which arose in the lessons observed. Ellis (2003) argues that what actually happens in the classroom might differ from the intended lesson objectives set out by the teacher when planning the lesson and the tasks to achieve that aim, as the teacher may follow the learners' interactions or questions. One consequence could be that the realisation of the tasks by pupils do not lead to communication. For example, at times in classes when there is a

certain element of competition, pupils might rush to finish the task as opposed to practising the language at hand. This was observed in some classes with all four teachers.

Juliette's, Yannick's and Mary's pedagogies and interaction moves seemed to create the appropriate conditions for the tasks' work plans. The ping-pong interaction seemed to create the space necessary for the tasks' learning outcomes to materialise and the tasks' rubrics encouraged and contributed to learners having discussion.

The four teachers were observed teaching French and Spanish classes with seniors throughout the year, working within the contexts of the Higher examination topics of society, learning, employability and culture. Learners were observed discussing topics which required them to express their opinions. As students expressed different views, there seemed to be a lot of interaction in the groups that kept them practising the language structures related to the particular topic. The use of tasks in Juliette's and Mary's practices aligned very closely with Dörnyei's first principle Personal Significance (2009a).

At Higher level, there were occasions in which Juliette set out court-case style tasks in which students had to defend one position assigned to them, or take turns swapping postures, for example, the advantages and disadvantages of country living versus city living. As explained when discussing the ping-ponging, the task elements were present at all ages and stages of Juliette's teaching, although with the junior classes, there were more tasks which seemed designed to provide Controlled-Practice and Focus on Form (Dörnyei's third and fourth principles). Both principles were also evident in the Higher tasks' examples but because of the cognitive demand of the task at hand, it seemed that the oral discussion could be better categorised under principle 7- Focused Interaction. With junior and senior classes, the tasks seemed to allow for a great deal of Formulaic Language (principle five) to be practised, not only as a result of solving the task, but also by taking part in the interaction at hand of the tasks.

This section will continue by using a series of S2 Spanish lessons on food to exemplify Rose's observed practice. Rose had set up a matching up task. When the matching task was marked, a translation exercise followed: pupils were asked to translate sentences individually such as 'I have fruit' or 'I take

chocolate biscuits'. The teacher explained in English the differences in Spanish between I have/I take (tengo/tomo). The focus on form described here was characteristic of Rose's observed practice. This was noted earlier in line with the PCA's Focus on Form principle (4) (Dörnyei, 2009a), and the role of noticing in Gass and Mackey's IA (2006). The next exercise was a reading one. Pupils were presented with five small paragraphs and they had to match foods with frequency (always/ never/sometimes/from time to time/ generally). This exercise did not include cultural elements, for example, different times of eating, or number of meals per day. A task such as this might have supported pupils in learning about cultural differences. Pupils did this individually and the teacher corrected it, checking sporadically if pupils knew the meaning of foods in English.

Finally, pupils were asked to write a paragraph about their eating habits. They were given clear direction and the teacher asked pupils at random to give the Spanish words, or time phrases or adverbs she was asking them to include in their piece*: ' T: I expect to see intensifiers such as very, John?; John: muy (very); T: well done, or a little, Stacey?; Stacey: un poco (a little). T: well done*. The teacher also expected to see time phrases, such as a *veces, los lunes, siempre* (at times, on Mondays, always); negative sentences such as *no tomo, no me gusta* ( I don't have, I don't like). These expressions were displayed on the board. For the rest of the period, pupils prepared their piece and the teacher circulated around the class helping individual pupils. When helping individual pupils, she provided cognates or similar examples to help them remember or work out how they would write something in Spanish.

In terms of interaction, this lesson can be said to be a good exemplification of the observed practice with junior classes. Rose was informally asked after such observations about the purpose of her lessons. She explained how pupils needed a lot of scaffolding to help them talk because of their lack of literacy skills, self-efficacy and confidence and very often they might not know what to say even if they had been asked in English. That seemed to be the main reason for spending at least two one hour periods more focused on listening, reading and writing before engaging in any talking activities.

In contrast, in Juliette's and Mary's observed lessons, the fact that pupils were circulating around the whole classroom having to argue who is the best tennis player, or who is the most racist politician, or in terms of subjects, which teacher was 'the most boring' made the learners focus straight away on the message to be communicated rather than the language. One day I observed Yannick showing three different newspapers to three of his classes (junior and senior). Learners had sentences in a PowerPoint to argue which candidate would make the best French President. This made learners focus on communication over form. In one of Mary's Spanish lessons, while learners were arguing about what made a good friend, they were also having a meaningful conversation about friendship, in Spanish. This approach to task planning and pupil engagement seems to illustrate the most salient feature of the CA and the PCA, that is, *meaning focused communication and personal significance*. Purposeful learner-centred communication is in line with the pupil centred pedagogy advocated by CfE in the ML Principles and Practice paper (Scottish Government, 2009). Conversely, it could be argued that it was not the pupils' choice to learn about friendship nor to describe their self-portrait, although Mary intimated that at the beginning of the year she had asked pupils what they would like to learn to be able to talk about themselves to a French pen-pal.

This chapter has discussed the observations and perceptions of practice of the four teacher participants in this study, analysing the research question *'in what ways is interaction in SLA theory consonant with the ML classrooms studied in Scotland?'* The chapter has analysed the emerging themes and discussed ping-pong interaction as an alternative to the traditional IRF, looking at the participants' enactment of interactive moves to bring CLT to their classes. It has highlighted the role of technology and metacognition, as well as delving into the issue of the washback effect of high stakes exams in classrooms. This study highlights the issue arising from the fact that interaction in SLA tends to be studied in isolation from the complexities of secondary schools and the agendas of accountability and performativity, and that SLA does not always take cognisance of the different stages of cognition and the learning to learn agenda for young learners in secondary schools. Finally, this chapter has questioned whether a different organisation of the curriculum and high stakes exams from that of four compartmentalised skills would have an effect in CLT. The

observations have shown that there was a great deal of interaction in these four teachers' classrooms, which, whether it was in the target language or English demonstrated a concern for pupils' learning and for the pupils themselves as individuals. The next chapter turns to the ML early career teachers' perceptions of what helped them to develop their interactive practices.

## Chapter Six

## Teacher Conceptual Development

### 6.1 Introduction

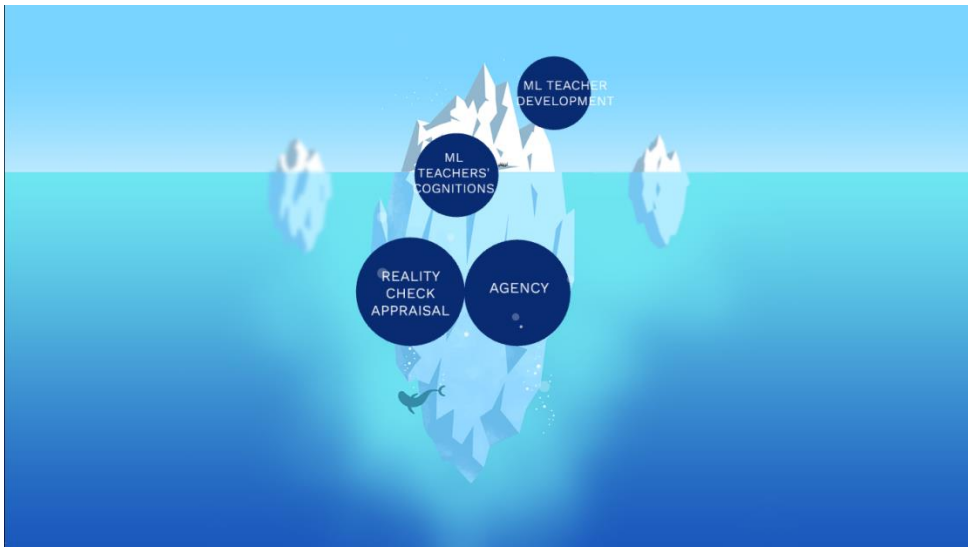
Given the nature of my work in ML teacher education, the conceptual development of teachers' pedagogy in the field of target language interaction was one of the main focuses of my enquiry. I was aware that the observations and follow-up interviews of teachers with a focus on the interaction which took place in their classrooms and their representations of how they were facilitating language learning, would have been enough to write an Ed-D. A limitation of the study is the depth of discussion that can be achieved given the amount of data at hand and the word limit of a Doctorate of Education. Nevertheless, I felt that the teachers' conceptual development of their pedagogical practices is intertwined with what they do; therefore, it was difficult to disentangle teacher development in the field of ML interaction from their actual interactional practices. Moreover, it was perceived that given the study participants were early career teachers', an important part of their story would have been lost if the study had not focused on their development. Hence, this chapter is going to discuss the second research question: *What affordances and constraints impacted on the conceptual development of the ML pedagogy of the teachers in the study?*

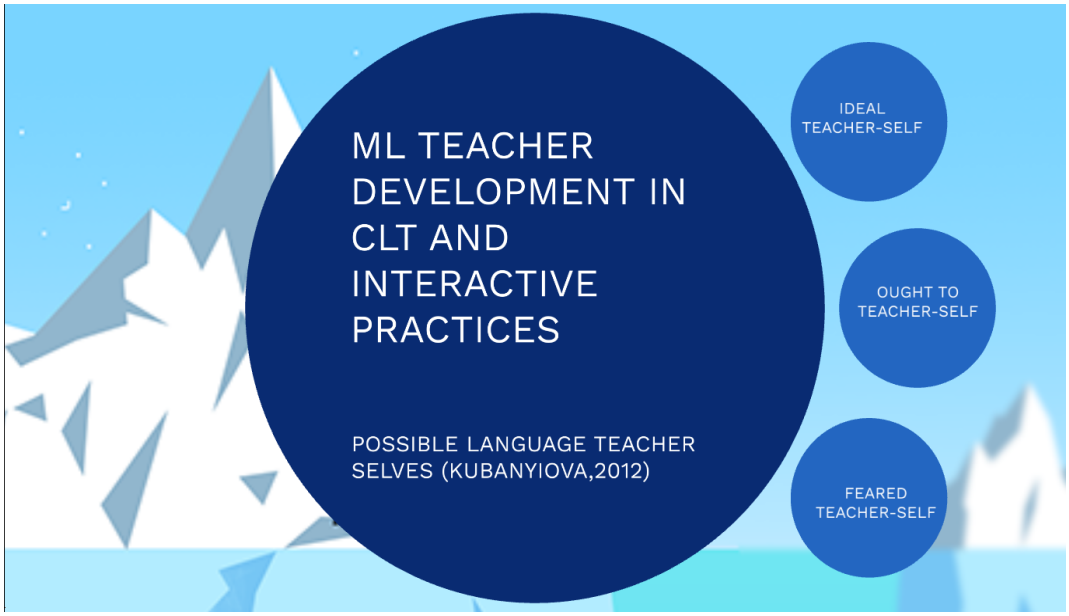
An important aspect of this study was to try to understand the participants' perceptions of development in terms of interactive moves from the time they were student teachers, NQTs and as fully qualified practising teachers. I was interested in looking at the extent of the changes and what helped them to improve. The findings in this study were aimed at informing the wider language teaching community and to add to the body of knowledge related to teacher development and conceptual change. This chapter draws mainly from the in-depth interviews which took place after all the observations had taken place but also from comments the teachers made during the one-year study, also referred to as informal interviews. As explained in the methodology chapter, discourse analysis was used to get to emerging themes. The themes discussed in this chapter are agency and professional space. These themes could arguably be applied to many early career teachers, not only ML teachers. Finally, the

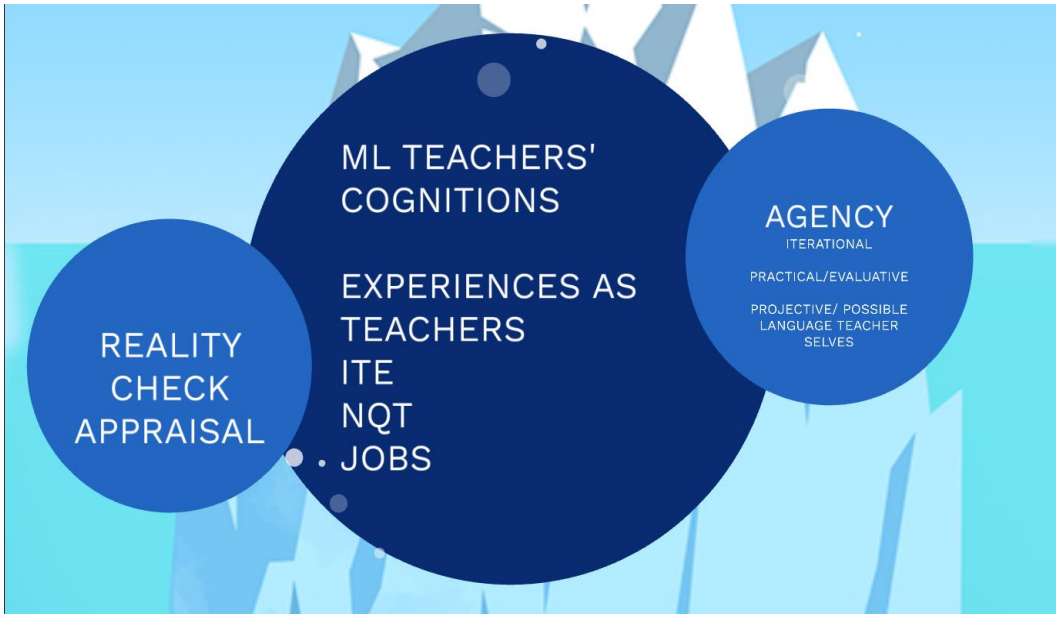
teachers' conceptual understanding of ML PCK development, and the interplay of Curriculum-Assessment and Pedagogy will be discussed, making references when necessary to Gass and Mackey's Interaction Approach (2006).

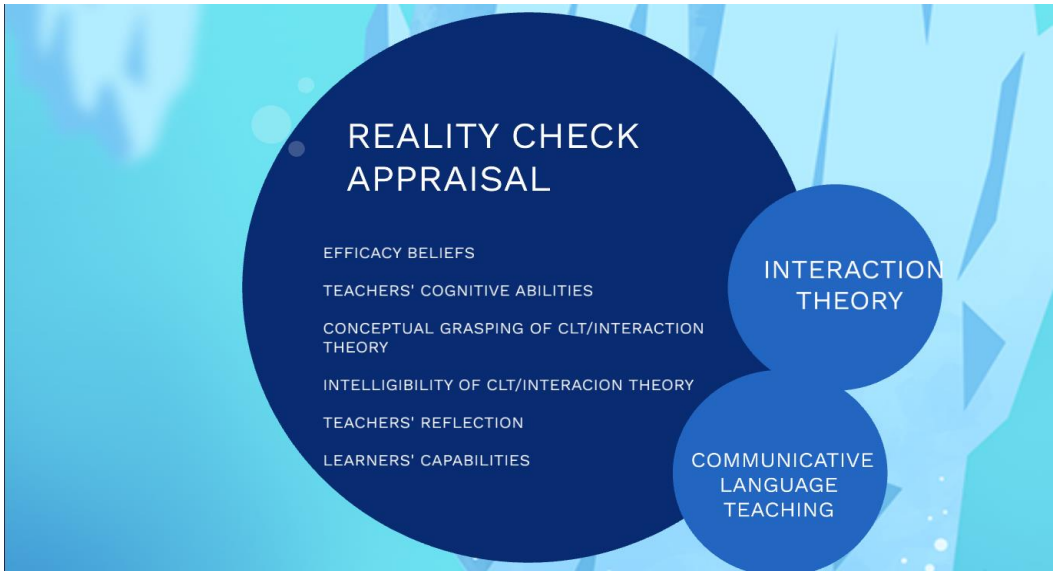
As discussed in the methodology chapter, in order to help make sense of the four teachers' development, I created a framework called Early Career ML Teachers' Development based on Kubanyiova's LTCC (2012) and Priestley's et al. (2015a) Ecological Model of Agency. This framework will be used as a tool to make sense of the four teachers' perceptions of their development regarding interaction in the target language and to organise this chapter. This is the Early Career ML Teachers' Development Overview which was explained in section 4.7. The full framework is in Appendix 9.

**Table 11 and Appendix 9: Early Career ML Development Framework**




ML TEACHER DEVELOPMENT IN CLT AND INTERACTIVE PRACTICES
POSSIBLE LANGUAGE TEACHER SELVES (KUBANYIOVA,2012)
IDEAL TEACHER-SELF
OUGHT TO TEACHER-SELF
FEARED TEACHER-SELF


ML TEACHERS' COGNITIONS
EXPERIENCES AS TEACHERS
ITE
NQT
JOBS
REALITY CHECK APPRAISAL
AGENCY
ITERATIONAL
PRACTICAL/EVALUATIVE
PROJECTIVE/ POSSIBLE LANGUAGE TEACHER SELVES


REALITY CHECK APPRAISAL
EFFICACY BELIEFS
TEACHERS' COGNITIVE ABILITIES
CONCEPTUAL GRASPING OF CLT/INTERACTION THEORY
INTELLIGIBILITY OF CLT/INTERACION THEORY
TEACHERS' REFLECTION
LEARNERS' CAPABILITIES
INTERACTION THEORY
COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING

Through the informal and formal interviews with the four teachers in the study, it seemed clear that they all had a strong idea of the ideal teacher self they wanted to enact in their practices. Their projective agency dimension, or Kubanyiova's possible language teacher-selves theory (2012), had been shaped by their ML teacher cognitions developed through their lived experiences as teachers and student-teachers during ITE, NQT and first teaching post. However, as the narrative of this analysis will show, all four teachers could reflect about professional moments in which they were enacting their feared or ought-to teacher-self, thus the fluidity of their teacher self-concept has to be highlighted. Their teacher self-development had been shaped by their personal stories, epistemologies and years of classroom participation (Lortie, 1975), their iterational agency (Priestley et al., 2015a). Finally, their development was being shaped by the practical-evaluative agency dimension, that is, their contextual factors.

At the top of the iceberg through the observations and the participants' perceptions of development I was able to make sense of their journeys of development and the extent to which their lessons reflected CLT and interactive practices. When creating the framework I decided to place Gass and Mackey's IA (2006) and Dörnyei's PCA (2009a) under water as in my experience as a teacher educator theory is portrayed in the classroom in an implicit and intuitive way, and that is part of the teacher development journey (Borg,2003) as teachers reflect on and in action (Schön, 1983). Gass and Mackey's IA (2006) and Dörnyei's PCA (2009a) were chosen as theoretical frameworks as these approaches provide  a comprehensive collection of theories which represent the contemporary understanding of SLA in a post-modern world. The discussion starts with teacher agency because it was an emerging theme whose ramifications seemed to affect all the other emerging themes linked with ML teacher development.

### 6.2 Teacher Agency and Professional Space

All interviews started with a question about the strategies the participants used to build rapport with their pupils, and whether they had changed since they were student teachers up to the time of the study. This will be discussed in section 6.3.6 Pupil-Centred Pedagogy. In the literature reviewed in the field of teacher development (Ball,2003; Borko, 2004; Borg, 2003;Biesta and Tedder, 2007; Biesta, 2015; Emirbayer and Mische, 1998; Priestley,2011: Priestley et al., 2015a; 2015b) agency plays an important part. Mary reflected on her perceived lack of agency during school placements as a student, whilst Rose seemed to not have been able to enact agency until her first permanent job (at the time of this study). Juliette referred to her positive and negative perceptions of agency later in the interview, and she related them to her NQT year. Yannick, even though he stated that he had not always been able to enact his ideal teacher self (Dörneyi,2009b), had not thought of this as a lack of agency. This is a quote from Mary, from within the first three minutes of the interview:

> *Often, in the classroom I felt I was teaching how the teacher wanted me to teach... because I was a student teacher and I felt I was tailoring my lessons to what it was expected of me. I was told off by some mentors because I used the target language too much. I was told by others "don't use it as they won't get it, not in this school" and I was told by others that I was doing good trying to get pupils to understand what I was saying in Spanish. Another time I was told that I asked learners too many questions and that I should speak more. Now I feel I am more independent. (...) At some point it was like having 5 different personalities (...); it was very difficult to please everyone, as they all expected something different of me, and I could not be myself (...)*; (...) *before I was teaching in the way I was told to teach. I was told "this is the best way for language and language learning" and I was teaching that way...., but it wasn't. Gosh, at times it wasn't the best way of learning. It was very difficult, because I had to teach in that way, or maybe I AM wrong, and it was the best way??? MMMm, not, in hindsight, it wasn't, I knew it, but I could not say it! or maybe pupils enjoy it more doing just the textbook, doing less talking and more grammar. Well, not really, I don't think so. So yes, I have developed a lot and my teaching has changed.*

For Mary, it seemed that structural contextual factors, such as power relationships within the mentoring of student-teachers, had a perceived negative effect on her attempting target language use that would have matched her ideal teacher-self. According to her, her target language use and interaction were praised by some of her mentors but were far from nurtured or encouraged by

others. This, in turn, had ramifications for another aspect of the practical evaluative agency dimension, in terms of cultural and material factors. Some of Mary's mentors' beliefs and values associated with sociocultural learning may have been very superficial, as they seemed to have a very hierarchical and didactic approach towards her development. Secondly, it seems that Mary was not always able to use her resources, her interactive moves or classroom activities to engage learners in conversation in the target language.

