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Integrated Language Learning in the primary curriculum: Investigating the impact of a language teaching intervention on teacher, trainee and pupil attitude and motivation.

A case-study investigation.

MA Stage 3

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ABSTRACT

This study researches the impact of integrated language learning upon the attitude and motivation of teachers, trainees and pupils in English primary schools. A tangible drive from National Government for development and success in the teaching and learning of languages in primary schools exists (DfES, 2002; DfES, 2005). Debate however continues as to the best way forward. Whilst a large body of international research indicates significant learning gains via integrated language learning (Snow,1989; Fernandez, 1992; Cummins,1998;Lyster, 2007) the same cannot be assumed for English primary schools. Although some anecdotal evidence exists (Cobb, 2008; Coyle, Holmes & King, 2009), research into languages integrated into the English primary curriculum remains scarce, making this study particularly relevant.

Literature concerning the significance of attitude and motivation in language learning and the nature and benefits of integrated language learning is reviewed, before exploring the impact of a TDA funded integrated language learning intervention upon the attitude and motivation of participants: eight teachers, four trainees and pupils in four English primary classes. A case-study approach is adopted to illuminate this, with data collected via questionnaire, interview, observation and document analysis.

Data analysis suggests ILL was implemented in a range of ways and that all approaches led to a significant increase in time for curriculum French. Different approaches however appeared to affect the attitude and motivation of different participants in different ways. Class teachers reported the biggest boost to motivation, whilst impact upon pupil motivation proved variable.

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Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

This study is concerned with investigating attitudes and motivation towards primary language teaching and learning. It seeks to ascertain the extent to which involvement in an Integrated Language Learning (ILL) intervention impacts upon the attitude and motivation of participants: languages subject leaders, class teachers, trainee teachers and pupils; those at the critical interface of language teaching and learning in the primary school. Ushioda's hypothesis (1996, p.7) provides a foundation for this study, where 'learners with greater motivation are hypothesized to be more successful.' By learners, I mean all participants of the intervention, using the premise that as Integrated Language Learning is an arguably new term in our cultural context (Coyle, Holmes & King, 2009) they are each, in their own ways, learners.

The significance of attitude and motivation in research into educational practice was highlighted by Jones, Pickard and Stronach (2008). The teaching and learning of primary languages is also recognised as a key area for national development, with the aims of the National Languages Strategy consisting of motivating learners, promoting an interest in other cultures and offering an opportunity for learners to reach a recognised level of linguistic competence (DfES, 2002). This is supported by the European directive requiring citizens to have 'meaningful communicative competence in at least two languages in addition to his or her mother tongue' (Commission of the European Communities 2003, p.4). The introduction of language learning to all primary schools in England by 2010 can be seen as a cornerstone of this (DfES, 2005). Its importance has been repeatedly reaffirmed since the Strategy's launch (Dearing and King, 2007; Rose, 2008; Alexander, 2008), with recommendations that it becomes statutory in 2011 (DCFS, 2008). Commitment is further evidenced by the levels of funding provided for example, for Initial Teacher Training to provide the 'highly skilled workforce' required by the Strategy (DfES, 2002) and for projects such as that studied here; the Integrated Language Learning Project (TDA, 2008).

Whilst PL seems assured of a place within the revised primary curriculum (Alexander, 2008; Rose, 2008) it is timely to consider its nature in order to seek further illumination as to the best outcomes for teachers and learners, for there is a call in the Children's Plan to enable all schools to achieve world-class standards (Coyle, Holmes & King, 2009). The overall challenge for primary languages remains how best, and quickly, to achieve the Strategy's goals, for five years post identified European priority, 'most member states are well ahead of the UK in achieving that goal' (Wray, 2008, p.254). This investigation is of critical interest even though its limitations as a case-study are acknowledged.

My own motivation is both professional and personal. As languages intervention co-ordinator of the Higher Education Institute (HEI) leading one ILL intervention, I seek to explore how effective such projects can be. I also wish to investigate the impact of 'Integrated Language Learning' (ILL), critiquing claims of the significance of motivation in effective teaching and learning of languages, and that integrated learning further enhances attitude and motivation.

In this study, the Integrated Language Learning (ILL) intervention is the vehicle through which attitudes and motivation are investigated. It was developed from an initiative conceived and funded by the Training and Development Agency (TDA), an outline of which is available in Appendix I. ILL arguably contributes towards the national drive towards more inclusive learning experiences for all children under the Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) umbrella (Coyle, Holmes & King, 2009). The ILL intervention did not however set out to specifically improve motivation or attitude towards language teaching and learning. Instead it sought to find replicable ways to integrate languages creatively into the primary curriculum (Baldry, 2009). As it is one in which I was directly involved, my vested interest in ensuring the project's success needs to be clearly acknowledged.