Similar comments were echoed by Juliette and Yannick regarding their adaptation to the different teachers' teaching styles during the PGDE school placements. However, they assumed that this was part of their learning and did not find it as frustrating as Mary did. This resonates with Ellström et al.'s study (2007) which highlighted that certain situations could be understood by teachers as enabling or constraining depending on the ways in which teachers evaluated and dealt with those situations. It seemed that Juliette and Yannick thought that experimenting or mimicking different pedagogical approaches might be a way to find their own teaching personas. It might have been that their supervising teachers were less directive and mentored them in a more constructive manner.

Unlike Mary, the issue of being able to 'do' agency seemed to crop up in Rose's case not in her student teacher nor her NQT years but in her first permanent position. She perceived an apparent lack of professional space and agency in her current position. She was not able to enact agency (Priestley et al., 2015a). As discussed, standardisation in education and over-emphasis on student testing and high stakes exams (Buchanan, 2015; Hayward, 2015; Hayward and Hedge, 2005) can bring what Ball (2003; 2008) classifies as 'the terrors of performativity'. Rose stated that, at the time of the study, her school chose to assess students summatively before they had engaged with enough 'coverage' of the curriculum. Departmental policy dictated that teachers take a rote learning approach and all learners prepared writing and speaking assessments which were either the same or very similar. A number of pressures, apparently linked to attainment, did not permit Rose to teach in the way she believed would be more pedagogically sound, and to choose when it was more pedagogically sound to assess learning for national examination purposes.

Rose's and Mary's cases highlight the perceived lack of professional space and autonomy (Kostogriz and Peeler, 2007) student teachers and teachers might encounter in some schools at different stages of their careers. In my Early Career ML Teachers' Development Framework, the professional space lies within the practical evaluative agency dimension. Their cases point to the hierarchical nature of schools (Ball, 2003;2008), as well as the vulnerable position student teachers may 'feel' they are in during placements. While some teachers might find the restricted structure enabling, in that they are working with clear direction, others, such as Rose or Mary, might find it constraining and against their conceptions of good practice (Ellström et al., 2007). As a student teacher, Mary adopted multiple teacher personae during placement in order to pass. Her comments resonate with previous research conducted with a PGDE Modern Languages cohort (Crichton and Valdera, 2015) in which students stated that they felt that they were in a weak position in their placement schools and had to accomplish actions regarding learning and teaching which at times were at odds with their ought to or ideal teacher self (Kubanyiova, 2012).

These findings need to be viewed in the context of the emerging teachers' cognitions. It could be argued that the teachers in the study had strong ideal teacher selves, however their ideal teacher-self might not be the most conductive to CLT. Research shows that the greatest influence on teachers' pedagogies is the way they were taught (Borg, 2003) and their apprenticeship of observation (Lortie, 1975). To discuss this, it is appropriate to draw on Juliette's reported experiences: both Mary and Juliette had completed their NQT year at the same secondary school. Nevertheless, Juliette felt her mentor was very directive whilst Mary felt the opposite way. Juliette had 'cause for concern' in her first NQT report and in hindsight Juliette attributed the reason for this to the directive advice she had received. She felt she was forced to teach in a particular way during her NQT year. According to Juliette, during her ITE and NQT years she had not made the move towards the pupil-centred pedagogy she now embraced and that stopped her from developing as a teacher. Juliette's case will be further discussed in section 6.3.6 Pupil Centred Pedagogy.

In Yannick´s case, he stated that he had always been able to do what he had planned to do in his classes, so he had been able to realise his ideal teacher-self. Yannick had had four years teaching experience abroad before doing the PGDE in

Scotland, so his narrative showed a clear sense of direction and purpose underpinning his pedagogical interactional moves.

As discussed in the literature review, and following Priestley et al's. (2015a) research into teacher agency in Scotland, agency in this thesis and in the Early Career ML Teachers' Development Framework is analysed through an ecological view. Recapping what this means, it is important to remember that Instead of focusing on the role of agency in determining social action or seeing agency as residing in individuals as a capacity, the ecological view sees agency as an emergent phenomenon. Biesta and Tedder (2007) frame agency as something people achieve as opposed to something people 'have'. Agency is the result of the interplay of individual efforts, available resources and contextual and structural factors as they come together in unique situations (Biesta and Tedder, 2007:137).

When Mary was asked how she perceived her agency and professional space in her current school, she said that some of her colleagues were curious at first with regards to the level of noise in her classroom. She felt a need to prove herself to her colleagues, and as her classes performed better in the national examinations she felt their attitude changed towards her: ' (...) *definitively there was a change of attitude. Before it used to be, "really? Well, we do it this way..."* (laughter)*You know. So, maybe they were not too keen in sharing things until after the exams. My first year* (in her permanent job) *was a year of judgement'*. Despite the feeling of being judged, Mary felt she was able to enact agency in her position as NQT. It is possible, given what she said about the issues around enacting her agency as a student teacher, that Mary conformed to the expectations of the placement schools in order to gain the teaching qualification. In their study of teacher agency in CfE in Scotland, Priestley et al. (2015a) referred to this as strategic compliance (Priestley et al., 2015a:195). In the same sense, Rose had decided, in her own words to 'choose her battles' and to do the assessments when her department had asked her to do so.

It was noted earlier that Emirbayer and Mische (1998) argued that the achievement of agency could be framed as a configuration of influences from the past (iterational dimension), orientations towards the future (projective dimension) and engagement with the present (practical-evaluative dimension).

In Mary's, Yannick's and Juliette's cases, these three dimensions underpinned their teacher ideal selves (Dörneyi,2009b) and led them to take different decisions in engagement with their present, aligned to how they saw themselves as effective ML teachers. Conversely, arguably, Rose's iterational dimension created conflict with her projective and practical-evaluative dimensions as she felt that at the time of the study she was not able to teach her classes the way she wanted to.

A degree of agency during initial teacher education and during subsequent teaching posts seems necessary for the initiation of pedagogical development. The highly hierarchical school system in Scotland and the tight systems of accountability may clash with agency and its related academic freedom, which have been highlighted by the OCDE (2001; 2007) and wider research as key factors for school improvement (Buchanan, 2015). At the micro-level teachers might find it difficult to change practice which goes against the validated departmental or school narrative if key school members 'block' any conceptual, developmental and pedagogical shift. As Ball (2003) points out, the 'devil' is right next to us, not far away in a local council office or in a government office. The next section discusses links between agency and teacher development in the field of interaction in the target language, using Gass and Mackey's (2006) IA as a framework to understand the teachers' development of PCK.

### 6.3 Development of ML Pedagogical Content Knowledge: an overview

The previous section has looked at the professional space which influences teacher development, looking at cultural, structural and material contextual factors as part of the practical evaluative agency dimension of the Early Career ML Teachers' Development Framework. However, agency is also achieved by the combination of the iterational dimension (teachers' epistemologies, their years of classroom experience, and as learners) and by their projective dimension, that is, whether they can become their ideal teacher-selves (Kubanyiova, 2012). Teachers' cognitions are intertwined with agency. Teacher development of interactive practices is guided by their cognitions, by their development of PCK, not only by whether they have the space to enact their PCK. This section starts by looking at Shulman's (1986) PCK generic definition, then it looks at what SLA

would consider ML PCK, more concretely analysing the development of the PCK in terms of interactive practices of the four teacher participants in this study, one at a time, as they had different journeys and I think it helps with the flow of the chapter. Then, other emerging themes which can be grouped under the development of ML PCK are discussed: (1) the development of a pupil-centred pedagogy; (2) the importance of behaviour; (3) whether candidates engaged learners through activities or tasks.

### 6.3.1 Development of ML Pedagogical Content Knowledge

Shulman's (1987) Major Categories of Teacher Knowledge has been instrumental in understanding the different facets of knowledge, skills, and pedagogical expertise teachers need to develop in the classroom. The following table provides an overview of seven main traits of teacher development which are generic, such as (1) general pedagogical knowledge which includes classroom management. Although this table is not organised in a sequential order, it seemed in this case that Shulman's category one, that is classroom management, had been crucial for the development of these four teachers. This will be discussed below. These seven categories can be compared with the GTCS standards (2006) as they also are framed around the themes of knowledge and understanding and skills and abilities. However, it could be argued that although, according to Shulman, some classroom management principles might transcend subject matter, according to the narratives of these four teachers, classroom management was very much linked with ML PCK as it derived directly from target language exposure and from teacher scaffolding of learning through feedback to help the production of pushed output. Research points out to the reconceptualisation of good classroom behaviour arising from good learning (Head, 2007). As discussed, in this thesis this kind of interaction to create opportunities for learners to use the language has been labelled ping-pong interaction. Arguably ML PCK involves understanding sociocultural learning principles and the psychology of language learning. Through the discussion, I illustrate the ways in which the PCK of the four teachers' in this study was developing. The dynamic nature of language learning, discussed in the IA, resonates with Shulman's categories two and three, knowledge of learners and

their characteristics; knowledge of educational contexts, but may be less evident than his categories four to seven which deal with knowledge, skills and pedagogy. Even though Shulman argues that category one transcends subject matter, the most interactive teachers in this study managed the classroom in the target language, as 'any opportunity is an opportunity for language learning' in Yannick's and Mary's words.

In my framework, ML teachers' cognitions derive from their agency (iterational, practical-evaluative and projective) as well as their PCK development. Teachers' PCK development emerges as they interact actively with the learners, as part of the process of reality check appraisal when preparing and evaluating their teaching. As discussed in the Literature Review, teachers' efficacy beliefs, their cognitive ability to put theory into practice, their enquiry and reflective practice and the learners' capabilities all interact as part of the teachers' reality-check appraisal. This section looks at the teachers' view of their development of interactive principles through ITE, NQT and first teaching posts.

### 6.3.2 Mary

As part of the interview, I described to Mary what I thought were some salient features of her pedagogical practice observed during the one-year study, particularly the ping-pong concept as part of her interactive practice to see whether that concept resembled her mental representation of her ML pedagogy and to make sense of her development of interaction in the classroom. Mary corroborated that for her it was important that learners spoke in the class, as that was part of their learning. She said she thought that learners had to interact with each other but at times her 'ping-pong' was used to help learners re-formulate answers in the target language, thus providing practice in the target language.

When exploring Mary's conceptual understanding of the link between **input, output and pushed output** (although the questions did not use those terms), Mary was asked to think of the ways she encouraged pupils to recycle language used in the class to answer in the target language and whether she had always linked all the different skills with talking. Examples of Mary's own practice,

looking for pushed output from pupils, and using the IRF with a mix of discoursal and evaluative feedback were provided. Mary referred to her experience in her NQT year: *'Before, I had never seen that. It was during my NQT year that I saw it was more effective to teach like that. Getting tips like that, getting pupils to answer in the target language, getting pupils to ask many questions (...)'* As she had previously stated that she had taught like that 'to some extent' she was asked if she remembered learning at university or in her placements about interactive moves to support the learning of language as opposed to only comprehension: *'never, never, never (...); it was always keep it sharp. I was told in one placement there should never be more than 2 minutes talking in the target language in a lesson'*. Considering that advice, there seems to be a clear gap between theory and practice, as using the target language is identified in the literature (Dörneyi, 2009a) and in Gass and Mackey's (2006) IA as a key part of developing language learning.

When asked about the way she corrected listening or reading tasks, and the ways in which she moved on into talking tasks, Mary said that her practice before her NQT year had been: *'you just mark 1c, 2d etc., keeping it sharp.... because behaviour issues could arise. So that was a big shift during my NQT year'*. However, she also referred to her experiences as a languages assistant abroad, in which she worked with groups of six to eight learners, when she tried hard to get all of them involved in a conversation. Mary realised that this was the time when her moves to encourage learners to be asking questions to each other, or offering feedback, or ping-ponging as referred to in this study, probably started intuitively.

Being 'sharp' in some contexts may not be at odds with interactive moves which promote pupils' development of language, however, it could be that the focus during ITE for Mary was on 'controlling behaviour' (Shulman, 1987). Still discussing behaviour, Mary argued that pace and appropriateness of work had a pivotal effect on pupils' learning and their behaviour, as opposed to the idea of a teacher controlling pupil behaviour without links to learning. In this sense, following Shulman's typology, typology one, ' *general pedagogical knowledge, with special reference to broad principles and strategies of classroom management and organisation which seem to transcend subject matter'* could have been arguably subsumed within types of knowledge 4-7. To engage pupils in

purposeful learning, a teacher needs to understand the educational ends, purposes and values of education as a whole (typology number 4) but also the principles of CLT, which bridges educational ends and content knowledge (typology number 5). According to Mary, communicative tasks within an overall CLT approach to teaching and learning aimed to keep pupils engaged in purposeful learning were responsible for good 'classroom management'. The use of tasks is in line with Gass and Mackey (2006) IA tenets and Dörnyei's seven PCA (2011) principles. The importance of behaviour and communicative tasks will be further discussed in sections 6.3.7 and 6.3.8.

### 6.3.3 Rose

From the start of the interview Rose described her so called impostor syndrome (Brookfield, 1995) by admitting that she was not 100% happy with her pedagogy and her lack of use of the target language (input exposure to learners). Rose explained possible reasons for not using the target language: '*it could be because I don't think of it enough, it looks like it is not a priority for me, or I think they are not going to like it, or be able to follow and understand, too much target language might scare them, or I might lose control (...)*'. Rose was asked to explain further her rationale for use of English, to see if she thought there was a connection between her lack of target language use and her strong use of assessment for learning pedagogy (Black and Wiliam, 1998; 2009; 2018), or responsive pedagogy (Smith et al., 2016; Panadero et al., 2018; Panadero et al., 2017).

> *(…) that could be one of the reasons why I use English, I had never thought of it that way. I did not realise that I used AifL so much either, I actually think it is very important, and it is the way I teach, but I suppose, there is a lot of direct teaching, and I think it has to do with the context of this school, raising attainment, lack of literacy of pupils, their self-worth etc.*

It needs to be remembered that although the four schools had been categorised as comprehensive, Rose's school had the most pupils from areas of severe deprivation. Due to the socio-cognitive factors of her pupils, mainly deprivation contexts and lack of literacy skills, Rose explained that she perceived dialogue in English as indispensable to provide constant feedback which fostered learners' self-regulatory processes, their beliefs in their abilities, and to expand their meta-cognitive processes. Gass and Mackey's IA (2006), emphasises **the role of**

**pupil noticing and the extent to which the socio-cognitive factors of pupils play an important role in what they notice and therefore learn**. Accordingly, Rose's practice was not at odds with the IA framework. Nevertheless this might still not explain her perception of over-reliance of English instead of target language use. However, although Gass and Mackey's IA (2006) posits that the socio-cognitive factors shape language learning, they do not advocate lower use of the target language, since this is indispensable to feed implicit language mechanisms which will be supported by explicit learning, as explained by the PCA (Dörneyi, 2009a). It seemed that Rose was still developing her pedagogical knowledge linked to ML, although it was unclear at the time of this study how that was going to take place.

During her classes, there were many instances in which Rose asked students to work in smaller groups or independently. In those instances, dictionary use was encouraged, and Rose linked that with building up resilience, high order thinking skills, working memory and pupil autonomy. Rose also pointed out that good dictionary skills were paramount to achieve well at national exams. Rose argued that '*it is very important that they become independent learners, but they need my help... maybe more help than pupils may need in other schools where pupils already have those skills*'.

Informal conversations throughout the study and the semi-structured interview revealed the pressure that high stakes exams had on the departmental pedagogy, which, allegedly led to a lack of target language use in the classroom:

> *I am worried because I don't use it enough with the seniors, and the reason for that is because we do our talk* [speaking exam] *as soon as early December* [with an unhappy voice] *and* [long silence, then lowering the voice] *this is too early to do the talk; or with Nat 4 and 5, October for the writing unit, that's too early!* [lowering the voice more and rolling her eyes] *but that is another matter! But that is the push in the department, they are all going to write the same talk, they are going to learn it by heart, so it is all teaching towards a test, instead of getting pupils used to speaking French, getting them confident and competent, asking them a lot of questions here and there, and actually getting students to talk to you!*

It seemed that certain decisions around timing for internal unit assessments and national exams dictated the pedagogy in her school and this will be discussed in the agency section in this chapter. This situation highlights the role of agency

and the issue of the alignment of Curriculum, Assessment and Pedagogy. In terms of Gass and Mackey's IA (2006) this refers to the fact **that the learning seems to take place in the interaction, not in order to interact.** Rose seemed to be aware of this, given her cognitive dissonance regarding the use of target language, although it was unclear what she was going to do to overcome this. Finally, another reason Rose gave for the lack of interaction in the target language with learners and her use of target language had to do with the fear of rise of behavioural issues due to learners not understanding the target language.

### 6.3.4 Juliette

Informally, during the one year observations, Juliette mentioned that when she was a student teacher she thought she ought to use the target language in the class, but she did not get around to it because she did not see the target language used by any teachers or pupils in any of her school placements. During her NQT year, she was placed at the same school as Mary. There she was pleased to observe her colleagues using the **target language as an instrument of teaching**. This led her to believe, *'so it is possible to use it'*. However, she mentioned that her NQT year had been very difficult for her because she tried in many different ways to use the target language without success. Gass and Mackey's IA refers to the importance of the relationship between **comprehensible input and pushed output when using the target language** in the classroom, along with **the role of feedback to help learners' progression**. Juliette recognised that during her ITE and NQT year she was talking in French *'at'* the pupils instead of engaging them in learning within their ZPD. In her interview she mentioned that her language never appeared to be at the right level of difficulty for the pupils, but that she reflected and experimented during the NQT year until she achieved a pedagogy closer to her ideal teacher self, that is, by considering learners' cognitive factors and her use of comprehensible input and feedback to help learners' pushed output.

Even though Juliette and Mary had worked together for one year during their NQT year, it is interesting to note that Juliette recognised that her NQT year was a very stressful year in which she experimented unsuccessfully with target language use, interaction in the target language and the CA. During her interview she pointed out that had she been placed in another department for

her NQT year she might have not been that stressed as many of her former peer PGDE student teachers were not asked during their NQT year to think about target language use nor the CA. She recognised she made 'good enough' progress in her own view and in the eyes of her department, achieving full GTCS registration and securing a permanent post immediately. Although she had worried about behaviour management during her NQT year, this was not perceived as an issue by her department nor her NQT mentor. The importance of pupil behaviour will be discussed in section 6.3.7.

### 6.3.5 Yannick

Yannick had worked as a language assistant and had taught at a private language school before becoming a ML teacher in Scotland. In common with the other teacher participants in the study, he recognised that teaching at the same school for a longer period of time was having a good effect on establishing good rapport with learners. Yannick argued that he looked at learners as individuals; he admitted that, in contrast, during his ITE and NQT years he perceived the class as an entity in itself, making it more difficult to provide **target language exposure**. According to Yannick, he was starting to know how to **use comprehensible input** for different learners within a class, as his classes very often operated as differentiated groups within a class. His practice evidenced his understanding of how to nurture individual learners' cognitive capabilities. The observations showed Yannick's understanding that **attention is socially gated**. Secondly, he also knew '*how much to get out of learners in the target language'* and what kind of **feedback** to provide to get learners to speak more. One aspect of Yannick's practice which stood out was the amount of scaffolding and preparation learners undertook with the help of the teacher before they were ready to engage in talking exercises with their peers. This was evidenced with junior classes and to a lesser extent with senior classes. According to Yannick, his learners needed that security in order to gain confidence to speak and use the target language successfully. It was noted that the role of metacognition and the agenda of AifL were very present in Yannick's practices. Another salient aspect of his practice was all the work he did with many classes on pronunciation, sounding out words in Spanish and French continuously, working on sound clusters, getting learners to read aloud with him to improve their confidence and pronunciation To bring automatisation he included a lot of

pronunciation exercises. When asked whether he had always focused on pronunciation and differentiated group work, Yannick said no, but he had seen that good practice in his current department and decided to embrace it.

It seems that professional space and a good rapport with their mentors and colleagues helped the four teachers develop their ML PCK. In certain occasions, a more direct approach from the mentor equally helped Juliette. Being able to see colleagues using the target language was another contributing factor as well as not worrying about behaviour, as these teachers had achieved good rapport with their classes.

The following sub-sections within ML PCK continue to analyse the themes from the teachers interviews concerning what they perceived helped them to develop as ML teachers.

### 6.3.6 PCK - Transition from a Teacher-Centred to a Pupil-Centred Pedagogy

All four interviews started with the participants being asked about how they built rapport with their pupils and a purposeful language learning ethos with their classes. Yannick, Mary and Rose's answers revealed the extent to which they became more aware to start working towards a pupil-centred approach throughout their student-teacher and NQT year. Yannick recognised that he was only managing to be pupil-centred at the time of the study, although he recognised its importance earlier. For Juliette, the realisation of what being pupil-centred entailed, happened at a later stage of her development, towards the end of her NQT year. Mary narrated the change from early days as a student when she was worried only about learning pupils' names to a more focused approach on pupils' learning. Similarly, Juliette admitted:

> *I feel more relaxed now, about the way I interact with the kids now, because I feel more settled, especially after having been here for a longer time now (...) but the most important thing is that I feel relaxed. During my NQT year I felt always very stressed, probably because I was focusing on many other things, and not in the most important ones, on what really mattered regarding learning and the rapport with the kids.*

Because Juliette was a French national, and she had not been in a Scottish school before the PGDE, this may perhaps have led to her feeling 'a bit lost'. For

example, a lack of understanding of the accent and the ways pupils talked had made a difference in her interaction and rapport building with her classes. Analysing Juliette's interview, it seemed that part of 'settling into Scotland' was linked to her transition from a teacher-centred towards a pupil-centred pedagogy:

> *I felt before I was teaching in a way in which pupils were passive, and I just taught in front of them/ at them, because that is what I was used to when I was at school, when I was young, and now I think it is in a way that pupils need to participate, be part of the learning (...) now we work together, and every time I plan, I think, how are they going to respond to that, is it going to be feasible? I think when I was an NQT I used to plan things which worked for me, ideas which I thought were good, but I did not take into consideration my pupils enough. Now I think of the impact of the learning in the class. Well, it was not that I did not care about the kids before, it is just that I did not have mmmmm, I found it very difficult, and at that age pupils learn in a different way, the context in Scotland is so different.*

According to Juliette her experiences as a pupil in a teacher-centred classroom combined with the different phases of learning all student teachers usually go through, from a novice to a more experienced teacher, all contributed to her development from a teacher-centred to learner-centred teacher. However, she also acknowledged that the directive nature of the feedback provided by her department in her NQT year restricted her feeling of agency.

Yannick also referred to the time it took him to ‘get to grips with’ the Scottish education system and the role of a teacher in a Scottish school. He contrasted being a student teacher to his NQT year and to his other previous teaching jobs, and the importance of feeling ‘settled’ and ‘knowing the learners’ as a permanent member of staff. In his current school he led a number of extra-curricular activities, which he believed had a good effect in building trust and rapport with those considered the most vulnerable learners who perhaps had social interaction issues.

Juliette, when asked to be more specific about the differences in how she approached learners between being a beginning teacher and her permanent post, articulated the links between CLT and a pupil-centred pedagogy. It seemed clear that when Juliette was learning her foreign languages in school herself she did not have to 'use the language':

> *When I was learning languages I felt very passive, I thought I was not progressing much with my talking particularly, mmm, I was really good at reading and writing but listening and talking - I found that very difficult, and I only developed that when I first came here to Scotland. I think I try to contextualise learning for my pupils, so they have the experience of 'being in France' when they are in my classroom. By using the language, culture, doing plenty of role-plays, making sure they talk, making them talk, so they are actually talking, and using the language. I think that by contextualising the learning they understand it better as well.*

It has been noted earlier that Juliette used the target language the most of the four teachers. She had changed the most during her first three years as a practising teacher as she recognised that she had not used the target language during the teacher placements. During her NQT year she realised that she spoke too fast and had not adapted the level of language to the age or learning stage of her pupils. Now however, the observations indicated that learners and teacher were using the target language in the class for transactional purposes, instructions, role-modelling, humour and, as referred to previously in Chapter Five, there was a 'target language mindset'.

### 6.3.7 PCK : The Importance of Behaviour

During the interviews the importance of behaviour was identified as an emerging theme for all four teachers in this study, although to a very different extent. Shulman places classroom management as part of the first section of his classification transcending subject matter. However, this thesis challenges that assertion as the teacher participants' classroom organisation of learning seemed to be connected with target language use. By learning I mean the ways in which teachers engage learners with purposeful learning, the difficulty of the tasks at hand, how teachers get and sustain learners' attention and the way teachers initiated and sustained target language ping-pong for learning to take place. As management of pupil behaviour appeared in all four interviews, this section brings out the voices of the four teachers.

Mary claimed not to have issues with discipline. According to her, classroom discipline was perceived as the main obstacle to using interaction in the target language in the classroom by her peers, university tutor and school mentors. Despite Mary believing during her PGDE year that she did not have *'an issue with*

*discipline',* the idea, perpetuated by departmental colleagues, that it could become an issue if the target language was used too much prevented her from using it more regularly. When asked about the time when she was a student teacher she stated that she had felt she could not be the teacher she wanted to be in contrast to the teacher she was now. She referred to her first teaching job in which she had started to develop her practice in the way she thought a ML class should be and in terms of her personality. A very important milestone for Mary was her NQT year. She felt she was trusted to embark on a classroom pedagogy which could result in noisy classrooms or, according to the interpretation of former University tutors and supervising teachers during her placements, could lead to behaviour issues. However, her focus was on learning and not on behaviour, and she decided to take the risk to enact her teacher ideal self (Dörnyei, 2009b) in terms of classroom tasks and the development of talking activities within the CA. She was aware that colleagues in her department were supportive of her stance, many of them teaching using a similar approach. Following analysis of Mary's interview, it seemed that the focus in her NQT year and beyond was on her pedagogy and not on pupils' behaviour which had worried her during her teaching placements.

At different points in the interviews of the other three teacher participants, it emerged there were still concerns about being seen to be able to manage pupils' behaviour. In Rose's case, the concern was perceived as one of the reasons behind her lack of use of the target language and the reason for planning for very structured talking activities. Yannick also mentioned that, when planning lessons, he always prepared very structured exercises for learners, as he feared learners could be easily distracted and display undesirable behaviours. It could be argued that all the comments of these teachers regarding their teaching strategies and their focus on learning could challenge Shulman's categorisation that classroom organisation does not depend on PCK.

During Juliette's NQT year she had experienced issues with pupils' bad behaviour. In her position at the time of this research, she commented that her Head of Department did not approve of the level of noise in her classroom and had asked her to sit pupils in rows instead of in groups. However, after the Head of Department realised that the attainment of the learners in her classes was

very good, she was allowed to continue teaching the way she felt was most effective.

Research in Scotland (Head, 2003) points towards the fact that better behaviour will be a consequence of purposeful learning. The GTCS (2012) equally frames the role of a teacher as a professional who is able to engage pupils in learning through positive rapport and a commitment to social justice and not as someone who 'controls' behaviour. Yet, this notion of controlling behaviour, continued to arise in the interviews and informal conversations during the year with all four participants in the study. The following section looks at a core aspect of language learning, the classrooms exercises which organise and assist learning. It continues drawing on the voices of Yannick, Juliette, Mary and Rose.

### 6.3.8 PCK: Exercises: Activities and Tasks

When asked about certain exercises and practices which gave opportunities for pupils to practise language leading to automatisation, Mary articulated how her planning included scaffolding to allow learners to go from a controlled practice stage to a more natural 'conversation'. She recognised university advice to 'drill' the vocabulary first, before getting pupils to do other activities. Mary contended that was not enough, and hence there was so much talking in her class both by the teacher and pupils. Mary also stated that when she started teaching, she did not 'drill' in context: ' *it would have just been random words, pictures, repeat, two or three times, that was it. Pupils could take the vocab. and learn it at home'. As* she acquired more teaching experience, her knowledge and understanding of the different aspects of the curriculum increased and she could adapt to the realities and contexts of pupils. In other words, she recognised development of PCA's number 1- **Personal Significance of language**. Yannick, Rose and Juliette also mentioned how their exercises were planned to offer learners **Language Exposure** (number 6) as well as teaching chunks of language in context (**Formulaic**, number 5) to help the learners' language move from short-term memory towards working memory.

Juliette thought that her current practice led to a more balanced approach regarding implicit and explicit learning and formulaic teaching :

*Because they are picking up more pieces of language and it is easier for them to remember, they are picking the other language as well, they start to spot other connectors/words/expressions, pupils are curious about the rest of the language.*

Juliette had a clear understanding of the benefits of interactive practices for pupils' learning:

*When pupils hear all that modelled talking in the classroom, when they are part of it, when they are asking questions themselves, it helps them remembering. Actually, later on, they might not know how to write them, but they are getting a feeling of the order of the elements in a sentence. Then, when they are speaking, they are more likely to ask questions to each other if they have heard that language being practised (...)but* (big silence) *loads of teachers do grammar on their own. For example, I have a class and they might have studied by heart the verb ir (to go) but if pupils do not get to hear ¿adonde vas? or voy a (...) I think it is far more difficult for them to remember or to learn how to use it.*

Juliette's own narrative related to communicative competence and language use was supported by her observed practice

When discussing exercises, which, most of the time took the form of tasks, often in the format of information gaps, Yannick gave a great deal of thought to the type of exercises which would engage pupils in language learning in his NQT year, although he stated that he had started doing that in his placements. Although formally Yannick could not make any theoretical reference to the difference between a task and an activity, intuitively Yannick seemed to know how to create tasks with 'real' and interesting messages to be communicated, so pupils could use the language for communicative purposes. This was evidenced in the classroom by the amount of 'real stories' of his life in France or in Latin America, or by the use of the Internet to bring newspapers into the classroom, top chart artists of different countries and political literacy. Yannick seemed to have different stories that he used as transition tasks to review language and success criteria.

When Mary was asked about the amount of talking (by both teacher and pupils) in the class and whether this had always been the same, she referred back to discipline and behaviour control:

*No, definitively no. Because, during placements, I would say that the interaction between me and pupils was minimal in terms of talking. Okay, I would say now you are doing an activity in pairs, and I would*

*model it, but there was not much talk back and forward between pupils and I; (...) because I was more focused on behaviour. Because on placements, I thought.... try to control the behaviour and the advice was... try not to do too much talking because that's bad for the behaviour, the classroom gets too noisy... it was all about behaviour management.*

When asked again about her perception of her behaviour management when a student teacher she answered that she had actually never had any issues with behaviour:

> *I have never found behaviour management difficult, I think it would have been far more effective for me on placements to actually develop the use of talk in the classroom... and if behaviour issues arose, okay, let me deal with that, (...) but actually it would have been beneficial if I had been allowed to develop my interaction in the classroom in terms of talking... because that was the way I wanted to teach.*

When asked about the roots of her strong teacher ideal self (Kubanyiova, 2012) in terms of interactive pedagogy, Mary stated that she had not been taught in that way at school nor university. She instinctively developed the approach during her year in Spain as a language assistant. She felt that during her NQT year she was given the opportunity to be herself, supported with strategies to interact further at whole class level and she restated her positive experiences in line with her teacher ideal self when she worked with groups as a language assistant: *' in that year I felt I was becoming the teacher I wanted to be, this is the way I want to teach'.*

When asked about the advice she would give student teachers or NQTs regarding developing their ideal teacher self Mary stated:

> *I think you have to adapt to where you are working, because it is very important to have a very good relationship with your colleagues; there is a risk you fail your placement if you teach the way you want to teach (...); so you have to be sneaky and clever, and play the system to pass, learn the things as well as passing, (...) but I think it would have been far more useful for me during those placements to be allowed to teach the way I wanted to teach, instead of having been told that it was very good to a quiet class for long chunks of time, having kids only doing grammar for extensive periods of time.*

During the observations I noted that Mary had different choices and options of activities for some senior classes who appeared more reluctant to speak in class. Having alternatives for pupils who would not engage was Mary's strategy to keep the pace of learning brisk and to keep pupils engaged and motivated. However,

she noted that as pupils got to know her and she built strong rapport with junior pupils, as they progressed through the school, the reluctance of her pupils to speak seemed to be fading. Mary recognised that now she was more resilient in terms of engaging in interactive practices leading pupils to speak, although there had been times in which she 'gave up' with certain classes during her NQT year. According to Mary, if pupils in her ITE year did not give her answers straight away, she either turned into English or moved on to the next activity, instead of following consistent features of her current practice such as: insisting, or rephrasing questions, using the output of other pupils, or giving a brief explanation of the question asked and getting pupils to practise it in pairs.

In the in-depth interview Rose's purposes behind her classroom pedagogy were explored. In particular, with regards to the use of activities or tasks, target language use and more specifically the sense of the disassociation between preparing for very structured talking activities and using language communicatively. Swain (2006) expressed this pedagogical problem when stating that *'we learn languages in interaction and not in order to interact'*. With regards to target language use, it has already been shown that Rose linked her lack of target language use with perceived discipline management issues, pressure from colleagues and superiors and the perceived requirements of the examinations.

When discussing Mary's observed practice, it was noted that Mary intuitively had got closer to her teacher ideal self, although she maintained she had struggled to get there

Rose’s perception was that she had been considered a very effective student teacher by ITE tutors, as well as a very effective NQT by colleagues and her Head of Department. Rose's perception of her ITE year and NQT year was of positive feedback regarding her pedagogy in terms of classroom organisation, creativity of resources, and good use of target language in the classroom. She also acknowledged she used the target language more at that time and recognised she had agency issues at that moment in time, which were preventing her from reaching her ought to or ideal teacher self now. Nevertheless, neither the observations of her practice throughout the year nor

her interview provided evidence of how she might move to a pedagogy underpinned by target language use or a more interactive model of teaching.

As already noted, Rose's talking practice was very scaffolded, with the goal of building up her pupils' self-esteem and language skills so that they could successfully partake in a conversation, having written a script first. As already discussed, this was common as well in Yannick's practice. It could be argued that overall Rose's and Yannick's practices endorsed the notion that '**we learn in order to interact' and not in interaction**, (Gass and Mackey, 2006) which is the opposite of what the interactionists would argue. However, interactionists are basing their arguments on SLA research mainly conducted with adults and in laboratory settings, when one instructor is teaching one or two learners only. Arguably, in Yannick's and Rose's observed practices the interaction at written level was necessary in order to help learners' interaction. Conversely, findings from Mary's and Juliette's case studies would endorse SLA research and Gass and Mackey's (2006) IA as more focused interaction ping-pong took place in their classes without necessarily the help of a written script at all times. This study only looked at the practices of four teachers, so it does not pretend to generalise. In a post-method era (Kumaravadivelu, 2006) there is no one CLT approach and my study shows the need for more classroom studies and the fact that learners at secondary school level need different levels of scaffold in order to be able to interact, and teachers in this study were finding ways to support this.

When Rose was asked about the balance between Controlled Practice (number 3) versus giving pupils more freedom, about encouraging pupils to have a conversation in which they decided the answers as opposed to being given direction by the rubric of the activity. She stated that:

> *I suppose, I guess, they get more freedom when I think they are ready. We do 'controlled' ones first, and very often they do know how to do that. They are there so they can see the language, and if we are doing a game. they can have points for their teams, but then, they have to speak not only to get points, but because they need to practise. After a few lessons, when they were ready for it, and I thought, let's try it, let's see how they do it.*

This pedagogical understanding seems to be at odds with PCA's principle number 1, and the purpose of communication, which could be developed with pupils

with very basic language skills. Rose repeatedly referred to what she thought was best within the constraints of her context. It could be argued that this longitudinal one year study took place in a 'transition' period for this teacher either towards her ought-to teacher or an ideal-teacher self (both whom use the target language more). It was difficult to tease out whether target language use and a closer alignment of Assessment and Pedagogy would be categorised as ought-to or ideal teacher self in the case of this teacher. In Yannick's case, he was clear that his learners needed a script before engaging in a conversation in the target language, so learners' self-efficacy beliefs were raised, and then, eventually they would have been able to engage in more 'free speech' in the target language.

Mary articulated that she had been able to develop her ideal teacher self within two years in her first permanent post and it could be that the process for Rose was taking longer. It would be interesting to return to observe the four teachers again to see if their pedagogical approaches might include more opportunities for focused interaction.

### 6.4 Agency and the Alignment of Curriculum, Assessment and Pedagogy

The previous section aimed to provide a rich picture of the pedagogical conceptual development of the four teacher participants to try to answer the question, 'what affordances and constraints impacted on the conceptual development of the ML pedagogy of the teachers in the study?' As the end of this chapter approaches, this section explores agency and professional space with regards to the alignment of Curriculum, Assessment and Pedagogy. During the interviews, a lack of agency arose when the teachers were discussing assessment practices and high stakes exams in their schools.

Unlike Mary, Yannick and Juliette, the issue of being able to 'do' agency seemed to crop up in Rose's case not in her student teacher nor her NQT years but in her first permanent position. In her interview Rose commented on the favourable feedback from university tutors and colleagues during her NQT year in terms of classroom pedagogy and target language use.

As already noted, she perceived an apparent lack of agency in her current position, an inability to enact agency (Priestley et al., 2015a). A number of pressures, apparently linked to attainment, did not permit Rose to teach in the way she believed would be more pedagogically sound.

A degree of agency during initial teacher education and during subsequent teaching posts seems necessary for the initiation of development. The highly hierarchical school system in Scotland and the tight systems of accountability may clash with teacher agency.

For Mary and for Rose, their pedagogical agency was connected to or at least partly responsible for the alignment, or lack of alignment of Curriculum, Assessment and Pedagogy. This learning issue is regarded in the literature as one of the major educational problems of the 21st century, which still needs consideration in many different countries and contexts (Hayward et al., 2018). It has been noted that Mary had decided to ignore colleagues' advice, and, as she did not have a ML Head of Department, she believed she had the professional space to use her professional judgement. However, Rose was given more directive advice.

When Rose was asked in her interview, 'Do *you think you would like to try different approaches to get your pupils talking more 'freely' in the class?*' ethical issues came to the surface :

> *Probably, but I don't know what those different ways are. Equally, there are occasions in which I am regretful of what I do, or I am doing because I am supposed to do it. For example, with my higher class, but the time they have to do their oral, I don't think they have done enough speaking practice, so I don't think I have prepared them enough. They have not had enough exposure to the language for the unpredictable or more natural elements of language. I think they would benefit if they did the exam later on, and not in October/November. I think I need to do more oral practice built into every lesson, even if it is, "Hi, how are you today? How was your weekend? what did you do?" etc., so pupils get into talking more routinely.*

This quote provides a great deal of information about Rose's thoughts on teaching and learning. On the one hand, she maybe intuitively, acknowledged that PCA's number six - **Language Exposure**, was necessary for learning, that PCA's number five Formulaic was equally important and could be developed through more 'real life' interaction, that there was a lack of PCA's number one -

**Personal Significance**, and she knew it would be good for her to ask her students questions about their lives. She also acknowledged a lack of PCA's number 7 - **Focused Interaction**. From a theoretical point of view, it was clear that she had a sound understanding of what was needed to improve learners' target language use as a means of communication. However, all of these worries were linked with the attainment agenda, and that in the talking examinations her students might have coped better with *'the more unpredictable or more natural elements of language'* (SQA) if she had acted as she thought she should act.

This is an example which shows the fluid relationship between the ideal, ought-to and feared teacher-self (Kubanyiova, 2012). By following departmental guidelines, (ought to teacher-self) she was acting against her teacher ideal-self and thus becoming the feared-teacher self. The focus of student attainment on high stake exams was overriding, and it seemed that assessment dominated this teacher's discourse. Rose came from the same context as the learners, and understood how important it was for pupils' self-worth, career prospects and social mobility to do well in high stakes exams. Equally, in a policy context in which foreign language learning in Scotland has a pattern of 61%decrease in uptake since 2013, it is understandable that in a neo-liberal marketplace, teachers in schools want to ensure high attainment to secure students opt for their subject. Arguably, the teacher's frustration came from her very strong awareness and articulated dissonance arising from the lack of alignment between coverage of the Senior Phase ML curriculum, assessment practices which she did not see as facilitating learning and her pedagogy which she recognised lacked interaction in the target language. Her focus was on attainment as opposed to learning the language for communicative purposes. Another underlying issue might be that the four teachers had the reputation in their departments as teachers whose learners had attained very well on those national exams. A potential issue for further research can be to examine the contradiction of whether certain classroom practices which might not be ideal for learning according to SLA theory achieve nevertheless good attainment in high stakes exams.