The local intervention, led by the HEI working in partnership with the LA, ran with 4 schools selected by the LA where French was determined as the target language. Each school selected both year group and class teacher to be involved, and ran in classes from Y2 –Y5. The HEI organised the placement of volunteering postgraduate trainee teachers with a French primary language specialism for their final teaching practice at these schools. Class teachers, subject leaders and trainee teachers then worked collaboratively with a tutor from the HEI and adviser from the LA to teach another subject / theme with French, together with identifying other ways to develop the integration of the language in the school's curriculum. Delivery was supported and monitored.

Fundamental to research is the overarching question:

To what extent does the integration of languages into the primary curriculum enhance attitude and motivation for the teaching and learning of languages?

Four key questions determine to help answer this:

1) How significant are motivation and positive attitudes in terms of effective primary language teaching and learning?

2) To what extent is there a common understanding of Integrated Language Learning (ILL) and its benefits?

3) How significant is the way in which the local ILL partnership supports and encourages participants in developing positive attitudes and motivation for PL?

4) To what extent do the ILL teaching methods used, and its content, effect participants' attitudes and motivation for PL?

The following literature review explores the first two questions. Data analysis seeks to illuminate questions 3 and 4. Finally, findings will be drawn together in a conclusion responding to the fundamental question of this study.

Chapter 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

To answer this study's overarching question, this chapter reviews literature pertaining to the first two key questions outlined in Chapter 1.

2.1 The significance of motivation and attitude in terms of effective PL teaching and learning

That attitude and motivation towards language teaching and learning play a significant role appears mutually recognised by policy and research. Driscoll, Jones and Macrory (2004, p.96) reveal the most important benefits of learning PL were thought in their primary school and teacher survey to be developing positive attitudes, sentiments which echo policy statements (eg. DfES, 2003, p.1). However, it is important to clarify the meaning of attitude and motivation, and how it applies to language teaching and learning.

Motivation, as defined by William and Burden (in Dörnyei, 1998, p.126),

> 'may be construed as a state of cognitive and emotional arousal, which leads to a conscious decision to act, and which gives rise to a period of sustained intellectual arousal...(effort)..in order to obtain a previously set goal.'

Three main elements of measurable motivation related to language learning are the amount of effort used, the aspiration to be able to speak a foreign language and overall attitudes about the language and culture: 'Motivation explains WHY people decide to do something, HOW HARD they are going to pursue it and HOW LONG they are willing to sustain the activity' (Dörnyei (2001, p.7). It was therefore important for this study to elicit reasons for participation in the intervention, track participants' efforts and ascertain how their practice, as a result, may change.

It is argued that learners who feel they are learning for a purpose are most likely to be motivated and achieve. Two pertinent types of such ambitious motivation are instrumental and integrative. Integrative motivation refers to a desire to learn about the culture and the people of the target language, and often

stems from a personal connection to the target-language society. As Driscoll (2004, p.57) acknowledges, one of the main reasons for re-establishing PL was 'the importance of developing children's cultural awareness and their understanding of themselves as Europeans.' Conversely, instrumental motivation is more concerned with the effects that learning language will have on desired future goals and achievements, for example to live and work abroad (Johnson, 2001, pp.129-30) but also the more immediate desire to earn for example, a sticker.

2.11 Motivation and attitude: approaches to language learning

Learning a second language has traditionally been viewed as an uphill struggle, though Coyle (2009) cautions the risk of simplifying a complex process arguing that reductionist views of language learning are unhelpful. Wray's 'Needs Analysis' (2008, pp.266-7) is particularly interesting, arguing differences between children's and adults' motivation for learning a language: 'For the young child a language is something you KNOW, whereas for adults language is something you LEARN'. She argues the adult, 'LEGO' approach, is one of breaking down new language into small components to understand how all parts work. It would seem logical for teachers learning the language they are to teach to perhaps approach their teaching of it this way too. As conceded, difficulty arises as 'sometimes when you use words and rules to create a nice logical, grammatical sentence, you don't end up with the native-like version, because languages just aren't that logical' (Wray, 2008, pp.263-264). In contrast, the young child, who starts to count as someone who knows the language,

> 'steps inside the circle of users, and gets on with using it…. they're a bit of a bull in a china shop, but they're in there, doing it. And that is a great way to learn…………Language learning for them is just like playing football in the garden – you don't have to be good at it yet, but even when you are not good at it, you are still an equal participant in the game' (Wray, 2008, pp.266-7).

Such differences may arguably lead to differences in attitude and motivation between younger and older learners depending upon teaching methodology. Much literature cites positive motivation from pupils as a key feature of current early language learning (Edelenbos, Johnstone & Kubanek, 2007; Heining-Boynton & Haitema, 2007; Kirsch, 2008). It may be too, that younger learners generally have a more receptive attitude towards language learning which doesn't necessarily equate to 'better' learning, just 'different' learning. Wray (2008) however argues that somewhere between the age of 5 and puberty transition between younger and older language learning approaches occurs– at different times for different children:

> '……..We are seeing how a class of children, even of primary school age, could fragment –along lines of intellectual ability and determination – into those that can cope and those that can't. Rather than the equality that children are supposed to bring to language learning, we may be seeing the classic symptoms of adult learning,

including differences in motivation and aptitude, but superimposed onto individuals not yet fully trained in how to engage intellectually with inherently complex information' (Wray, 2008, p.255).

Developing positive attitudes with account of this is therefore significant for the effective teaching and learning of languages. However, the positivism has to be maintained, and sustaining apparent early positive attitudes and motivation is recognised as more problematic (Rixon, 1999; Stables & Wikely, 1999; Chambers, 2005). The continuing downturn in number of secondary pupils choosing to continue studying languages beyond KS3 (Stables & Wikely, 1999) highlights the importance of getting motivation 'right' and the problematic nature of importing KS3 practice into KS2. The Government's decision in 2004 to make foreign language learning optional at Key Stage 4 arguably hasn't helped. As Lawes (2007) argues, this led to a drastic reduction in numbers studying languages:

'This is more than a missed opportunity, it is an evasion of the key issue which has the effect of legitimising the prevailing view that languages are too hard for most young people and they aren't up to the challenge' (Lawes, 2007, p.1).

It also arguably encouraged a 'drop-down' of the secondary language approach to the primary curriculum, further influenced by the creation of Secondary Language Colleges (SLCs) and funding for their outreach teachers. Whilst the need for smooth transition between KS2 and KS3 language teaching (Burstall, 1974; DfES, 2002; DfES, 2005) has facilitated dialogue between the two, the actual influence has arguably been more one-sided (Wade et al, 2009; Evans & Fisher, 2009). Given the purported differences between older and younger learners (Wray, 2008), this is significant given the potential impact on motivation. It is also noteworthy for this study, given the required ILL network project model where a SLC was designated the 'hub-school' to instigate ways to accelerate linguistic competency in primary schools (Appendix 1b). Furthermore, research by Chambers (in Hunt et al, 2005, p.374) suggests after a couple of years of language learning, motivation dramatically falls. A potential consequence in making language teaching statutory from Year 3 is then a risk of displacing current negative attitudes that have been recognised in the secondary school into the primary school. It is therefore vital to question why a lack of motivation occurs and to investigate ways of improving and sustaining it instead, such as via the Integrated Language Learning intervention.

2.12 Sustaining motivation: methodology

The need for both older and younger learners to see PL as meaningful and purposeful is recognised. Furthermore, key differences between how older and younger learners approach language learning could exist. Tierney & Gallastegi (2005) indeed believe there to be a relationship between

methodology and pupil attitude and motivation. The extent to which these correlate in terms of sustainable motivation is an interesting area for investigation as a review of literature reveals tension between which methodology is most suitable.

One tension already highlighted is the apparent influence of secondary MFL on primary practice. The argument that younger learners learn language in a different way to older learners (Wray, 2008) supports a different approach and rationale in the primary school. This is echoed by literature identifying the unique position of the primary school timetable and organisation to facilitate holistic language learning; practice that Secondary Schools due to their different organisation remain unable to wholly adopt (Driscoll, 1999; Sharpe,1999, 2001; Rumley,1999). It could be inferred that transition between the key stages is best facilitated not by replicating Secondary models, but by finding ways to support and engage learners to meet their maturational age and development upon which Secondaries can build (Hawkins 1996; Satchwell, 1999). Only a rethinking of the optionality policy of Languages at KS3/4 as suggested by Dearing and King (2007) however can arguably facilitate this.

Underlying this debate is that of language learning methodology and motivation. Disparate views reflecting preferences for various key language learning methodologies are apparent. Meiring and Norman (2002, p.27) refer to three distinct methods: The 'direct method, with its advocacy of total target language use,' the 'audio-lingual/visual method, with its emphasis on drilling and repetition where target language use… was largely rehearsed and automatised' and the 'communicative approach ….which in theory….. advocated a more spontaneous, improvised oral/aural register'. However, discrepancies between policy and actual practice existed, whilst Lightbrown and Spada (2006, p.34) acknowledge that the audio-lingual approach to language teaching with its emphasis on drilled repetition between pupils and teacher remains particularly popular. Conversely, the structured role-plays associated with the direct language teaching method which actively involve the learner in realistic and everyday contexts (Crystal, 1997, p.378) have been criticised as 'such dialogues have their own intrinsic faults in that they attempt to recreate a natural form of spoken language –and in so doing, can seem highly artificial'(Cameron, 2001, pp-68-9). Hurrell (1999, p.74) argues that this can lead to pupils using and learning 'formlaic expressions' which appears more suited to Wray's (2008) 'adult-approach' to language learning.