This chapter has analysed the conceptual PCK development of Yannick, Rose, Mary and Juliette, using an Early Career ML Teachers' Development Framework

adapted from Priestley et al.'s, (2015a) ecological model of agency and Kubanyiova's LTCC (2012). It has offered analysis and discussion to address the question of what helped and hindered the four teachers to develop as ML teachers. The discussion has been centred around the themes of professional space and agency and the development of PCK. The next chapter considers the limitations of the study, and presents the conclusions and recommendations arising from this study.

## Chapter Seven: Conclusions, Limitations of the Study, Recommendations and Further Areas of Research

### 7.1 Overview

This chapter draws together the findings discussed in Chapters Five and Six and presents conclusions arising from the findings which shed light on to the links between theory and practice, underlining any tensions which have arisen due to the nature of the classrooms in the study versus the 'sterile' nature of many of the research contexts described in the literature on SLA theory. It is important to highlight that for teachers and learners, the classroom in the secondary school context represents the 'real' world of language learning and therefore this research study highlights the contribution this thesis makes, not only to the scholarly literature but also, (and some may see this as even more valuable) to the practitioners in the classroom, as my research should resonate with their own experiences. This chapter will also offer dissemination plans for the findings.

This thesis explored how interaction in SLA theory was consonant with four ML classrooms in Scotland and what affordances and constraints impacted on the conceptual development of the ML pedagogy of the teachers in the study. Chapters Five and Six have explored the themes of ping-pong interaction, which, departing from the original IRE/F (Coulthard and Sinclair, 1975) has offered an alternative view of the interaction frameworks which occurred in these teachers' classrooms. They have also explored the role of the target language as part of Assessment is for Learning (AifL), the importance of the alignment of Curriculum, Assessment and Pedagogy for ML learning and the flow between language skills. All of these themes have been grouped together under ML PCK, taking Dörnyei's (2009a; 2009c) PCA and Gass and Mackey's (2006) IA as frameworks to discuss ML PCK.

Dörnyei's principles, particularly two, Declarative Input; three, Controlled Practice and four, Focus on Form were salient across the observations of the four teachers. Principle 5, Formulaic Language Teaching was also observed in all the teachers, as they were teaching language in context and focused on language chunks which could be re-used as required in other contexts. Those teachers who used the target language most were also feeding the implicit

mechanisms of language learning of learners by exposing them to larger amounts of formulaic language. Although Principle number six, Language Exposure, was prominent in those teachers who used the target language, all four teachers perceived that they had to find ways to use it more. With regards to principle seven, Focused Interaction, teachers admitted that due to time constraints they found it difficult to provide tasks for learners to go from controlled practice to focused 'real' interaction. Finally, principle one, Personal Significance Principle, was evident to different extents because learners at times were merely repeating the messages the teachers had asked them to say. The four teachers in the study had not heard of Dörnyei's PCA (2009a) although they had all read some of his work on motivation. However, implicitly, some of the substance of the PCA principles was referred to by the teachers by a PPP (Presentation/Practice/Production) pedagogical approach. The ML PCK of target language exposure, teaching language chunks in context and the fact that they were part of a learner centred curriculum became evident in their narratives when interviewed. However, some teachers felt some dissonance as they believed they were not using the target language to the extent they wanted in the classroom. They also had concerns that some of their practices were not as learner-centred as they would have liked and this was linked to the focus of the second research question, which explored their perceptions of interaction development and agency in becoming the kind of teacher they wanted to be. In order to provide a clear understanding of their perceptions, I created an Early Career ML Teacher Development Framework which allowed me to make sense of what they expressed.

Focusing on Gass and Mackey's (2006) IA, Chapters Five and Six pointed up that in certain of the observed classes, due to the focus on certain aspects of ML high stakes exams in Scotland, the learning process on occasions finished at the comprehension stage. Often, after the teacher had satisfied him/herself that comprehension had been achieved s/he moved to other aspects of ML learning and teaching. This meant moving onto another skill to focus on other aspects of language within the same topic of learning and as a consequence, it meant that the four ML skills were at times taught in compartmented silos. There were many situations observed, however, in which there was a smooth flow between Listening, Talking, Reading and Writing, for example, the language deployed in

Listening and Reading tasks was used or 'recycled' by learners for Writing and Talking. Those situations seemed to align with Gass and Mackey's (2006) IA tenet that comprehension does not guarantee acquisition of language.

The IA principle of attention being socially gated aligned with the practices observed and discussed as all teachers used AifL pedagogy to help learners' metacognitive processes of learning which were hindered, according to their teachers, due to illiteracy levels. This thesis has shown the interconnectedness of specific ML aspects of AifL such as the role of feedback, links between comprehensible input, pushed output and the role of attention in learning the language. The teachers' practices and their explanations of their teaching did not always reflect Gass and Mackey's tenet of '*learning takes place in the interaction, not in order to interact'*. Teachers argued that many learners needed targeted help in order to be able to interact, so arguably, the process of preparing for the interaction itself through practice in different tasks and activities, was part of the learning process. Technology provided support to learners to scaffold their understanding and noticing mechanisms, for example, by being able to read peers' answers to questions at the same time as they were listening to them. This helped them to learn helpful examples of language as well as noticing others' errors, so they could provide feedback to each other.

This thesis also used an Early Career ML Teachers' Development Framework that I devised as it seemed that there was a lack of frameworks relating to early career teachers which could track and explain aspects of their development from starting as a student to gaining competence and effectiveness, as well as charting their development of the agency which allowed them to do so. For this reason, I chose to form my own framework which would capture the nuanced progress from novice to effective practitioner and which provided a clear picture of their trajectory.

The ECML Development Framework was based on Kubanyiova's (2012) LTCC, paying particular attention to her notion of teacher-selves developed from Dörnyei's (2009b) motivation theory. This was combined/adapted with aspects of Priestley et al.'s (2015a) ecological model of agency to encompass agency and professional space in addition to the development of ML PCK in the four teacher participants in the study. The ecological agency model posits that instead of

focusing on the role of agency in determining social action or seeing agency as residing in individuals as a capacity, agency is an emergent phenomenon. Biesta and Tedder (2007) frame agency as something people achieve as opposed to something people 'have'. Agency is the result of the interplay of individual efforts, available resources and contextual and structural factors as they come together in unique situations (Biesta and Tedder, 2007:137). I was keen to establish the teacher participants' views of their degree of agency and autonomy as practitioners from their early start as student teachers to the place they now occupied as fully qualified practitioners and my framework allowed me to do so.

## 7.2 Final Conclusions

This thesis offered a wide angled view on the interactive practices that took place in four ML secondary school classrooms over the course of a year, as teachers worked to engage learners in a context where the opportunities for developing the use of the target language outside the classroom were minimal or non-existent. I explored the teachers' perceptions of their trajectories as they developed from being relative novices as student teachers to fully registered, that is judged to be competent practitioners (Berliner,2001). The four teacher participants were very different in their teaching styles and they constitute four different examples of effective practice as judged by departmental colleagues and attainment in high stake national exams. Each one had his/her own unique teaching style and it is important to acknowledge that this thesis is not suggesting there is a 'recipe' for teachers to develop interactive practices in order to become their ideal self (Kubanyiova, 2012). Instead, every teacher will have their own ideal self and the findings in this study aim to provide examples of the types of interactive practices observed in the four classrooms, so that teachers can reflect on their own practice with a view to developing further the interaction which takes place in the TL in their classrooms. This thesis and planned future publications of the large number of teaching episodes observed will provide examples of ML secondary classroom interactions which led to successful learning. In addition to the examples offered of effective interactive practices demonstrated in the classrooms of the four teachers, the links

between the different elements of interaction, such as comprehensible input and pushed output, the role of feedback as part of pushed output and different ways of engaging learners' attention could be seen.

In terms of teacher development, it has shown the conceptual developmental stories of the four teachers, demonstrating their progress through the fluid stages of ought-to, feared and ideal teacher-self. It is important to underline that the teachers were not all at their ideal teacher self and in fact, most teachers in one day may experience a fluctuation between these selves (Kubanyiova, 2012). In this study, the four teachers, when they were student teachers, NQTs or in their present jobs, conformed to pressures which resulted in them acting far from their ideal teacher self in order to pass their ITE year or to maintain harmony in their departments / schools. A strong message of this thesis is that Early Career ML teachers are given the space to enact agency, so that they become the teacher they aspire to be or have started to unveil during their ITE year.

### 7.2.1 Curriculum, Assessment and Pedagogy

The effects of extensive external accountability in learning and its impact on pedagogy have been widely reported in the literature (Lingard and Sellar, 2013; Sharon et al., 2006). The conceptualisation of assessment as a pedagogical tool (Wyatt-Smith et al., 2014) and the impact this has on learning is widely accepted (Black and Wiliam, 1998a; 1998b; 2009; 2018) in the literature and among education stakeholders. Yet there are occasions in which there is friction between Curriculum, Assessment and Pedagogy (C/A/P) due to high-stakes exams (Amrein and Berliner, 2002). Wyse et al. (2016) insist on the importance of the alignment between C/A/P, however there were occasions where the teachers took decisions and acted in ways which could be considered as hindering a smooth alignment of these three elements, where they placed an emphasis on only one of the three, for example, on Assessment.

The lack of alignment between Curriculum, Assessment and Pedagogy seemed at times in this study to lead to different pedagogical adaptations with the intention of securing success in high stakes exams. However, in most cases the

teachers organised as much interaction as possible within the perceived confines of the examination requirements. This will be discussed below.

SLA research seems to be mostly focused on linguistic, socio-linguistic or pragmatic learner gains and what makes them learn most effectively, but in a context in which learners tend to be situated outwith the classroom, nor are they adolescents in a secondary school setting where learning a language is mandatory. Therefore, a key contribution of this study is that its findings provide evidence that interaction as conceptualised in SLA theory is not fully reflected in the ML classrooms studied in this thesis. SLA interaction theory points to 'ideal scenarios' to optimise learning but not necessarily the scenarios learners encounter in different countries with different policies and high stakes examinations as the goal of their learning.

In this study, all the teachers acknowledged that at times they felt pressure to focus on examination exercises which demands a great deal of 'translation' practice, of responding in English to questions designed to test understanding. However, there were three teachers who demonstrated that they understood implicitly Gass and Mackey's IA (2006) principles, understanding that learning took place in the interaction in the target language, and that comprehension skills practised for exams on their own did not guarantee language acquisition. These teachers were not seen in the observations from June to December to focus on translation practice. They showed implicit understanding and enactment in their classroom pedagogy that translation from L2 to L1 does not guarantee learning and evidenced a smooth alignment of CfE Curriculum, attainment at SQA exams and CLT, that is alignment of C/A/P. In those cases where teachers, who were able to articulate interaction learning principles, were observed teaching communicatively, there was a flow between the four skills of language learning and learners appeared able to talk and write more naturally, without always having to have a 'script' knowing exactly what to say. It was noted that these talking and writing utterances came from listening and reading stimuli. Equally, teachers when organising learning, showed understanding that attention in language learning is socially gated, by the strategies they had to scaffold learners from declarative knowledge to proceduralising knowledge, for example, by teaching chunks (formulaic language) in context as opposed to single words.

### 7.2.2 The Role of Target Language and Assessment is for Learning (AifL)

The role of AifL, the Scottish policy name for AfL, Assessment for learning is widely acknowledged. The teachers observed in the study followed the AfL pedagogical five steps highlighted by Black (2016), as in the lessons observed (1) they helped learners formulating aims; (2) the planning and (3) implementation of tasks lead to learning, in this case they took into account the interplay between comprehensive input, pushed output, role of feedback in the target language and role of noticing language. This helped with the processes of (4) reviewing learning and (5) summing up (Black, 2016). While these steps are based on theory it was still observed as a very recurrent feature of the classrooms observed.

SLA and Gass and Mackey's IA (2006) take into account learning context and learners' differences, such as socio-cultural learning (Vygotsky, 1978) and motivational theories (Bandura, 2012; Dörnyei, 2009b). However, the role of meta-cognition, learner's regulation of learning and the 'learning to learn' agenda is not always encapsulated in the interaction studies as the cognitive development in terms of language learning skills of the learners taking part in laboratory studies or bilingual contexts is not the same as learners in classroom contexts. As noted earlier, Gass and Mackey's (2006) IA nevertheless includes a focus of social factors, cognitive factors, the roles of attention and feedback, highlighting attention and their conviction that learning is socially-gated. In this sense, the classrooms in this study were consonant with SLA theory, adding empirical evidence to this under-researched field. In this study, at times teachers focused on the learners' metacognitive processes carrying forward AifL principles by judicious use of English. When they sacrificed target language exposure in order to use AifL pedagogy - while the learners had a clear steer as to how to improve their language, the lack of target language in the classroom may have hindered implicit learning mechanisms. However, when this happened it was clear that the teachers had considered that the focus on form was important for future interaction.

The next section offers some concluding remarks about ping-pong interaction, linking aspects of ping-pong with AifL.

### 7.2.3 Ping-Pong Interaction

An important aspect of this thesis is the empirical evidence which it adds to the body of research which questions the traditional IRE/IRF (Coulthard and Sinclair, 1975; Jones and Wiliam, 2008) interaction framework in a secondary classroom, particularly with regard to ML teaching and learning. Crichton's study (2013) already pointed out that learners could also be initiators of messages in the classroom. I coined the term ping-pong when taking notes whilst observing a teacher, trying to capture the essence of the interaction moves observed. These interaction patterns were sharp, they involved more than one learner, and at times happened at full class level and at others in groups. Questions in the target language were not exclusively initiated by the teacher, learners asked questions and provided feedback, at times through the mediation of technology. In the 1980s and early 1990s, when many studies on interaction 'within the black box' took place, it was still the early days of CLT (when the IRF frameworks were observed in ML teaching and learning).Conversely, the ping-pong interaction framework observed responds to CLT pupil-centred pedagogy A pupil-centred pedagogy is equally linked with the changes of power dynamics in a post-method era (Kumaravadivelu, 2006), as learners in schools have a more active role in their learning.

The study provides rich examples of how technology helped ping-pong interaction and the ways in which the teachers used technology to scaffold the learning and to provide feedback to learners, in scenarios in which both learners and teachers were part of this feedback process. Feedback in this case is understood in the sense of the SLA interaction feedback, such as negotiation of meaning, elicitation, recasts, or meta-linguistic cues, not as comments in English to help the learner self-regulate and to identify next steps. An ongoing tension with Assessment for Learning is the fact that, in order to make key messages understandable for teachers and learners, the language has been simplified, treating AifL pedagogy as a generic aspect of teaching and learning (Hayward et al. 2018). This carries the risk of teachers understanding and treating AifL as a list of generic learning and teaching strategies or rules to help learners self-regulate. The generic language issue makes it more difficult to gauge different levels of understanding of AifL among the different learning stakeholders (Hayward et al., 2018). Consequently, this generic approach might hide the

intricacies of what AifL means for ML PCK. The teachers in the study addressed the intricacies of interaction through the analysed ping-pong interaction framework. This study has shown how four teachers, in different ways, have provided feedback that is relevant in a ML PCK context, and promotes learning in the ML classroom. This may act as a reference guide for others wishing to increase their interaction in the classroom and the feedback they provide to learners in order to assist their learning, so that they can use the language to make meaning rather than merely demonstrating comprehension.

Smith (2011) argues for the importance of AfL pedagogy in ITE, including all the stakeholders who work with students at university and school placement levels. However, the generic approach to AifL which may take place during ITE and NQT years might make it more difficult for early career teachers to reflect about their role when providing comprehensible input, feedback and pushed output in the target language. The issue of a generic approach to development beyond ITE during the NQT year is addressed in the next section which includes recommendations.

## 7.3 Recommendations

This section provides concluding remarks, with regards to the second research question, on what affordances and constraints impacted on the conceptual development of the ML pedagogy of the teachers in the study. It offers recommendations which could be inferred from their narratives and perceptions of development.

### 7.3.1 Professional Space for Development and Communicative Language Teaching

It will be recalled that Mary, when asked about the advice she would give student teachers or NQTs regarding developing their ideal teacher self, stated:

> *I think you have to adapt to where you are working, because it is very important to have a very good relationship with your colleagues; there is a risk you fail your placement if you teach the way you want to teach (...); so you have to be sneaky and clever, and play the system to pass,*

> *learn the things as well as passing, (...) but I think it would have been far more useful for me during those placements to be allowed to teach the way I wanted to teach, instead of having been told that it was very good to have a quiet class for long chunks of time, having kids only doing grammar for extensive periods of time.*

In this case, and although this is only one example, it seems that the way Mary wanted to teach reflects CLT, which is the pedagogical approach which research shows is more conductive to successful learning (Dörnyei, 2009a; Ellis, 2003; Gass and Mackey, 2006). It appears that giving student teachers space for development during school placements and their NQT year is key for their ML PCK development. This means that schools and visiting university tutors do not slavishly adhere to GTCS standards, but instead allow student teachers or NQTs to be creative and to try things out. The issue of how creative supervising teachers and mentors can allow them to be in their classes, when they are part of a strictly controlled system with a strong emphasis on high stakes exams and accountability is an interesting conundrum.

A turning point in terms of gaining professional space for two of the teachers in this study, beyond their ITE and NQT period, was when their classes attained well in high stakes exams. Their perceptions were that their colleagues had thought they were far too creative or subversive by over focusing on communicative tasks or having classes that were too noisy. However, they felt they were now given more professional space because they sensed their pedagogical moves were less questioned by colleagues or Heads of Department, after demonstrating that their CLT tasks also delivered good results at high stakes exams. Each teacher had a different trajectory in terms of the projective dimension of agency. Whilst three seemed to have a very clear teacher ideal-self from the beginning of their ITE programme, one came to terms with what a pupil-centred pedagogy meant in terms of CLT during the NQT year. Arguably, she over-turned her 'apprenticeship of observation' (Lortie,1975) working in collaboration with her department and mentor(s), taking steps towards CLT.

Conversely, in terms of structural agency the four teachers in the study expressed the importance of rapport with mentors and Heads of Department. This had an influence in their control of their physical environment, including the amount of 'noise' they were 'able to make' or whether they could arrange their classes in groups rather than rows. Three of the four teachers recognised

the importance of having been exposed to CLT approaches in the departments in which they had spent their NQT year and the impact that had on their development. Conversely, the teacher in the study who felt she did not have professional space at that moment in her career demonstrated the three facets of teacher self: Ideal, ought to and feared (Kubanyiova, 2012) altogether. These findings seem to indicate the importance of professional space and agency in the iterational and practical-evaluative dimensions, in order to gain the projective dimension of agency.

### 7.3.2 The Role of Universities during the NQT Year

As discussed in this thesis, professional space and agency played an important role in the conceptual development of the ML PCK of teachers in the study during ITE, NQT and their first teaching post. Professional space and agency had an impact on what the teachers thought matters most, for example whether it was more important to have a noisy classroom in which children were ping-ponging in the target language or a 'well behaved' quiet classroom with little target language exposure nor interaction. Professional space and agency were discussed when teachers talked about when they were either experimenting with target language use as student teachers, NQTs or during their first jobs, or planning purposeful tasks which would align with Dörnyei's PCA (2009a; 2009c) or Gass and Mackey's IA (2006). Professional space and agency were discussed when exploring a lack of alignment between Curriculum, Assessment and Pedagogy, as some teachers intuitively wanted to use formative assessment as part of the learning and teaching rather than getting all learners to memorise a text they did not understand for a national assessment.

In order to analyse Yannick's, Rose's, Mary's and Juliette's perceptions, I created an Early Career ML Teachers' Development Framework looking at the interplay of the three dimensions of agency and ML Teachers' Cognitions. This framework was very valuable, and I used it to track their perceptions of their progress to the position they were in at the time of the study. It seemed that those teachers who were given at different points of their careers professional space to 'do' agency were getting better at making links between the skills of listening, talking, writing and reading. They were using comprehensible input

and pushed output, as well as providing feedback not only when practising the compartmentalised skill of 'talking', but throughout. In these cases, the professional space and agency was achieved in combination with further learning on CLT with colleagues and mentors in the department.

Based on the experiences of the four teachers in this study, the ITE year had had a ML PCK theoretical/practical element and that was seen as helpful to make connections between CLT theory and practice. Conversely, during their NQT year, on the one hand, it seemed that there was a focus on practical elements of ML arising from the observations by school members for the GTCS full registration requirements. NQTs have to be observed teaching nine times throughout their NQT year. On the other hand the four teachers in the study accessed theory in workshops at LA or School level aimed at generic aspects of learning and teaching, so their ML PCK development seemed to depend solely on their discussions with their ML colleagues and mentors. This generic approach to teacher learning when taking part in CPD did not help some teachers in the study to develop their conceptual understanding of ML pedagogy and interactive practices.

Teacher education programmes in Scotland are conceptualised as a two year programme. During the ITE year student teachers learn in schools and universities, but during the second year, their induction scheme, their development only takes place within LAs and schools. During the induction year, it might be beneficial for NQTs to continue engaging with CLT theory through the continuation of supportive work with ITE ML tutors. This might help in the development of their ML PCK, in terms of the intricacies of AifL for ML PCK, and in the alignment of C/A/P. Interaction with the universities might also assist with the double role schools have supporting and mentoring NQTs whilst officially assessing whether they gain full registration into the profession.

### 7.3.3 Mentoring and Third Place Construction

It might seem ironic that a central argument in this thesis has been linked with socio-cultural learning and how teachers help learners progress in ML, and

although the same principles would seem to apply to teacher education, the stories of the four teachers suggest that it did not seem to always be the case.

Teacher education has been re-conceptualised as a process in which the students are 'no longer docile listeners' but instead they 'are now critical co-investigators in dialogue with the teacher' (Freire, 2000:62). In practice, this means that students and mentors together construct a third space (Klein et al., 2013) which invites the potential to live theory directly, deconstructing the barrier between the academy and the lives of the people it professes to represent (Routledge, 1996). This approach contrasts with the fact that when the teacher participants were student teachers, they often felt part of a top-down learning process (Borg, 2003).

The unbalanced power relationship between student teacher and NQT and school mentor and Head of Department should be discussed openly during school placements. Mentors, who are seen as the more knowledgeable others could be supported by universities so that they are able to openly bring about the discussion with mentees of construction of a third place which fits within socio-constructivist learning theory. It could be said that the third place is conceptualised as a non-judgemental space, where theoretical and practical concerns can be discussed to make sense of how the two can align to provide an effective learning environment. The findings point to a need for greater professional learning so that mentoring aligns with socio-constructivist principles which will lead to reflective practitioners as stated in the GTCS standards.

However, it should be noted that the current approach to learning in which the 'trainee teacher' spends time under the supervision of a mentor is a consequence of well ingrained systems of scrutiny and accountability in the UK and Scotland (Ball, 2003). The four teachers in this study, once initially qualified were also subject during their NQT year to strict mentoring and control procedures, often by a colleague, or Head of Department. The four teachers in this study were observed nine times throughout their NQT year as part of this mentoring scheme. Conversely, in other European countries, during the equivalent of the NQT year, early career teachers are under the supervision of an inspector who is not 'employed' by the LA in which they work. Further research in this area could involve a comparative study where the best practice

of other countries can be identified with a view to producing a template for teacher education and continuing teacher education as a two way exchange.

### 7.4 The ML Classroom, a Black Box or a Hothouse?

The findings of this thesis provide food for thought for both teachers and teacher educators. Teachers may find reassurance and practical ideas from the answers to the first research question, in what ways does interaction in SLA theory reflect the ML classrooms studied in Scotland? These answers can help teachers and teacher educators make the links between theory and practice more easily, by exploring interaction frameworks such as ping-pong, ML specific aspects of AifL, and by exposing the classroom dilemmas and tensions teachers overcome to align Curriculum, Assessment and Pedagogy. In terms of the area within SLA which studies L2 learning in instructed settings, this thesis points out for the need to further research inside the 'black box' (Long,1980). Clarke's hothouse image (2003) showed the dissonance between the ideal hothouse with all the optimal conditions for growing tomatoes and the tensions arising when the gardener only concentrates on the conditions of the hothouse to be optimal but forgets to check on the tomatoes. Although none of the teacher participants nor myself would compare learners with tomatoes, to build on Clarke's hothouse image, it was clear that the four teacher participants were consistently throughout the one year study concentrating on each of those learners as individuals, as well as creating optimal learning environments for each of the classes they taught. I noted that the development of the four teachers throughout the one academic year of the study was linked with the fact that they got to know their learners better and therefore their interactive moves and ping-ponging were more specifically geared to each learner.

It would appear that Long's and Clarke's images of the classroom as the black box or the hothouse may not fully represent the influences that external forces to the classroom might have on classroom learning. These include the performativity and accountability agendas, or derision of the teaching profession (Ball, 2003; Ball, 2008; Forde et al., 2006) and the pervasive effects of high stakes exams (Lingard and Sellar, 2013; Sharon et al., 2006) which had an effect in this research study on the alignment of C/A/P. Bringing back Clarke's

hothouse metaphor (2003) the hothouse is influenced by the rain or sunshine outside.

Teacher educators and LA and school mentors may be supported by the answers and recommendations to the second research question, which addressed newly qualified teachers: what affordances and constraints impacted on the conceptual development of the ML pedagogy of the teachers in the study? The Early Career ML Development Framework has shown the image of the tip of the iceberg representing what can be seen of ECMLST's cognitions. However, the visual representation also showed other iceberg tips surrounding each ECMLST as the collective of their colleagues has an impact on their development. This thesis is mindful that it has looked at the development of teachers, but it has looked at each of them in isolation. A strength of the Teacher Agency and Curriculum Change research project reviewed in section 3.5.3 was that they looked at schools as units, looking at the interplay of the different factors within a school. This is a limitation of this study, as it has looked at teachers in isolation, thus the reason for reporting their perceptions of development including their interplay with university mentors and fellow ML teachers. In a study about the implementation of AifL in Scotland, Hayward concluded that, for educational change to be sustainable, it had to be designed to have Educational Integrity, Personal and Professional Integrity and Systemic Integrity (Hayward and Spencer, 2010). Educational Integrity refers to learners, teachers, policy makers and researchers working in collaboration with a common aim, that of improving learning for pupils. By Personal and Professional Integrity Hayward meant the engagement of each individual and each community, for the innovation to the successful. Hayward observed that the AifL programme had been successful because it led to practice change due to Systemic Integrity, that is, when all communities are involved in designing, developing and evaluating the change leading to future action. The findings in this thesis seem to point out that for the development of ECMLST Systemic Integrity is needed, and that is the reason I am recommending further collaboration between Universities and LAs during teachers' NQT year. This thesis also indicated that Personal and Professional Integrity were needed as the ECMLST in the study developed as part of a learning community. Finally, Educational Integrity is needed to take into account the effects high-stakes exams can have in ML pedagogy, so closer

collaboration between ITE institutions and government or between GTCS and the examination systems could be advantageous to learning.

### 7.5 Limitations of the Study

The first limitation of this study is linked to the amount of data arising from the one year longitudinal study. These were the two research questions:

(1) In what ways is interaction in SLA theory consonant with the ML classrooms studied in Scotland?

(2) What affordances and constraints impacted on the conceptual development of the ML pedagogy of the teachers in the study?

Each question would have sufficed to write a at least one doctoral thesis however, I found it very difficult not to relate the narratives of the four teacher participants' development and to weave those perceptions of their development into the thesis. Otherwise this study could have been categorised as four black boxes.

Although the scope of the study was ample, this study only looked at four teacher participants, and as highlighted in section 7.4, in terms of teacher development, it did not explore the teachers as part of their wider teaching community. Finally, as explained in the methodology chapter, the fact that the teachers knew I was looking at their interactive practices might have had an effect on their lessons, although the observer's paradox was minimised by the one year length of the study, as explained in the methodology chapter.

### 7.6 Plans for Dissemination

The findings in terms of interaction, including the links between Gass and Mackey's IA (2006) and Dörnyei's PCA (2009a) illustrated with the exemplars of ping-pong classroom practice will be shared with the international SLA research community through publication in Language Learning and Language Education Journals. Findings related to the specific aspects of ML AifL pedagogy discussed in this thesis will be disseminated internationally via The University of Glasgow Educational Assessment Network (UGEAN).

Reflection is a very important factor for teacher development. I am keen to start using the Early Career ML Development Framework with my PGDE ML students as part of my work in teacher education. It can be used by ITE and LAs in Scotland, but equally it could be adapted so different subjects consider PCK in their own areas. A starting point for dissemination in Scotland for the Early Career ML Development Framework and Interaction findings will be through the ML Group of the Scottish Council of Deans of Education (SCDE). Key findings can be subsumed and disseminated through the National Framework for Languages Scotland (NFfL), which also works with key education stakeholders such as the Scottish Government through Education Scotland and Scotland's National Centre for Languages (SCILT).

Finally, but not least important, findings will be used in ML courses at the U of G, since research led teaching is one of the institution aims and the ultimate goal of a Doctorate of Education.

**List of Appendices**

## Appendix 1: Teacher Participant Overview

| | Age at the time of the study | Nationality | Education studies | Subjects Taught |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Mary | 26 | Scottish | PGDE | French and Spanish |
| Rose | 26 | Scottish | PGDE | French and Spanish |
| Juliette | 26 | French | PGDE | French and Spanish |
| Yannick | 26 | French | PGDE | French and Spanish |

**Appendix 2: GTCS Standards for Registration**

The standards (GTCS, 2012) are grouped into 3 overarching categories:

*1- Professional values and professional commitment*

*2- Professional Knowledge and Understanding*

*3- Professional Skills and Abilities*

Effective interaction can be seen as a thread running through the Standards, both with learners and colleagues, stated explicitly, but also implicitly. The third category is divided into three sub-categories and 'successful' interaction is a common denominator which makes all of these different strands possible:

3.*1- Teaching and Learning*

*3.2- Classroom organisation and management*

*3.3- Pupil assessment*

*3-4- Professional Reflection and Communication*

Successful interaction appears as a constant feature in this category: *3.1.2- Communicate effectively and interact productively with learners, individually and collectively* by using a range of communicative methods, and demonstrating a variety of questioning methods, amongst others. Strand 3.1.3 deals with teaching strategies and resources to meet the needs and abilities of all learners; 3.1.4- *Have high expectations of all learners*, which the document recognises as a two way approach, as the teacher also is bound to communicate and raise learner's expectations of themselves. 3.1.5- *Work effectively in partnership in order to promote learning*: in order to achieve this , the GTCS recognises professional actions such as creating and sustaining working relationships with staff, parents, and partner agencies, and creating a culture where learners meaningfully participate in decisions related to their learning.

*3.2.1- Create a safe, caring and purposeful learning environment, 3.2.2- Develop positive relationships and positive behaviour strategies.* Interaction to facilitate positive behaviour with pupils, and seeking advice from other colleagues and promoted staff is seen as the way forward by these standards.

Standard 3.3- Pupil assessment, equally recognises the importance of using *an extensive range of formative and summative assessment strategies*, for which, interaction is the means for an end.

The final strand, 3.4 recognises the importance of professional reflection and communication. The GTCS encourages a practitioner enquiry approach to develop classroom practice, and to work towards that aim, teachers have to get involved in self-evaluation as well as engaging in systematic professional dialogue. For this strand, interaction with the immediate professional entourage of the teacher is equally important.

The standards were written in a generic approach, so they apply to primary and secondary teachers. However many of the aspects of this standard have a specific meaning for ML PCK, CLT and interaction in the target language. The link below takes the reader to the full GTCS standards and this appendix includes section 3 of the standards.

https://www.gtcs.org.uk/professional-standards/standards-for-registration.aspx

**3.1 Teaching and Learning**

**3.1.2 Communicate effectively and interact productively with learners, individually and collectively**

| Professional Actions | Registered teachers: |
|---|---|
| Student teachers:<br><br>▫ model appropriate levels of literacy and numeracy in their own professional practice;<br><br>▫ use communication methods, including a variety of media, to promote and develop positive relationships and to motivate and sustain the interest of all learners;<br><br>▫ communicate appropriately with all learners, and promote competence and confidence in literacy;<br><br>▫ demonstrate effective questioning strategies;<br><br>communicate the purpose of the learning and give explanations at the appropriate level(s) for all learners;<br><br>▫ stimulate learner participation in debate and decision-making about issues which are open-ended, complex, controversial or emotional; | ▫ model appropriate levels of literacy and numeracy in their own professional practice;<br><br>▫ use a range of communication methods, including a variety of media, to promote and develop positive relationships to motivate and sustain the interest and participation of all learners;<br><br>▫ communicate appropriately with all learners, and promote competence and confidence in literacy;<br><br>▫ demonstrate effective questioning strategies varied to meet the needs of all learners, in order to enhance teaching and learning;<br><br>communicate the purpose of the learning and give effective explanations at the appropriate level(s) for all learners;<br><br>▫ create opportunities to stimulate learner participation in debate and decision-making about issues which are open-ended, complex, controversial or emotional; |

| | |
|---|---|
| ▫ reflect on the impact of their personal method of communication on learners and others in the classroom. | ▫ reflect on the impact of their personal method of communication on learners and others in the learning community. |

3.1.3 Employ a range of teaching strategies and resources to meet the needs and abilities of learners

| Professional Actions<br><br>Student teachers:<br><br>▫ demonstrate that they can select creative and imaginative strategies for teaching and learning appropriate to learners as individuals, groups or classes;<br><br>▫ demonstrate that they can select and use a wide variety of resources and teaching approaches, including digital technologies and outdoor learning opportunities;<br><br>▫ demonstrate the ability to justify and evaluate professional practice, and take action to improve the impact on all learners. | Professional Actions<br><br>Registered teachers:<br><br>▫ consistently select creative and imaginative strategies for teaching and learning appropriate to the interests and needs of all learners, as individuals, groups or classes;<br><br>▫ skilfully deploy a wide variety of innovative resources and teaching approaches, including digital technologies and, where appropriate, actively seeking outdoor learning opportunities;<br><br>▫ justify consistently and evaluate competently professional practice, and take action to improve the impact on all learners;<br><br>▫ create opportunities for learning to be transformative in terms of challenging assumptions and expanding world views. |
|---|---|

**3.1.4 Have high expectations of all learners**

| Professional Actions<br><br>Student teachers:<br><br>▫ develop tasks and set pace of work to meet the needs of learners, providing effective support and challenge, seeking advice appropriately;<br><br>▫ demonstrate an awareness of barriers to learning, recognising when to seek further advice in relation to all learners' needs. | Professional Actions<br><br>Registered teachers:<br><br>▫ ensure learning tasks are varied, differentiated and devised to build confidence and promote progress of all learners, providing effective support and challenge;<br><br>▫ identify effectively barriers to learning and respond appropriately, seeking advice in relation to all learners' needs as required;<br><br>▫ show commitment to raising learners' expectations of themselves and others and their level of care for themselves, for others and for the natural world. |
|---|---|

**3.1.5 Work effectively in partnership in order to promote learning and wellbeing**

| Professional Actions<br><br>Student teachers: | Professional Actions<br><br>Registered teachers: |
|---|---|

| | |
|---|---|
| ▫ ensure learners contribute to planning and enhancement of their own learning programmes;<br><br>▫ demonstrate an ability to work co-operatively in the classroom and the wider learning community with staff, parents and partner agencies to promote learning and wellbeing. | ▫ establish a culture where learners meaningfully participate in decisions related to their learning and their school;<br><br>▫ create and sustain appropriate working relationships with all staff, parents and partner agencies to support learning and wellbeing, taking a lead role when appropriate |

**3.2 Classroom Organisation and Management**

**3.2.1 Create a safe, caring and purposeful learning environment**

| Professional Actions<br><br>Student teachers: | Professional Actions<br><br>Registered teachers: |
|---|---|
| ▫ plan and provide a safe, well organised learning environment, including effective use of display; | ▫ ensure their classroom or work area is safe, well-organised, well managed and stimulating, with effective use of display regularly updated; |
| ▫ make appropriate use of available space to accommodate whole class lessons, group and individual work and promote independent learning; | ▫ plan and organise effectively available space to facilitate whole-class lessons, group and individual work and promote independent learning; |
| ▫ use outdoor learning opportunities, including direct experiences of nature and other learning within and beyond the school boundary; | ▫ use outdoor learning opportunities, including direct experiences of nature and other learning within and beyond the school boundary; |
| ▫ organise and manage classroom resources and digital technologies to support teaching and learning;<br><br>▫ know about and be able to apply health and safety regulations as appropriate to their role. | ▫ enable learners to make full use of well-chosen resources, including digital technologies to support teaching and learning;<br><br>▫ know about and apply appropriately health an integral part of professional practice. |

**3.2.2 Develop positive relationships and positive behaviour strategies**

| Professional Actions<br><br>Student teachers: | Professional Actions<br><br>Registered teachers: |
|---|---|
| ▫ demonstrate care and commitment to working with all learners; | ▫ demonstrate care and commitment to working with all learners; |
| ▫ demonstrate knowledge and understanding of wellbeing indicators<br>show awareness of educational research and local and national advice, and demonstrate the ability to use a variety of strategies to build relationships with learners, promote positive behaviour and celebrate success; | ▫ demonstrate a secure knowledge and understanding of the wellbeing indicators; show in-depth awareness of educational research and local and national advice, and use in a consistent way, a variety of strategies to build relationships with learners, promote positive behaviour and celebrate success; |
| ▫ apply the school's positive behaviour policy, including strategies for understanding and preventing bullying; | ▫ implement consistently the school's positive behaviour policy including strategies for |

| | |
|---|---|
| ▫ know how and when to seek the advice of colleagues in managing behaviour;<br><br>▫ demonstrate the ability to justify the approach taken in managing behaviour | understanding and preventing bullying, and manage pupil behaviour in and around the school, in a fair, sensitive and informed manner;<br><br>▫ seek and use advice from colleagues and promoted staff, as appropriate, in managing behaviour;<br><br>▫ evaluate and justify their approaches to managing behaviour and, when necessary, be open to new approaches to adapt them;<br><br>▫ recognise when a learner's behaviour may signify distress requiring the need for further support, and take appropriate action. |

**3.3 Pupil Assessment**

| Professional Actions<br><br>Student teachers: | Professional Actions<br><br>Registered teachers: |
|---|---|
| ▫ use a range of approaches for formative and summative assessment purposes, appropriate to the needs of all learners and the requirements of the curriculum and awarding and accrediting bodies;<br><br>▫ enable all learners to engage in self-evaluation and peer assessment to benefit learning;<br>record assessment information to enhance teaching and learning;<br><br>▫ use the results of assessment to identify strengths and development needs which lead to further learning opportunities. | ▫ systematically develop and use an extensive range of strategies, approaches and associated materials for formative and summative assessment purposes, appropriate to the needs of all learners and the requirements of the curriculum and awarding and accrediting bodies;<br><br>▫ enable all learners to engage in self-evaluation and peer assessment to benefit learning;<br>record assessment information in a systematic and meaningful way in order to enhance teaching and learning and fulfil the requirements of the curriculum and awarding bodies;<br><br>▫ use the results of assessment to identify development needs at class, group and individual level and as a basis for dialogue with learners about their progress and targets;<br><br>▫ produce clear and informed reports for parents and other agencies which discuss learners' progress and matters related to personal, social and emotional development in a sensitive and constructive way. |

**Appendix 3 : Keck et al. meta-analysis (2006)**

| L2 | Setting- All Laboratory |
|---|---|
| English Second Language (4)<br>English Foreign Language (3)<br>Spanish Foreign Language (4)<br>Japanese Foreign Language (3) | Ages ranged from 15 to 44<br><br>University (10)<br>High School (2)<br>Adult setting, not University (2) |

Keck et al., looked at over 100 studies concerned with the link between interaction and acquisition between 1980 and 2003. The inclusion criteria included looking at communication tasks which were used as the treatment in the study or to create contexts for application of treatment such as recasts. Tasks used were face to face, dyadic or group oral communication tasks. Tasks were assigned to measure learning of specific grammatical and/or lexical features.

The majority of sample studies (85%) of interaction involved native-speaker researchers or teaching assistants who were trained to do specific tasks designs. In three studies learners interacted amongst themselves. For more details see Keck et al., 2006.

Interaction promoted acquisition, tasks which focused on grammar and lexis produced large main effects. Regarding the effectiveness of task types, jigsaws and information gap were the most popular. Their analysis also suggested that tasks which planned for opportunities for pushed output were more useful, but learners needed time to process input and feedback received. They finally asked for caution to be exercised when deriving pedagogical implications from these laboratory studies.