Whilst such behaviourist stimulus-response approaches remain, progressive ideas that recognise a child's self-concept and intrinsic motivation towards learning and self-awareness are becoming more

apparent (Behaviour 4 Learning, online). Such child- centred theories emanating from key theorists such as Maslow (1954) underline the importance of a holistic approach to learning, where the importance of feelings, emotions as well as the cognitive are recognised. Wray's findings (2008) support this, where from a linguistic viewpoint too, a need to teach languages holistically to children is recognised. The importance of teaching children to be autonomous in their learning was advocated by Schweinhorst (1999), arguing the need to have a good understanding of what that means. That a single method for teaching languages exists is refuted by Kirsch (2008) who argues finding a sole method for the teaching and learning of languages would probably not be productive, indicating that a combination of methods is more effective.

The impact of the teacher upon motivation is now explored for ensuring teachers are confident and competent to deal with the specific needs of younger learners is obviously paramount (Nikolov & Djigunovic 2006, p.251and Woodgate-Jones 2008 in Wray, 2008).

2.13   Sustaining motivation: teacher and learning content

It would be naive to believe that every child would be automatically inspired to achieve in language lessons without consideration of some form of ambitious or extrinsic motivation especially considering that 'children's progress through the stages of learning is rarely linear and not the same for all languages or for all children' (DfES, 2005, p.6). However given the diversity in staffing models apparent for PL (DfES, 2005; Wade, Marshall and O'Donnell, 2009), there remains a paucity of research detailing the relative merits of different teaching professionals in terms of their effect upon motivation. Debate therefore continues as to who is best placed; generalist class teachers with a good knowledge of the pupils and curriculum, or specialists with good language knowledge (Driscoll, 1999; Sharpe, 2001; Wade et al, 2009).

The Pecs study of Hungarian children's PL learning revealed that pupils will only remain motivated and persevere if their learning tasks were worthwhile (Hunt, Barnes, Powell, Lindsay and Muijs, 2005, p.374). The role of the teacher in facilitating such motivating tasks is thus significant, and reiterates the need for age appropriate and relevant language teaching (Sharpe, 1992; Field, 2000; Jones & Coffey, 2004; Kirsch, 2008).

Sharpe (2001, p.35) argues that primary teachers are highly skilled motivators often employing a range of strategies to ensure pupils are 'on task', stimulated and engaged with their learning. He also recognises the need to provide children with a safe and respectful environment in which to learn, catering to their self-esteem needs (echoing Maslow's theory, in Hughes, 2008, p.113). Such measures are recognised as critical in ensuring motivated learners. The Pecs study also found that when motivating young learners demonstrating 'positive attitudes towards the learning context and the teacher' is crucial, reiterating that effective practice was embedded in the provision of 'intrinsically motivating activities, tasks and materials' (Hunt et al, 2005, p.373).

There is then a need to cater for all ability levels. Whilst challenging tasks have been cited as a source of disaffection towards language learning (Stables and Wikely, 1999), Ofsted (2008) conversely reported that lessons lacking in challenge also failed to motivate learners. Achieving a balance is required, something which primary teachers here are uniquely placed to do, having one class for most if not all subjects throughout an entire academic year (Sharpe, 2001).

A further factor potentially affecting motivation for and attitude towards PL concerns learning aims. However, whether all four skills should be developed: listening, speaking, reading and writing, or just the first two is contested (Rumley,1999; Hood, 2008). This debate reaches beyond our shores. Blondin et al (1997) reason from their research that the gap between the language achievements of the weaker and stronger pupils in Germany was hidden because of the aural/oral approach, suggesting that focus on speaking and listening offers equal opportunities for pupils. However, Tierney & Gallastegi (2005) believe that by twinning copy writing with continued phonic awareness, confidence can be further boosted, positively affecting motivation. Martin (2000) suggested that the teaching of languages will not have equal focus on each of the four skills. To some extent, this has been addressed by the KS2 Framework for Languages (DfES, 2005), which gives schools clear guidance that they should be focussing on Oracy, Literacy and Intercultural Understanding (DfES, 2005); not just all four skills but an additional one developing cultural empathy. This document, according to Brown (2009, p.18) 'remains the foundation stone for the primary language initiative,' corroborated by Wade et al's (2009) findings that the document provides the basis for the majority of school language programmes whilst acknowledging an increase in the use of commercially available schemes of work. Hood (2009) however believes that the importance of receptive language is undervalued with the drive towards oral production not giving pupils enough time to listen to and assimilate the language before being required to produce it themselves; something which could possibly dampen motivation.