**Appendix 4 : Mackey and Goo meta-analysis (2007)**

| **Conversational Interaction in Second Language Acquisition, (Mackey and Goo 2007)** | | |
|---|---|---|
| | **Classroom Contexts** | **Laboratory Contexts** |
| **Developmental**<br><br>**(e.g. employing pre & post-tests)** | 15<br><br>10 (adults)<br>1 (French immersion children)<br>1 (French immersion adolescents)<br>1 (ESL adolescents)<br>1 (EFL range of ages)<br>1 (EFL adolescents) | 30<br><br>26 (adults)<br>4 (3 x ESL children, 1 Dutch SL) |
| **Descriptive**<br><br>**(e.g. investigating learner uptake)** | 16<br><br>10 (adults)<br>1 (German FL adolescents)<br>4 (French immersion children)<br>1 (ESL children) | 14<br><br>11 (adults)<br>1 (ESL children)<br>2 (ESL adolescents & adults) |

Mackey and Goo (2007) findings show the strong undisputed correlation between interaction and learning, at least in small groups, dyads, and with adults. They concluded that interaction facilitates the acquisition of both lexis and grammar, with interaction having a stronger immediate effect on lexis and a delayed and durable effect on grammar.

In terms of the effectiveness of interaction to promote acquisition of linguistic forms, the main findings showed that interactional treatments produced a strong effect on acquisition in both immediate and delayed tests.

Regarding the extent to which the type of target feature (lexis versus grammar) mediates the relationship between interaction and L2 developmental outcomes, the review showed that learners gained more from interaction on lexical terms than grammatical items in the immediate post-tests. However, learners showed greater gains on grammatical rather than on lexical terms in both short-term and long-term delayed post-tests.

Exploring how the presence or absence of interactional feedback mediated the relationship between interaction and L2 developmental outcomes, their meta-analysis highlighted some issues: whilst this literature review has noted that interactional feedback is one of the benefits of interaction , such as Long's interaction theory (1996) , or that of Gass (1997) or Swain (2005), the meta-analysis showed that there was a general lack of interactional treatments without feedback, so the question could not be fully explored.

The meta-analysis showed that when looking at the type of feedback, recasts showed large effects on L2 developmental outcomes. In terms of the focus of the feedback, in the immediate post-tests there were no differences found whether the feedback was broad or focused on specific linguistic items. However, focused feedback seemed to be more effective on the short-term delayed tests.

Their meta-analysis looked into the effect of modified output in learning, that is encouraged modified output versus discouraged. As none but one study had focused specifically on discouraging students to provide pushed output, it was found difficult to make comparisons to draw conclusions. It is not surprising that most studies take for granted that encouraging modified output, or using Swain's terms pushed output is positive in learning, so therefore, it was difficult to answer this question in their meta-analysis.

Their meta-analysis finally looked at contextual and methodological factors: context (L2 versus FL); setting (classroom versus laboratory) and type of dependent measure (naturalistic production versus open and closed ended prompted production versus prompted response). Interactional treatments seemed more effective in FL than L2 contexts and the difference was more significant on immediate post-tests. Laboratory setting studies showed strong effects across all tests, however classroom setting studies only showed significant effects on the delayed tests. Overall, the laboratory studies showed the stronger effect. Of all classroom settings, most of them took place with adult settings on immersion contexts. Finally, in terms of the relationship between the type of dependent measure which is employed and the L2 developmental outcomes that have been found in interactional research, the largest effect was found for closed ended prompted production. Nevertheless, a significant effect was found too for open ended prompted production.

**Appendix 5: Lyster and Saito meta-analysis (2010)**

Lyster and Saito's meta-analysis investigated the pedagogical effectiveness of oral corrective feedback on target language development. Their study included 15 classroom studies. However, of those 15 studies, only 2 studies were based on secondary school learners (see table below). The study looked at the types of corrective feedback which were effective. It showed better learning outcomes for prompts than recasts, especially when they led to the elicitation of free constructed responses. Their study also showed that younger learners benefitted more from corrective feedback than older learners.



**Table 1.** Thirty-four classroom- and laboratory-based CF studies qualified for a meta-analysis

| Classroom-based studies ($N$ = 15) | Laboratory-based studies ($N$ = 19) |
|---|---|
| Ammar and Spada (2006) | Carroll and Swain (1993) |
| DeKeyser (1993) | Carroll, Swain, and Roberge (1992) |
| Ellis (2007) | Han (2002) |
| Ellis, Loewen, and Erlam (2006) | Inagaki and Long (1999) |
| Ellis, Rosszell, and Takashima (1994) | Ishida (2004) |
| Herron (1991) | Iwashita (2003) |
| Herron and Tomasello (1988) | Kim and Mathes (2001) |
| Loewen and Nabei (2007) | Leeman (2003) |
| Lyster (2004) | Loewen and Erlam (2006) |
| Mackey (2006) | Long, Inagaki, and Ortega (1998) |
| Muranoi (2000) | Lyster and Izquierdo (2009) |
| Sheen (2007) | Mackey and Oliver (2002) |
| Takashima and Ellis (1999) | Mackey and Philp (1998) |
| Tomasello and Herron (1989) | McDonough (2005) |
| Yang and Lyster (this issue) | McDonough (2007) |
| | McDonough and Mackey (2006) |
| | O'Relly, Flaitz, and Kromrey (2001) |
| | Sagarra (2007) |
| | Sauro (2009) |

**Table 2.** Overview of the 15 selected studies

| Studies | *N* | Age | L1 background | Target forms (and target language) | CF types | Length | Test types[a] |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Second Language settings | | | | | | | |
| DeKeyser (1993) | 35 | 17 | Dutch | Morphosyntax (French) | Explicit correction | Long | FR, CR |
| Lyster (2004) | 179 | 10.5 | English | Grammatical gender (French) | Recasts versus prompts | Long | FR, CR, SR |
| Ammar and Spada (2006) | 64 | 11.5 | French | Possessive determiners (English) | Recasts versus prompts | Long | FR, MJ |
| Mackey (2006) | 28 | 24.2 | Various | Question forms, plurals, past tense (English) | Recasts and prompts | Short-to-medium | FR |
| Ellis et al. (2006)[b] | 32 | 25 | East Asian (77%) | Regular past tense (English) | Recasts versus prompts | Short-to-medium | CR, MJ |
| Ellis (2007)[b] | 32 | 25 | East Asian (77%) | Regular past tense and comparative *–er* (English) | Recasts versus prompts | Short-to-medium | CR, MJ |
| Sheen (2007) | 80 | 24–27[c] | Various | Definite and indefinite articles (English) | Recasts versus explicit correction | Short-to-medium | CR, MJ |

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Foreign Language settings | | | | | | | |
| Herron and Tomasello (1988) | 32 | 19.5 | English | Transfer errors (French) | Explicit correction | Brief | CR |
| Tomasello and Herron (1989) | 32 | 19 | English | Overgeneralization errors (French) | Explicit correction | Brief | CR |
| Herron (1991) | 25 | 19.5 | Japanese | Overgeneralization errors (French) | Explicit correction | Brief | CR |
| Ellis et al. (1994) | 61 | 19 | Japanese | Dative alternation (English) | Explicit correction | Brief | MJ |
| Takashima and Ellis (1999) | 61 | 19 | Japanese | Regular and irregular past tense (English) | Prompts | Short-to-medium | FR |
| Muranoi (2000) | 91 | 18 | Japanese | Indefinite articles (English) | Recasts and prompts | Short-to-medium | FR, CR, MJ |
| Loewen and Nabei (2007) | 35 | 19 | Japanese | Question forms (English) | Recasts versus prompts | Brief | MJ |
| Yang and Lyster (this issue) | 72 | 20 | Chinese | Regular and irregular past tense (English) | Recasts versus prompts | Short-to-medium | CR |

[a]The abbreviation FR corresponds to free constructed-response measures, CR corresponds to constrained constructed-response measures, SR corresponds to selected-response measures, and MJ corresponds to metalinguistic judgments.
[b]These are the same participants.
[c]Because Sheen (2007) did not report the average mean of learners' age, we contacted her and recalculated their age.

## Appendix 6: Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR)

This appendix provides additional information about the CEFR of interest to this study, such as the conceptualisation of language as communication and language in use and the different knowledges learners need to develop in order to learn languages, which are closely linked to self-regulation and meta-cognitive processes which in this thesis are also referred to as Assessment is for Learning (AifL).

The CEFR describes communicative language competences in terms of linguistic, sociolinguistic and pragmatic competences.

Linguistic competence includes lexical, grammatical, semantic, phonological, orthographic and orthoepic knowledge and understanding. Sociolinguistic competence includes linguistic markers of social relations, politeness conventions, expressions of folk wisdom, register differences and dialect and accent. Pragmatic competence is divided into discourse competence and functional competence. A learner is competent in discourse if her speech is coherent and cohesive, but also if she knows how to turn-take or adapts to the circumstances of the speech act. Functional competencies encompass micro-functions such as the ability to impart and seek factual information, expression and finding out attitudes, being able to be persuasive, knowing the rules of socialising, how to structure discourse or how to repair communication. The macro-functions include the ability to describe, narrate, comment or demonstrate. Finally, the umbrella of functional competence includes interaction schemata, that is, the ability to use patterns of social interaction which underlie communication, which would allow functional 'success', such as making yourself clearly understood, fluency and prepositional precision.

This is an overview of the different knowledges learners need to develop:

Declarative knowledge (savoir)includes the learner's knowledge of the world, her socio-cultural knowledge (everyday living; living conditions; interpersonal relations; values, beliefs and attitudes; body language; social conventions and ritual behaviour) and finally the learner should raise her intercultural awareness through learning a language.

Savoir-faire includes social skills such as living skills, leisure skills or vocational and professional skills; intercultural skills and knowing-how, such as understanding the culture of origin and 'foreign' culture in relation with each other, and cultural sensitivity, including the ability to overcome stereotypical relationships.

Savoir-être or existential competence includes the learners' attitudes, values, beliefs and own epistemologies, including personality factors.

Finally, the CEFR refers to 'savoir-apprendre', that is, the learner's ability to learn. It includes language and communication awareness in L1, phonetic awareness skills, study skills and heuristic skills.

**Appendix 7 : COLT** (Fröhlich et al.,1985)

# Appendix F
# COLT (Communicative Orientation of Lanaguge Teaching) category definitions

**COLT Observation Scheme: Definition of Categories**

The COLT observation scheme is divided into two parts. Part A describes classroom events at the level of episode and activity, while Part B analyzes the communicative features of verbal exchanges between teachers and students or among students themselves as they occur within each activity.

Part A: Classroom Events

I. Activity
The first parameter is open-ended; no predetermined descriptors have to be checked off by the observer. Each activity and its constituent episodes are separately described: e.g., drill, translation, discussion, game, and so on (separate activities); alternatively, teacher introduces dialogue, teacher reads dialogue aloud, students repeat dialogue parts after teacher (three episodes of one activity).

II. Partcipant Organization
This parameter describes three basic patterns of organization:
A. Whole Class
1. Teacher to student or class, and vice versa (One central activity led by the teacher is going on; the teacher interacts with the whole class and/or with individual students.)
2. Student to student, or student(s) to class (Students talk to each other, either as part of the lesson or as informal socializing; one central activity led by a student may be going on, e.g., a group of students act out a skit with the rest of the class as the audience.)
3. Choral work by students (The whole class or groups participate in the choral work, repeating a model provided by the textbook or teacher.)

B. Group work
1. All groups at work on the same task
2. Groups at work on different tasks
C. Individual seat work (Students work on their own, all on the same task or on different tasks.)
D. Group/individual work (Some students are involved in group work; others work on their own.)

Content
This parameter describes the subject matter of the activities, that is, what the teacher and the students are talking, reading, or writing about or what they are listening to. Three major content areas have been differentiated, along with the category Topic Control:
A. Management
1. Procedural directives
2. Disciplinary statements
B. Explicit focus on language
1. Form (explicit focus on grammar, vocabulary, or pronunciation)
2. Function (explicit focus on illocutionary acts such as requesting, apologizing, and explaining)
3. Discourse (explicit focus on the way sentences combine into cohesive and coherent sequences)
4. Sociolinguistics (explicit focus on the features which make utterances appropriate for particular contexts)
C. Other topics (the subject matter of classroom discourse, apart from management and explicit focus on language)
1. Narrow range of reference (This subcategory refers to the immediate classroom environment and to stereotyped exchanges such as "Good morning" or "How are you?" which have phatic value but little conceptual content. Included in this category are routine classroom references to the date, day of the week, weather, and so on.)
2. Limited range of reference (Topics in this subcategory refer to information beyond the classroom but still conceptually limited: movies, holidays, school topics such as extracurricular activities, and topics which relate to the students' immediate personal and family affairs, e.g., place of residence, number of brothers and sisters, and so on.)

3. Broad range of reference (Topics of broad range go well beyond the classroom and immediate environment and include reference to controversial public issues, world events, abstract ideas, reflective personal information, and other academic subject matter, such as math or geography.)

D. Topic control (Who selects the topic that is being talked about—the teacher, the student, or both?)

IV. Student modality

This section identifies the various skills involved in a classroom activity. The focus is on the students, and the purpose is to discover whether they are listening, speaking, reading, or writing, or whether these activities are occurring in combination. The category Other covers such activities as drawing, modeling, acting, or arranging classroom displays.

V. Materials

This parameter describes the materials used in connection with classroom activities.

A. Type of materials
   1. Text (written)
      a. Minimal (e.g., captions, isolated sentences, work lists)
      b. Extended (e.g., stories, dialogues, connected paragraphs)
   2. Audio
   3. Visual

B. Source/purpose of materials
   1. Pedagogic (specifically designed for L2 teaching)
   2. Non-pedagogic (materials originally intended for nonschool purposes)
   3. Semi-pedagogic (utilizing real-life objects and texts but in a modified form)

C. Use of materials
   1. Highly controlled (close adherence to materials)
   2. Semi-controlled (occasional extension beyond the restrictions imposed by the materials)
   3. Minimally controlled (materials as a starting point for ensuing conversation, which may cover a wide range of topics)

## Part B: Communicative Features

I. Use of target language

A. Use of first language (L1)

B. Use of second language (L2)

II. Information gap

This feature refers to the extent to which the information requested and/or exchanged is unpredictable, i.e., not known in advance.

A. Requesting information
   1. Pseudo (The speaker already possesses the information requested.)
   2. Genuine (The information requested is not known in advance.)

B. Giving information
   1. Relatively predictable (The message is easily anticipated in that there is a very limited range of information that can be given. In the case of responses, only one answer is possible semantically, although there may be different correct grammatical realizations.)
   2. Relatively unpredictable (The message is not easily anticipated in that a wide range of information can be given. If a number of responses are possible, each can provide different information.)

III. Sustained speech

This feature is intended to measure the extent to which speakers engage in extended discourse or restrict their utterances to a minimal length of one sentence, clause or word.

A. Ultraminimal (utterances consisting of one word—coded for student speech only)

B. Minimal (student utterances consisting of one clause or sentence, teacher utterances consisting of one word)

C. Sustained speech (utterances longer than one sentence or consisting of at least two main clauses)

IV. Reaction to code or message

This feature refers to a correction or other explicit statement which draws attention to the linguistic form of an utterance.

V. Incorporation of preceding utterances

A. No incorporation (no feedback or reaction given)
B. Repetition (full or partial repetition of previous utterance/s)
C. Paraphrase (completion and/or reformulation of previous utterance/s)
D. Comment (positive or negative comment on, but not correction of, previous utterance/s)
E. Expansion (extension of the content of preceding utterance/s through the addition of related information)
F. Elaboration (requests for further information related to the subject matter of the preceding utterance/s)

VI. Discourse initiation

This feature measures the frequency of self-initiated turns (spontaneously initiated talk) by students.

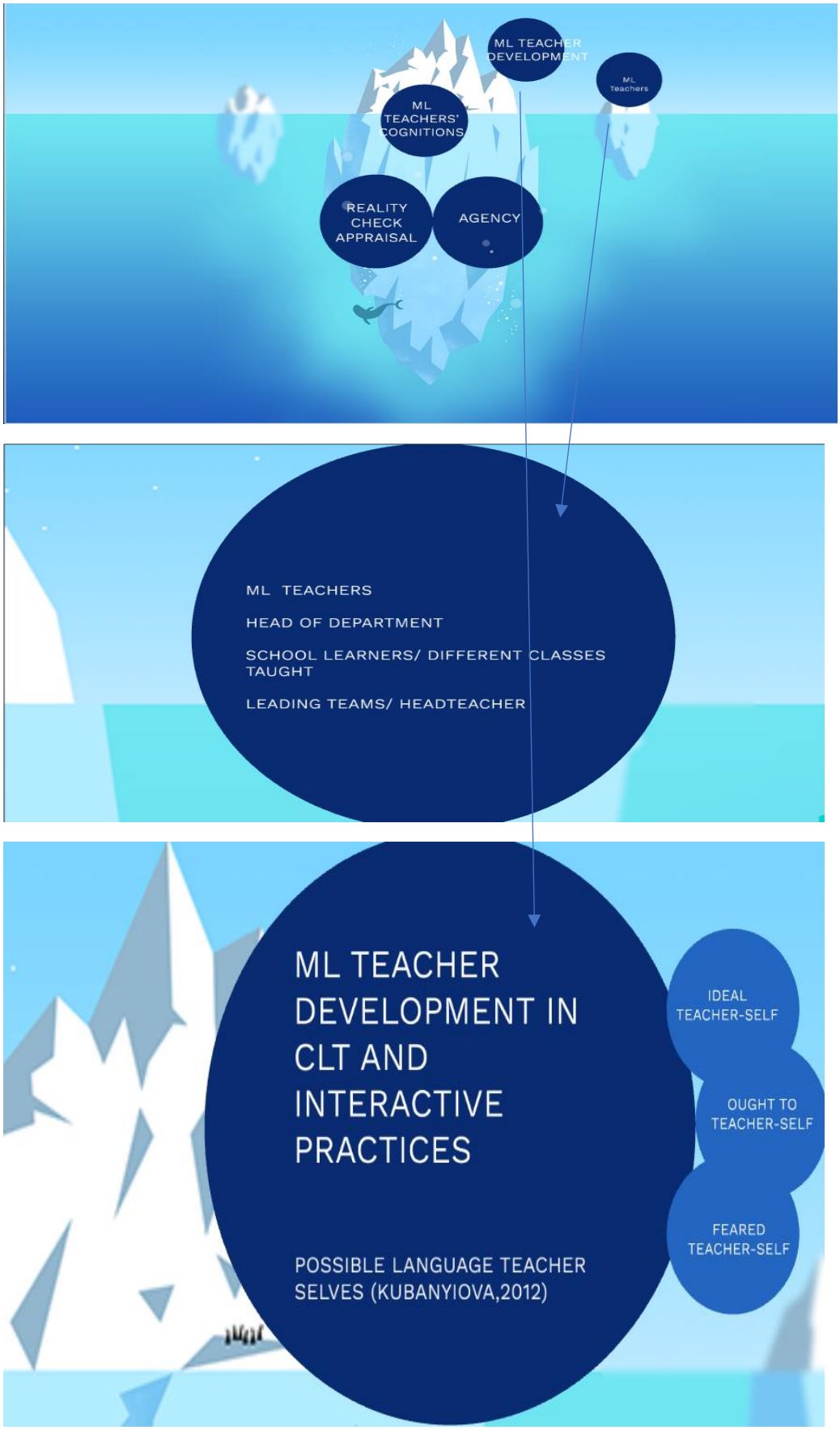
VII. Relative restriction of linguistic form

A. Restricted use (the production or manipulation of one specific form, as in a transformation or substitution drill)
B. Limited restriction (a choice of more than one linguistic form but in a very narrow range, e.g., responses to *yes/no* questions, statements about the date, time of day, and so on)
C. Unrestricted use (no expectation of any particular linguistic form, as in free conversation, oral reports, or personal diary writing)

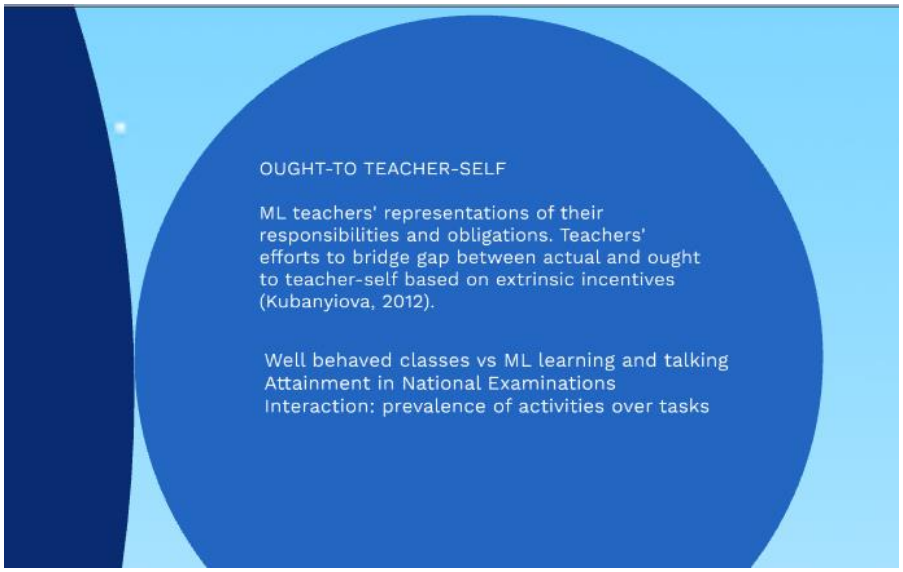
## Appendix 8: Observation Schedule

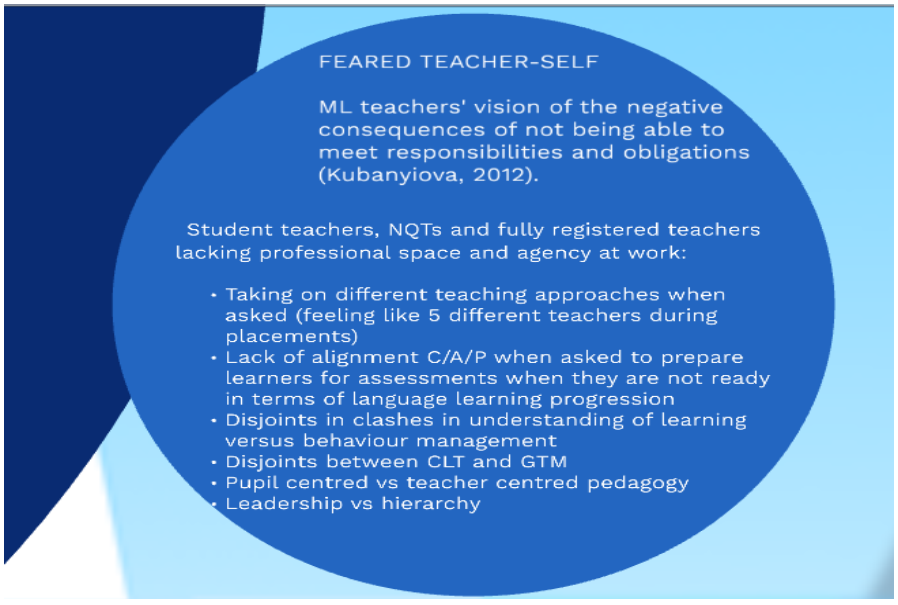
| **INTERACTION** | **TASKS** |
|---|---|
| AifL (LIs/SC/Feedback/Questioning)<br><br>Modelling Language<br><br>Target Language Use | Exercises: tasks or activities?<br><br>Learners creators of language and meaning or repeating/using drills? |
| Questioning: Target language input/output/modified output/ pushed output/ scaffolding/display or referential questions.<br><br>Meaning negotiation | Construction of declarative knowledge versus procedural knowledge |
| Feedback and Saving Face<br><br>Corrective feedback: explicit correction; re-casts; clarification requests; elicitation; metalinguistic clues; repetition; use of corrective feedback, pupil output | Meaning: Communicative Effectiveness versus Focus on Form |
| Interaction, modified-interaction: speech rate, gesture, provision of additional contextual cues, comprehension checks, clarification requests, self-repetition, paraphrase. | Task: scope, perspective, authenticity, linguistic skills, outcome, aim |
| Pupil-pupil talk | Tasks and Culture |
| IRF/IRE<br><br>Dialogic Discourse<br><br>Teacher-pupil<br><br>Pupil-pupil | Relationship between task design and task performance |
| Use of 4 Skills- Washback effect of exams (in English) in the classroom | Meaning negotiation: task type rather than participatory organisation, teacher fronted? |

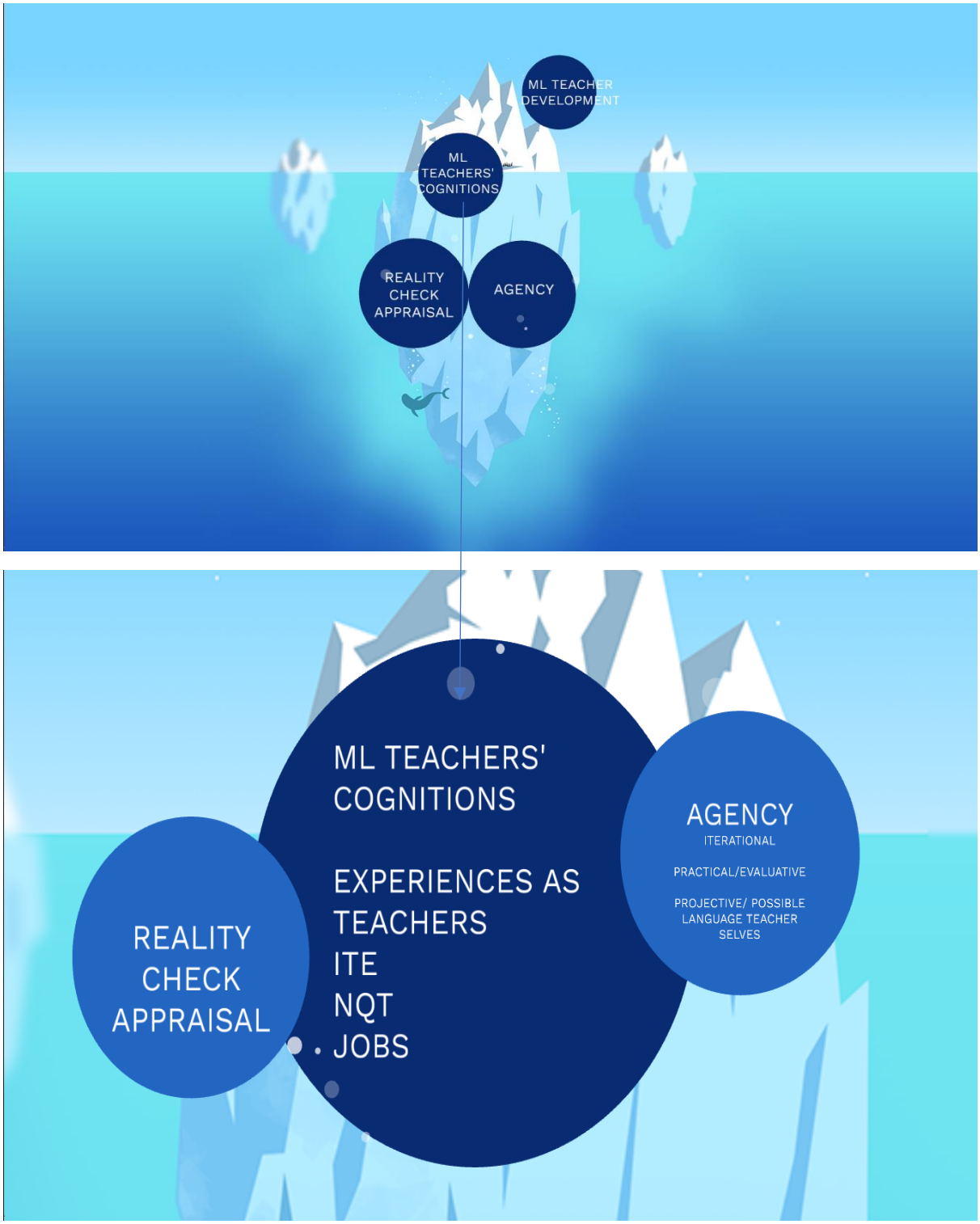
## Appendix 9: Early Career ML Teacher Development Framework

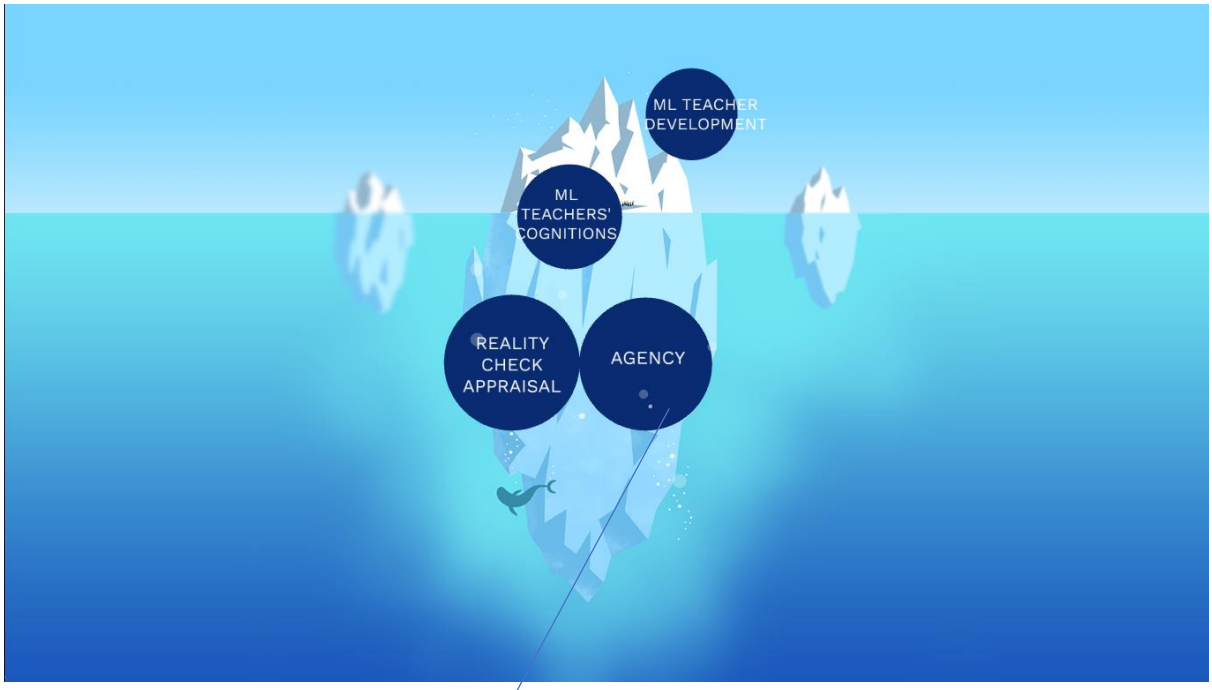


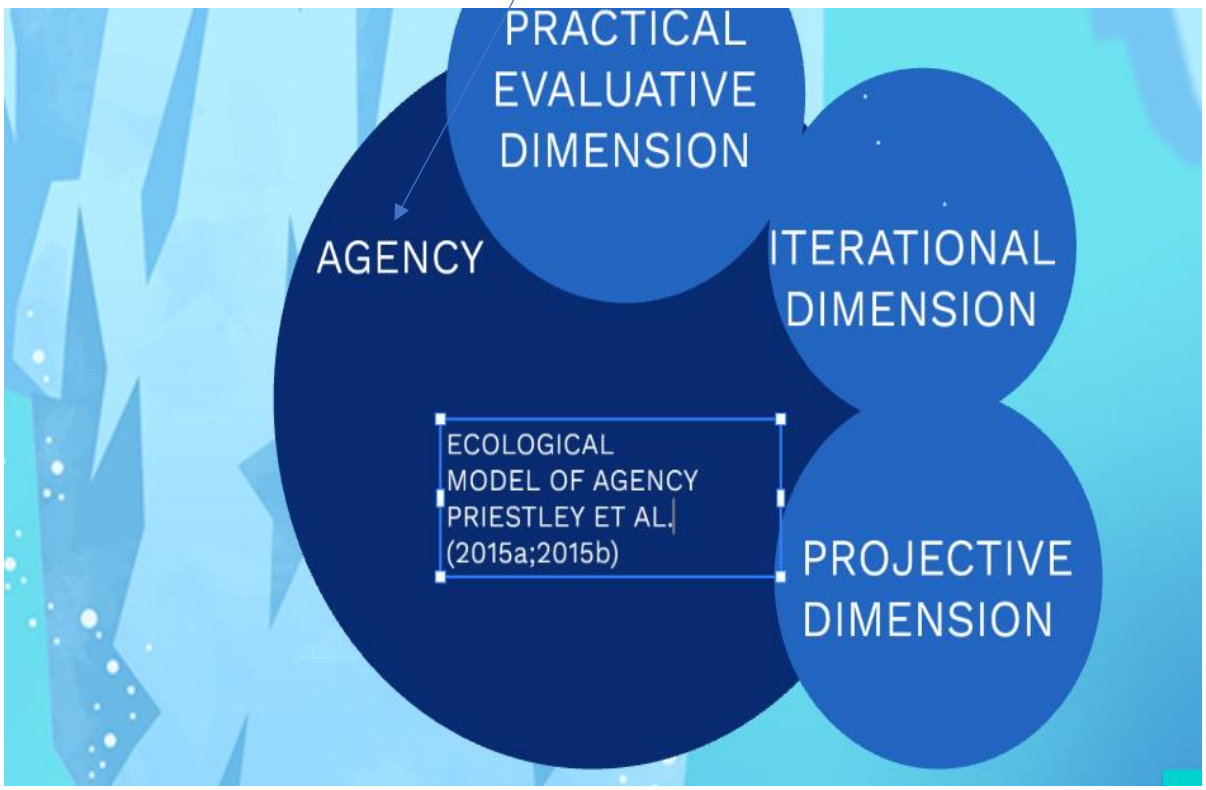

IDEAL TEACHER-SELF
Future ML teachers' images of identity goals and aspirations. ML teacher puts effort in bridging discrepancies between actual and ideal teacher-self (Kubanyiova, 2012).
• Target language exposure
• More learners' focused interaction
• Learner centred (communication & personal significance)
• More interaction (Ping-pong)
• Tasks over activities
• Alignment of Curriculum/Assessment/Pedagogy
• ML uptake
• Social Justice

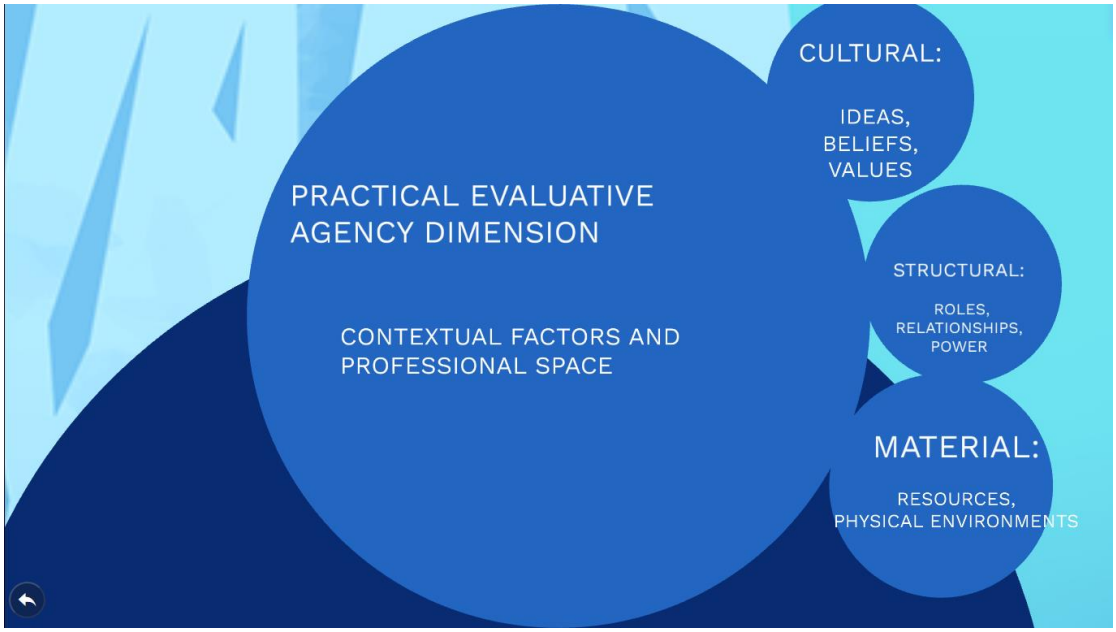

OUGHT-TO TEACHER-SELF
ML teachers' representations of their responsibilities and obligations. Teachers' efforts to bridge gap between actual and ought to teacher-self based on extrinsic incentives (Kubanyiova, 2012).
Well behaved classes vs ML learning and talking
Attainment in National Examinations
Interaction: prevalence of activities over tasks

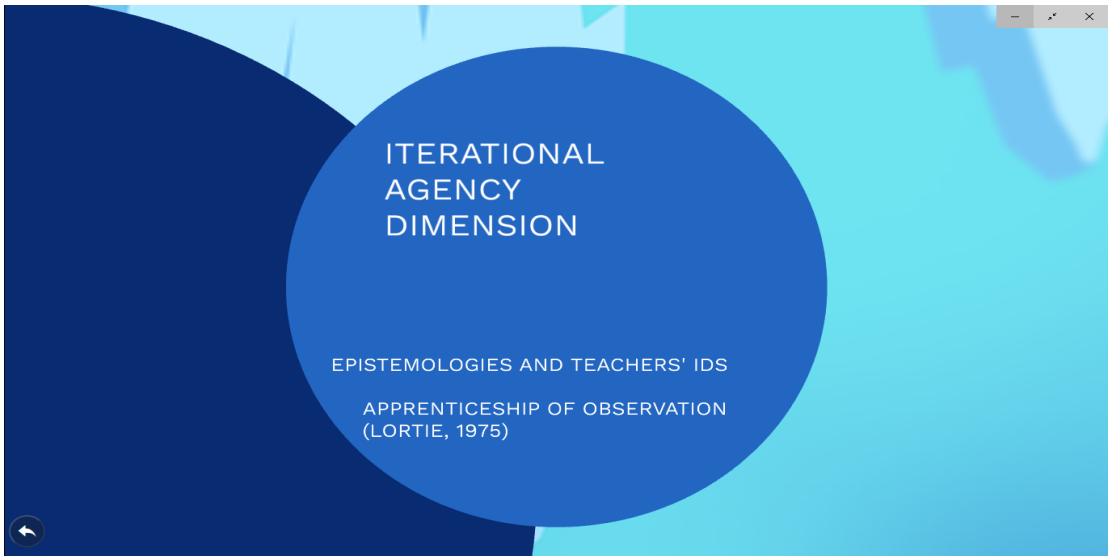

FEARED TEACHER-SELF
ML teachers' vision of the negative consequences of not being able to meet responsibilities and obligations (Kubanyiova, 2012).
Student teachers, NQTs and fully registered teachers lacking professional space and agency at work:
• Taking on different teaching approaches when asked (feeling like 5 different teachers during placements)
• Lack of alignment C/A/P when asked to prepare learners for assessments when they are not ready in terms of language learning progression
• Disjoints in clashes in understanding of learning versus behaviour management
• Disjoints between CLT and GTM
• Pupil centred vs teacher centred pedagogy
• Leadership vs hierarchy


ML TEACHER DEVELOPMENT
ML TEACHERS' COGNITIONS
REALITY CHECK APPRAISAL
AGENCY
ML TEACHERS' COGNITIONS
EXPERIENCES AS TEACHERS
ITE
NQT
JOBS
REALITY CHECK APPRAISAL
AGENCY
ITERATIONAL
PRACTICAL/EVALUATIVE
PROJECTIVE/ POSSIBLE LANGUAGE TEACHER SELVES