2.14 S*ustaining motivation: 'Fun' resources*

Literature reaches consensus with regard to the 'fun' nature of primary languages and motivation. Use of games and songs to instigate a sense of fun and enthusiasm for the teaching of primary languages is seen as motivating and enriching, leading to a more relaxed atmosphere in which pupils feel able to freely contribute, as they create 'safe, non-threatening contexts within which to play with the language' (Rumley, 1999, p.124). This is endorsed by Bell (2009) and Hunt et al (2005, p.373): 'pupils enjoy MFL because it appears to them to be more fun than other subjects.' The use of puppets to create an intermediary is also advocated and the 'rhythmical patterns' of songs further 'facilitate and accelerate learning' (Kirsch, 2008, p.85). This emphasis on 'fun' also influences the teaching of languages to primary pupils elsewhere in Europe. An agreed key pedagogical principle for language teaching throughout Germany is for example 'holistic, joyful learning' (Kubanek-German, 2000, p.61) indicating that whatever methodology is adopted, it needs to develop the whole language in an integrated, enjoyable way. However, the question of sustaining motivation once the novelty of the games and songs have worn off was raised by Rixon (1999, p.130) arguing that providing the type of experience that is aesthetically appealing, fun and popular, 'is positive for short-term motivational gains, but potentially more questionable for sustained motivation'.

Authentic materials are recognised as providing for longer-term motivation. Various justifications include the fact that they are generally more cognitively interesting as they are intended to communicate a message rather than highlight a specific piece of target language (TL) (Gillmore, 2007, p.107), the fact that learners are able to access 'real' material, affording pupils insight into the culture behind the TL, and also that they can be selected to meet pupils' specific needs and interests, matching their maturational requirements. A study into why language teaching is not always well received revealed that some students require more 'concrete experience of other European cultures to increase their levels of motivation' (Clark and Trafford, in Stables et al, 1999, p.28). However, whilst it is not always easy to find appropriate authentic materials, working with children's curiosity is argued as being a 'strong motivator which can be used to inspire an interest' (Field, 2000, p.83) requiring creative, original and thought-provoking lessons.

The Intercultural Understanding strand of the KS2 Framework for Languages (DfES, 2005) thus appears particularly significant in terms of facilitating integratively motivating lessons. Indeed, the use of native speakers in promoting accurate and motivating use of the target language (TL) features frequently in Government guidance (DfES, 2002; DfES, 2005). Muir (1999) too wrote of the 'valuable educational experience' contact with a native speaker can provide. However, Hunt et al (2005) contradict these claims, finding that the opportunity to converse with a native speaker is not considered to contribute significantly to the language learning experience in schools, fuelling debate as to the extent of both their value and the importance of teacher TL use. This is now explored.

2.15 Target Language (TL) and motivation

Use of TL in school is a significant consideration for this study for not only did the ILL intervention suggest its increased use but as Cameron (2001, p.11) states, 'the central characteristics of FL learning lie in the amount and type of exposure to the language'. It also appears particularly relevant for younger learners with their phonological advantage (De Bot, Lowie, & Verspoor, 2005, p.65). The ITT report (2008) however identified a deficit of TL use, though as Mitchell (2003) acknowledged earlier, there is a dilemma posed with the use of the TL within the classroom, because of existent constraints.

The proportion of TL use, and by whom it is to be used to be most effective appear contentious. In a study of four LEAs and forty six teachers, Meiring and Norman (2002, p.32) found the majority of teachers used a higher percentage of TL in classes with a higher ability level, than with lower ability pupils. Whilst this research focussed on Key Stages 3 and 4, and cannot be directly applied to this study which focuses on the Primary Key Stages, earlier findings by Franklin (1990, p.21) support such a marked perception of teacher attitudes. She found that 79% of teachers studied did not use the TL 'because of the presence of many low ability pupils in the class,' and also highlighted the practice of 59% which was determined by the age of the year group, with less rather than more TL use as age increased. Macaro (1995, p.53) suggests teachers' reasons for this:

> 'When a pupil began to learn a foreign language they were enthusiastic and regarded it as a means of communication. Later on it became 'work' and the pupil, especially the one who was not a high-flier, should not be allowed to become frustrated because of overuse of target language'.

Concerns about TL use however extend beyond teacher use to pupil use. The statutory position can be clearly recognised within a seminal statement in the National Curriculum proposals:

'Communicating in the foreign language must involve both teachers and pupils using the target language as the normal means of communication. Indeed this is essential if the objectives...are to be achieved' (in Halliwell and Jones, 1991, p.1).

This position was further strengthened by Ofsted's published expectations that all language lessons should constitute at least 80% TL use (Ofsted, 2008), reinforcing the current statutory focus on communicative competence. However, as Meiring and Norman (2002, p.27) raised, there is not only an issue with the idea of 'normal communication' within the artificial constraints of the classroom, but more significantly, 'research findings on the benefits of TL use have been less than conclusive,' suggesting that there is in fact a 'point of departure' from the statutory position to that of general research on TL use. The Scottish MFL project (Low et al, 1993, p.132) for example produced very mixed empirical results. Whilst children involved in the project could accept sustained foreign language input, Johnstone (1994) reported various advantages amongst older learners instead.