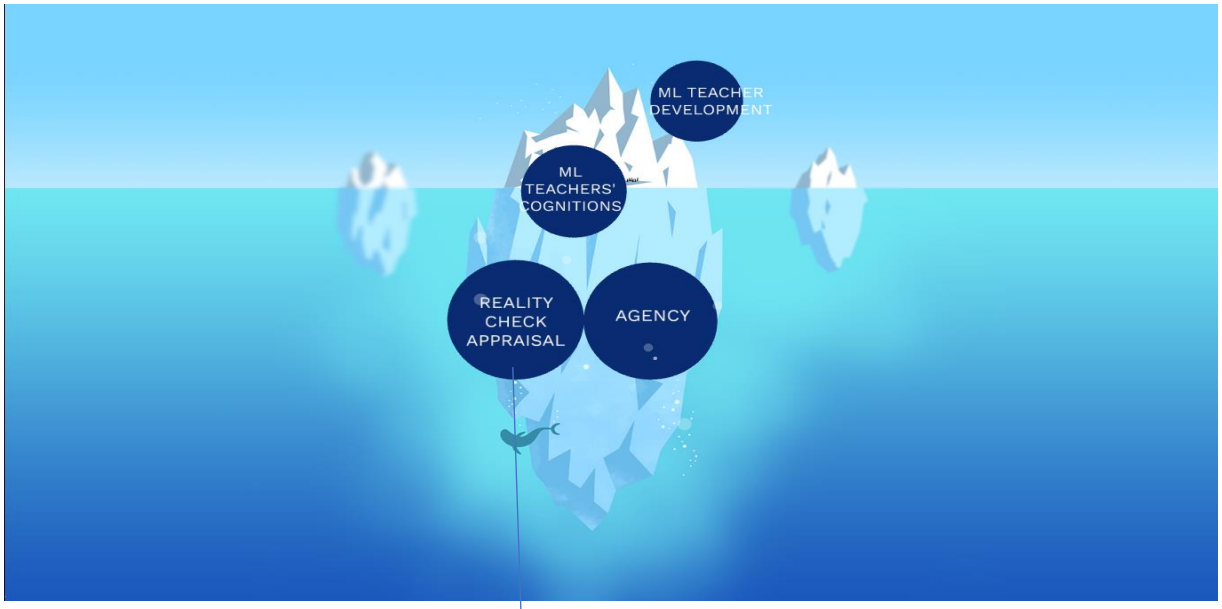

ML TEACHER DEVELOPMENT
ML TEACHERS' COGNITIONS
REALITY CHECK APPRAISAL
AGENCY

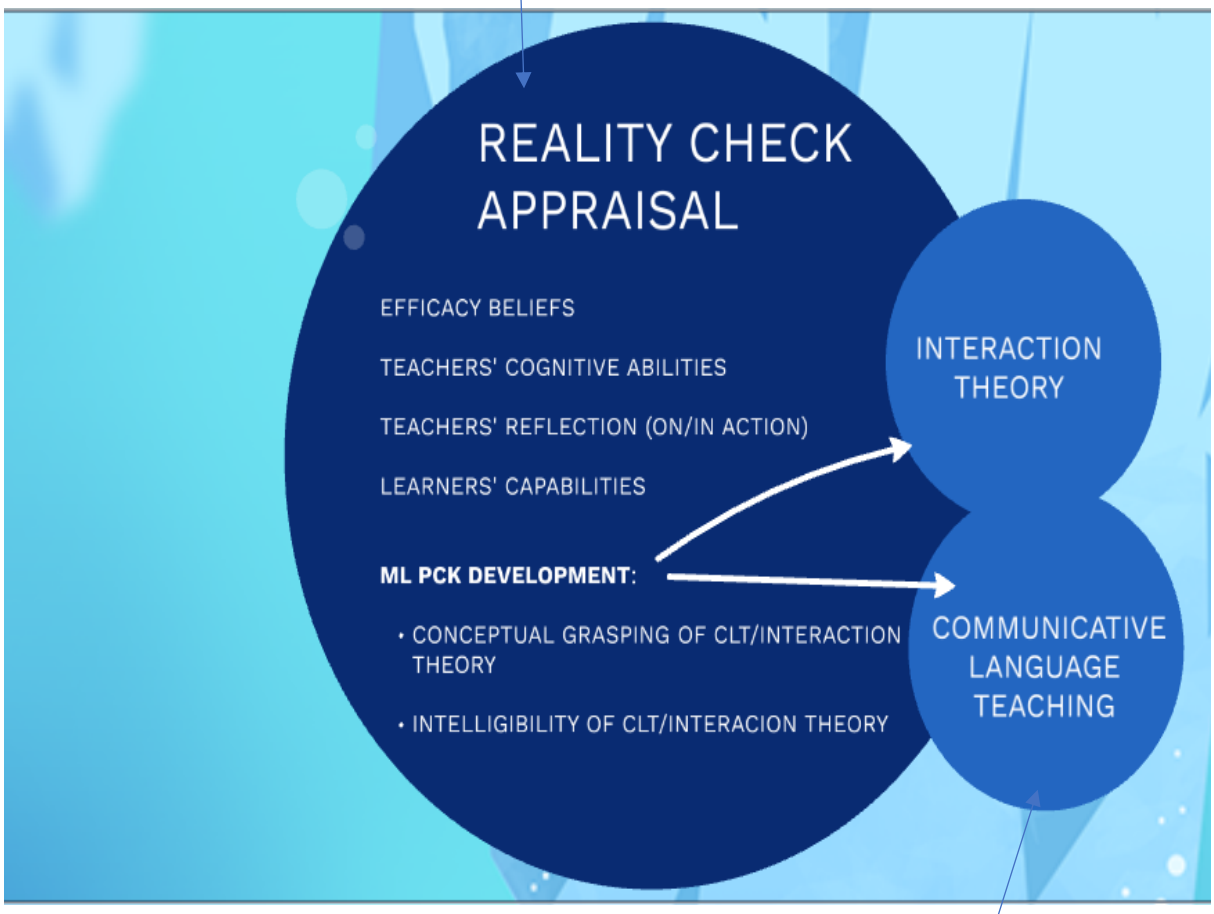

PRACTICAL EVALUATIVE DIMENSION
AGENCY
ITERATIONAL DIMENSION
ECOLOGICAL MODEL OF AGENCY PRIESTLEY ET AL. (2015a;2015b)
PROJECTIVE DIMENSION

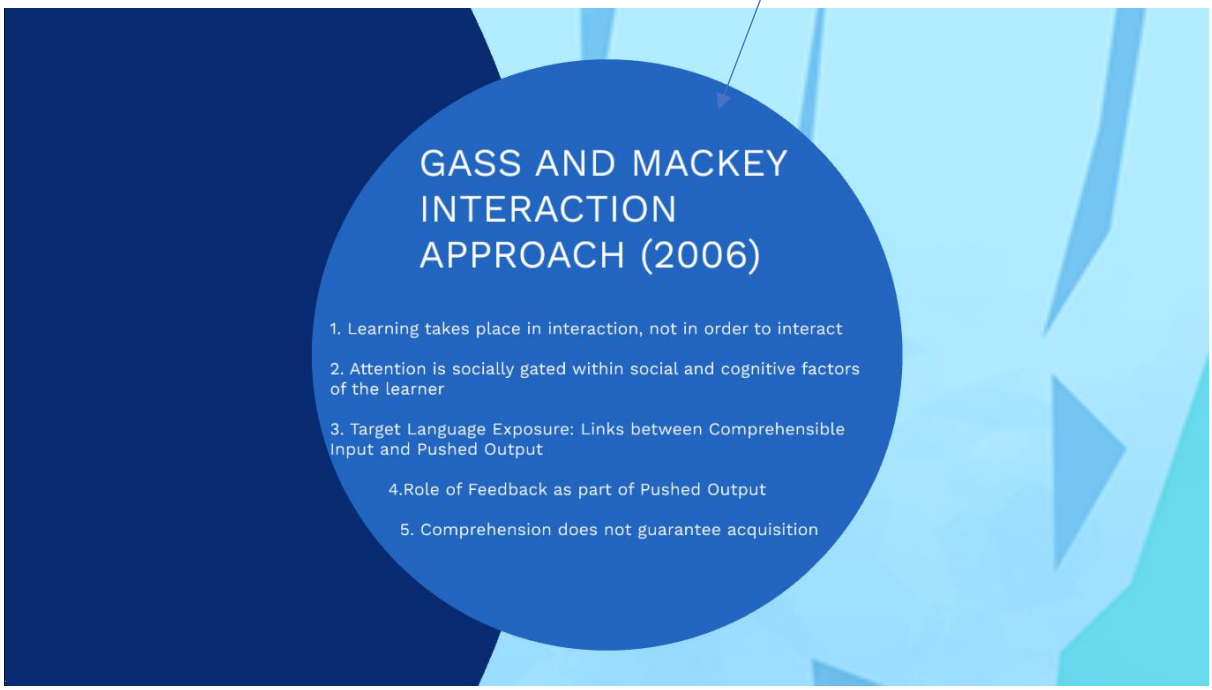

CULTURAL:
IDEAS, BELIEFS, VALUES
PRACTICAL EVALUATIVE AGENCY DIMENSION
CONTEXTUAL FACTORS AND PROFESSIONAL SPACE
STRUCTURAL:
ROLES, RELATIONSHIPS, POWER
MATERIAL:
RESOURCES, PHYSICAL ENVIRONMENTS

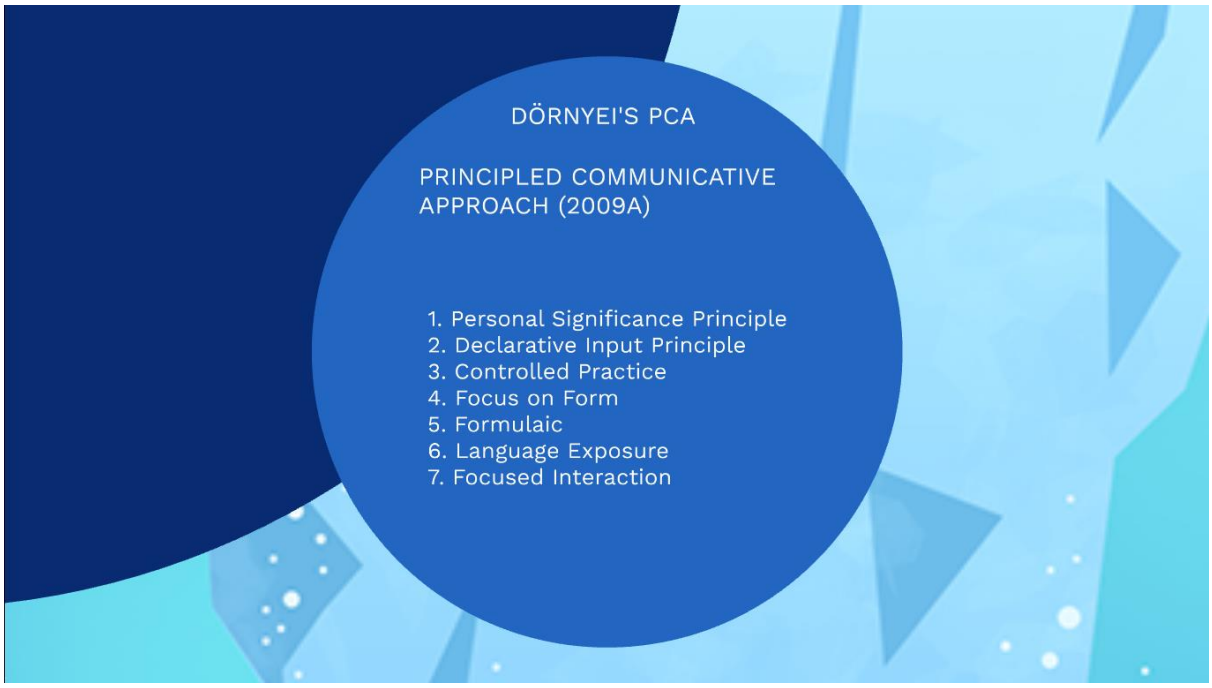

ITERATIONAL AGENCY DIMENSION
EPISTEMOLOGIES AND TEACHERS' IDS
APPRENTICESHIP OF OBSERVATION (LORTIE, 1975)


PROJECTIVE AGENCY DIMENSION
POSSIBLE LANGUAGE TEACHER SELVES (KUBANYIOVA, 2012)
IDEAL
OUGHT TO
FEARED


ML TEACHER DEVELOPMENT
ML TEACHERS' COGNITIONS
REALITY CHECK APPRAISAL
AGENCY


REALITY CHECK APPRAISAL
EFFICACY BELIEFS
TEACHERS' COGNITIVE ABILITIES
TEACHERS' REFLECTION (ON/IN ACTION)
LEARNERS' CAPABILITIES
ML PCK DEVELOPMENT:
• CONCEPTUAL GRASPING OF CLT/INTERACTION THEORY
• INTELLIGIBILITY OF CLT/INTERACION THEORY
INTERACTION THEORY
COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING

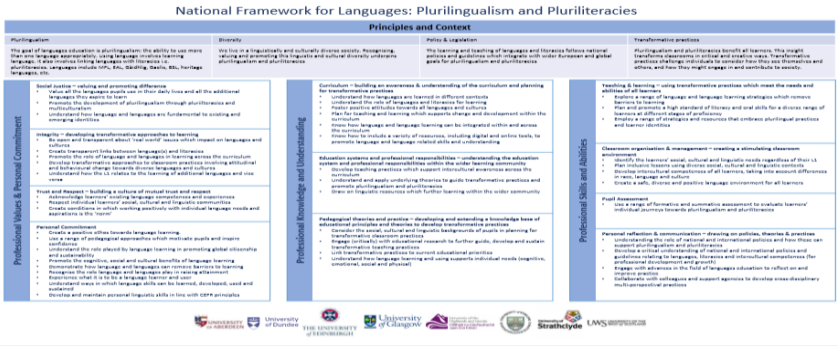

GASS AND MACKEY INTERACTION APPROACH (2006)
1. Learning takes place in interaction, not in order to interact
2. Attention is socially gated within social and cognitive factors of the learner
3. Target Language Exposure: Links between Comprehensible Input and Pushed Output
4.Role of Feedback as part of Pushed Output
5. Comprehension does not guarantee acquisition


DÖRNYEI'S PCA
PRINCIPLED COMMUNICATIVE APPROACH (2009A)
1. Personal Significance Principle
2. Declarative Input Principle
3. Controlled Practice
4. Focus on Form
5. Formulaic
6. Language Exposure
7. Focused Interaction

**Appendix 10 :**

**National Framework for Languages: Plurilingualism and Pluriliteracies**

http://www.nffl.education.ed.ac.uk/


National Framework for Languages: Plurilingualism and Pluriliteracies

Principles and Context

National Fram

| Plurilingualism | Diversity |
|---|---|
| The goal of languages education is plurilingualism: the ability to use more than one language appropriately. Using language involves learning language. It also involves linking languages with literacies i.e. pluriliteracies. Languages include MFL, EAL, Gàidhlig, Gaelic, BSL, heritage languages, etc. | We live in a linguisti valuing and promoti plurilingualism and |

**Professional Values & Personal Commitment**

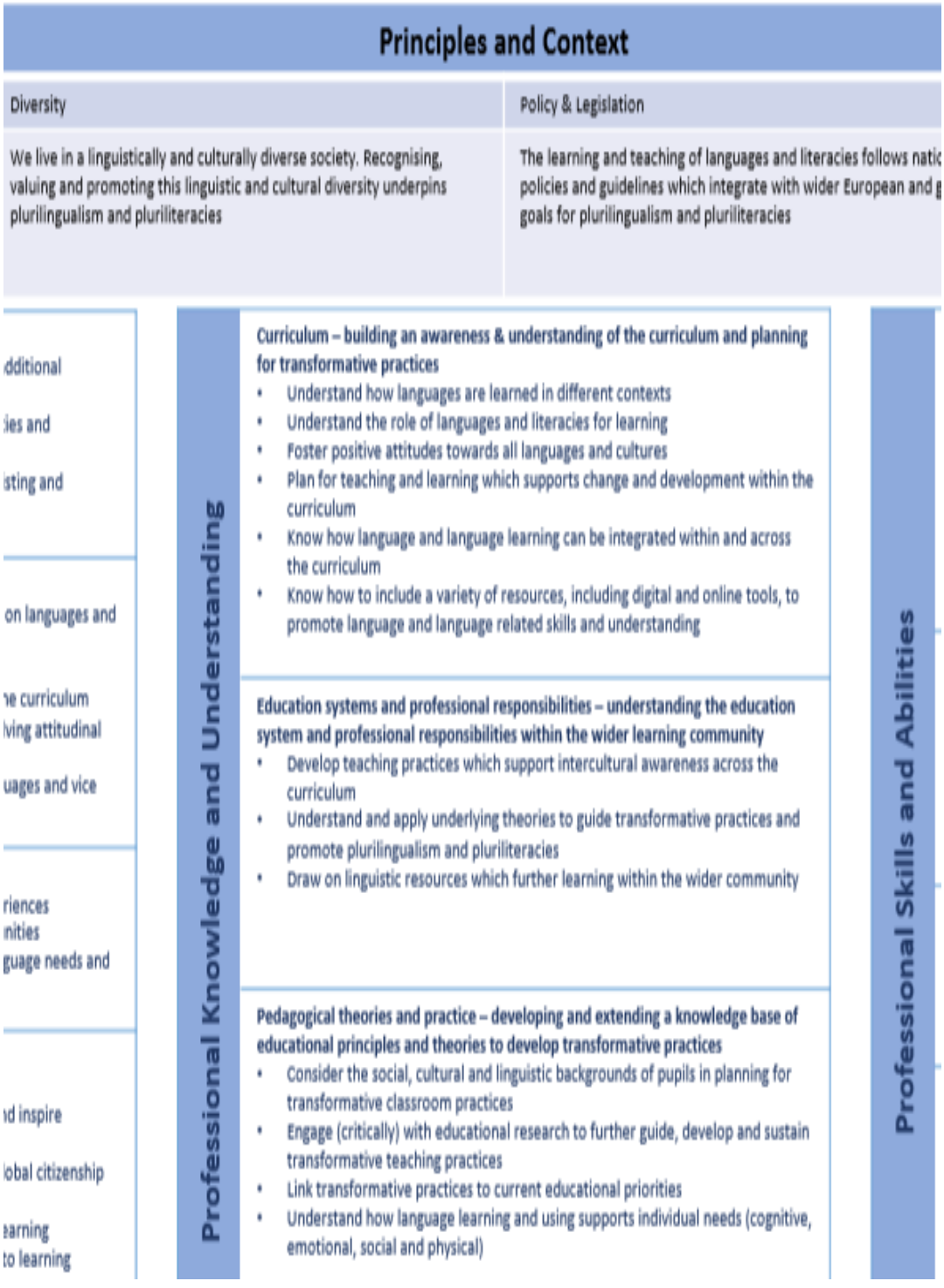
**Social Justice – valuing and promoting difference**
- Value all the languages pupils use in their daily lives and all the additional languages they aspire to learn
- Promote the development of plurilingualism through pluriilteracies and multiculturalism
- Understand how language and languages are fundamental to existing and emerging identities

**Integrity – developing transformative approaches to learning**
- Be open and transparent about 'real world' issues which impact on languages and cultures
- Create transparent links between language(s) and literacies
- Promote the role of language and languages in learning across the curriculum
- Develop transformative approaches to classroom practices involving attitudinal and behavioural change towards diverse languages and cultures
- Understand how the L1 relates to the learning of additional languages and vice versa

**Trust and Respect – building a culture of mutual trust and respect**
- Acknowledge learners' existing language competences and experiences
- Respect individual learners' social, cultural and linguistic communities
- Create conditions in which working positively with individual language needs and aspirations is the 'norm'

**Personal Commitment**
- Create a positive ethos towards language learning.
- Use a range of pedagogical approaches which motivate pupils and inspire confidence
- Understand the role played by language learning in promoting global citizenship and sustainability
- Promote the cognitive, social and cultural benefits of language learning
- Demonstrate how language and languages can remove barriers to learning
- Recognise the role language and languages play in raising attainment
- Experience what it is to be a language learner and user
- Understand ways in which language skills can be learned, developed, used and sustained
- Develop and maintain personal linguistic skills in line with CEFR principles

# ıal Framework for Languages: Plurilingualism and Plurilite



| | Transformative practices |
|---|---|
| llows national pean and global | Plurilingualism and pluriliteracies benefit all learners. This insight transforms classrooms in critical and creative ways. Transformative practices challenge individuals to consider how they see themselves and others, and how they might engage in and contribute to society. |

**Professional Skills and Abilities**

**Teaching & learning – using transformative practices which meet the needs and abilities of all learners**

- Explore a range of language and language learning strategies which remove barriers to learning
- Plan and promote a high standard of literacy and oral skills for a diverse range of learners at different stages of proficiency
- Employ a range of strategies and resources that embrace plurilingual practices and learner identities

**Classroom organisation & management – creating a stimulating classroom environment**

- Identify the learners' social, cultural and linguistic needs regardless of their L1
- Plan inclusive lessons using diverse social, cultural and linguistic contexts
- Develop intercultural competences of all learners, taking into account differences in race, language and culture
- Create a safe, diverse and positive language environment for all learners

**Pupil Assessment**

- Use a range of formative and summative assessment to evaluate learners' individual journeys towards plurilingualism and pluriliteracies

**Personal reflection & communication – drawing on policies, theories & practices**

- Understanding the role of national and international policies and how these can support plurilingualism and pluriliteracies
- Develop a critical understanding of national and international policies and guidelines relating to languages, literacies and intercultural competences (for professional development and growth)
- Engage with advances in the field of languages education to reflect on and improve practice
- Collaborate with colleagues and support agencies to develop cross-disciplinary multi-perspectival practices

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