The role of the mother tongue (L1) in learning an additional language is frequently cited as a particular area that is often overlooked. Krashen (1988), though critiqued (Ellis,1990), advocated 'comprehensible input' and a 'natural approach' (acquisition) rather than explicit learning, reiterated by Chomsky (1992). Other research points to the role of the L1 in thought processing and code-switching (Cohen, 1988, Hagen, 1992, Macaro, 2000), where the L1 is used to make sense of the L2 and where making connections and comparisons between the two are recognised as necessary:

'Beginners use the TL to help them decode text.... Beginners and advanced learners use the L1 to help them write text. ....L1 tends to be the language of thought, unless the learner is very advanced or is in the target country' (Macaro, 2000, p.177).

However, other research points to limitations of L1 overuse in learning new language. Satchwell (1997, p1) argues that 'by overusing English in the foreign language lesson we risk undermining the children's concentration and slow down their language acquisition'. Instead, he argues for lessons that 'involve the children in their own learning and motivate them to become effective communicators in the foreign language.'

In contrast to the contested benefits of predominant teacher use of the TL in lessons, are apparent benefits of pupil use and production of the TL. Here, both statutory position and research position seem more compatible, highlighted by empirical evidence offered by Macaro (2000, p.184):

'Only through the learner using the L2 can s/he achieve strategic communicative competence,' reaffirming 'a basic belief that learners' use of the TL is conducive to successful learning.'

However, Krashen's input hypothesis argues that spoken fluency is acquired 'by understanding input, not by practising talking' (Krashen, 1982, p.60). Merely exposing pupils to spoken language may not be enough to increase oral competence. Chambers (1991, in Meiring & Norman, 2002, p.30) also note caution: 'there is evidence that pupils do not respond in the foreign language, even if the teacher manages the lesson in the foreign language.' Asymmetry in teacher and pupil TL output is apparent which 'must be fully acknowledged and accepted by the teacher' (Chambers, 1991, in Meiring & Norman, 2002, p.30) and I would argue by policy makers too.

The diverse way in which the TL can be used, arguably impacts motivation. Whilst Ofsted recommends increased TL use, its benefits do not appear conclusive, and it would seem apparent that how, by whom and at what stage it is used are more pertinent critical questions to ask, together with the nature of supporting L1 provision. Macaro (in Meiring and Norman, 2002, p.30) refers to this as the 'optimal use position' supporting the need to develop appropriate strategies to respond to an apparent shift in current methodology towards embracing both L1 and L2 use (Meiring and Norman, 2002, p.30).

The Key Stage 2 Framework for Languages (DfES, 2005) invites comparisons between L1 and L2 in its cross-cutting strands, Knowledge about Languages and Language Learning Strategies, recognising such a link between the L1 and L2. Whether this is sustained and developed when the curriculum is finally fully revised and PL becomes statutory in 2011 remains to be seen although Rose's recommendations seem conducive to this blend, placing 'Languages' within the 'Understanding English and Communication' area of learning (DCFS, 2008). However the 'special case' of the hegemony of the English language is worth acknowledging when considering use of the L1 and TL. Given the current usual short time dedicated to PL (Wade et al, 2009) it can be seen as vital for teachers to make the most of every minute of contact time (Satchwell, in Driscoll, 1999, p.89).

2.16   Internal factors and motivation

Ultimately, 'an individual's decision to act will be influenced by internal factors. The extent to which such factors interact with each other and the relative importance that individuals attribute to them will affect the level and extent of learners' motivation to complete a task or maintain an activity' (Williams and Burden,1997, p.137). Valeski & Stipek (2001) also emphasise that young children's feelings about

school and themselves as learners have important implications for their emotional well-being and success in school:

> 'Children who like school and are confident in their abilities to succeed should be more engaged and enthusiastic about participating in classroom activities than children who have negative attitudes about school and low perceptions of their academic competencies. Levels of behavioural and emotional engagement should, in turn, influence children's learning and thus their academic success.'

Motivation and attitude towards language learning embrace key factors of behaviour and are linked to many social-psychological variables. The effect of these are significant for as Ushioda (1996, p.7) explains: 'learners with greater motivation are hypothesized to be more successful.'

Effort is commonly affected by the learner's 'outlook' (Johnson, 2001). Mehisto, Marsh and Frigols (2008) refer instead to 'mind-*set,'* whilst others refer to 'attitude'. This study refers to 'attitude' but integral to this are the other terms. Attitudes can be deeply rooted and emotive but are also learnt and can therefore also be modified through experience (Johnson, 2001, p.137). Personality traits can however become more obvious within language classroom due to levels of stress that pupils may feel towards language learning. Ushioda (1996, p.4) argues that learning language has important social and psychological dimensions that can be overwhelming for students:

> 'Learners are not simply expected to learn about the language, as they might learn about history or biology, but be willing to identify with members of another ethnolinguistic group…..including their distinctive style of speech and their language.'

Research has often centred around the anxiety levels attributed to learning a L2 and the effect this can have upon language learning success, as anxiety can cause a range of negative effects on language learning and production (MacIntrye & Gardner,1991, p.302). Therefore students who experience anxiety in the language classroom are arguably at a disadvantage compared to their more relaxed colleagues. Arnold (1999, p.60-1) describes this as 'debilitating anxiety' which reduces participation in class and effects motivation. However, she does recognise that anxiety can have positive effects on development too, as it can help students keep alert. Matsuda and Gobel's research (2003) is particularly relevant as not only was it partially concerned with the effects of immersion on the language learner but it also explored variables and factors predicting the performance of a class, finding that low self-confidence was a significant component of anxiety. This finding is supported by Clement, Dörnyei and Noels (2006, p.441) who state that 'self-confidence influences L2 proficiency both directly and indirectly through students' attitude and effort towards learning.' Whilst these studies are conducted in a cultural context different to that of England, it will be interesting to compare findings against those from this study, hypothesising that participants who feel most confident (and

thus more motivated) towards learning the language and about the culture of the TL taught will also be the most 'successful' in terms of the language intervention.

The question of confidence and personality traits such as extroverted behaviour, tolerance of ambiguity and the ability to deal with rejection are accepted as noticeable qualities of a successful language learner. Self-governing variables are therefore often indicative of success. Johnson (2001, pp.139-143) describes it thus: 'when you express yourself badly in the FL, you are truly opening yourself to the possibility of ridicule and to a kind of rejection.' However, Wood (1998, p.286) argued that this is not symptomatic of a primary language learner, stating that up to the age of eleven, children are not aware of the connection between effort and ability so are less receptive to the idea of failure. Such claims are themselves though disputed (DfES, 2005; Wray, 2008) and therefore appear reductionist.

The role of Integrated Language Learning is now considered, focussing on the second key question:

> To what extent is there a common understanding of Integrated Language Learning (ILL) and its benefits?

2.2   Integrated Language Learning: What is it?

Defining the term used by the intervention is not straightforward. At its simplest level, it seems that the related term 'Content and Integrated Language Learning' (CLIL) can be viewed as 'any activity in which a foreign language is used as a tool in the learning of a non-language subject in which both language and content have a joint role' (Marsh in Coyle, 2007a, p.545). CLIL programmes are already becoming more commonplace in many schools across Europe and beyond (Eurydice, 2006). Varying interpretations exist, of which 'Integrated Language Learning'(ILL) is one. The term 'CLIL' itself was only coined in Europe in 1994 (Mehisto, Marsh and Frigols, 2008), and its subsidiary, 'ILL' in 2008 (TDA, 2008). Coyle (2007a) and Lasagabaster (2008) also suggest that the term CLIL exists alongside others such as content-based instruction, languages across the curriculum, bilingual education and immersion. That a kind of CLIL continuum is apparent is suggested by Mehisto et al's (2008, p.13) attempt to relate CLIL to all these other existing forms when they acknowledge and discuss 'the many faces of CLIL'. It has been suggested however that CLIL's ultimate distinctiveness from other similar models lies in its 'integrated approach, where both language and content are conceptualised on a continuum without an implied preference for either' (Coyle, 2007a, p.545):

> 'CLIL is a developing, flexible concept where content (eg non-language subjects, cross-curricular themes and holistic issues) and foreign languages are integrated in some kind of mutually beneficial way so as to provide motivating, value-added experiences.'

The 2006 Eurydice Survey on CLIL in schools in Europe, analysing data on CLIL provision in 30 European countries, concluded however that different labels are used in different contexts depending on the emphasis given to either content or language learning. This suggests that keeping an equitable balance between language and content that Coyle (2007a) writes of and Mehisto et al's (2008) 'fusion of content and language', is, in practice, problematic. Such blended learning also challenges traditional behaviourist teaching methods discussed (Section 2.14). As Mehisto et al (2008, p.21) write, this way of teaching and learning languages provides 'just-in-time' language rather than 'just-in-case' language, and aims to:

> 'replicate the conditions to which infants are exposed when learning their first language.....by tuning into the natural way the child learnt his/her first language. A young child's environment is full of resources that the child learns to use as tools. Children learn to USE language, and USE language to learn' (Coyle, 2009).

2.21   How is ILL interesting for primary schools?

It appears that ILL could not only be a way to slow down the transition from 'young language learner to adult language learner' for which Wray (2008) argued if the teaching of languages to young learners is to be meaningful and worthwhile, but could also serve to sustain motivation once the novelty of the song, game or I.T package have worn off. However, at a time when multilingualism is the norm, together with a move away from discrete subject teaching towards 'blended learning' of the creative curriculum and 'areas' or 'domains' of learning (Alexander, 2009; Rose, 2008), the concept of integrating languages into the curriculum is not groundbreaking. As King (in Coyle, Holmes and King, 2009, p.04) writes, 'there is nothing new about linking language with meaning.' Indeed, the Key Stage Two Framework for Languages supports cross-curricular approaches where the TL is embedded into the curriculum (DfES, 2005).

One claim is that by integrating language and content learning, teaching languages does not have to take additional time away from an already overcrowded curriculum and can facilitate meeting the recommended minimum one hour a week (DfES, 2005). There are examples in England of languages being used to teach primary geography, history, science and, PSHE and physical education (Cobb, 2008; Eurydice, 2006; Hunt and Neofitou, 2008; Ullmann,1999) as well as generally being integrated 'through assemblies about other cultures, writing to twin schools in English, answering the register in other languages' (Arthur et al, 2006, p.84). As Sharpe (2001, p.16) writes, 'primary schools are institutionally structured to facilitate the permeation of the foreign language.' However, discrete

language lessons are argued as necessary to support the language necessary for CLIL lessons, meaning that there may not be as much potential timetable gain after all (Marsh, 2008; Coyle, 2009).

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Further claims state that the actual teaching and learning of language is better this way. Wray (2008) argued the need to teach languages holistically to children and Rose's recommendations (2008) placing languages with Literacy and Communication arguably facilitate such a move; there is a recognized drive now from Government to link at least Literacy with PL. This link is supported by Orban (2008, in Coyle, 2009): '…we need to have two or more languages in order to know we have one….'. Muir (1999, p.108) stated that with care the imaginative primary teacher can reinforce the TL in many ways and can simultaneously complement and reinforce skills and concepts in other areas of the primary curriculum. Martin (2000, p.34) concurs writing that embedding the language in the everyday life of the classroom is particularly important in PL, allowing the teacher to relate learning to children's existing concepts of the world.

The need to give PL teaching and learning context and purpose to motivate learners has been discussed. Rixon (1999) conceded that whilst songs can be an effective resource they need to be followed with an activity so language can be used in context and for a purpose to have any real learning value. Similarly Wray (2008, p.269) writes of the need to allow children to maximise language use:

> '……although lists of the days of the week and so on are certainly helpful in one way, they are mnemonics and can't be used to actually SAY much. That kind of formulaic material is of limited value and it grossly underestimates what children might be able to do with language if they are given the chance.'

Coyle (2007b) argues the notion that language is learned along several dimensions, and that: 'when content and language are integrated pupils benefit from language OF learning, language FOR learning

and language THROUGH learning.' This arguably develops the use of the TL by both teacher and pupil, encouraging schools to work towards Ofsted's requirements.

There is also a growing body of international research indicating that CLIL programmes can lead to other significant learning gains. Claims include immersion pupils developing much higher levels of second language proficiency than non-immersion pupils, that immersion pupils develop almost native-like listening and reading comprehension skills and higher levels of fluency and confidence in using the second language (Curtain and Bjornstad, 1994; Cummins, 1998; Lyster, 2007). Claims from partial immersion programmes include increased willingness of pupils to communicate in the second language in the classroom, lacking inhibition in using it even with only partial linguistic knowledge (Baker and Macintyre, 2003, Fernandez, 1992). Baetens Beardsmore (2008) also suggests that pupils following bilingual programmes have better analytical skills, more cognitive control over linguistic operations, a greater faculty for creative thinking and make better use of self-regulating mechanisms. Furthermore, some studies suggest that first language skills improve with CLIL instruction and that subject learning improves too (Fernandez, 1992; Curtain and Bjornstad Pesola, 1994; Cummins, 1998; Ullmann, 1999; Lyster, 2007; Mehisto, Marsh and Frigols, 2008). Indiana University (2008, online) claims that children learn language better with an immersed approach to lexical development. They suggest that a child's brain constantly accumulates data from the world around them and processes it automatically: 'toddlers' brains can do what the most powerful computers with the most sophisticated software cannot, learn language simply by hearing it.'

This idea adds fuel to earlier discussion concerning language learning theories and TL use (Krashen, 1982; Chambers 1991, Meiring & Norman, 2002). Mehisto et al (2008, p.27) however reiterate that the fundamental idea of CLIL to is replicate conditions of first language learning where children learn the language and then use it to learn. Many other advocates of CLIL similarly suggest that the higher levels of linguistic attainment are due in part to learning environments that mirror important aspects of first language acquisition like extensive exposure to the target language and communication of meaningful information (Fernandez, 1994; Suomela and Salo, 1999; Dalton-Puffer, 2007; Mehisto et al, 2008). Mere exposure to a high amount of language input was suggested by Krashen as encouraging pupils to start producing their own language (in Suomela and Salo, 1999) where they learn language implicitly rather than explicitly. Dalton-Puffer (2007, p.2) also cites the naturalistic learning environment as being an advantage where CLIL classrooms 'are turned into streets…, where the toils

of the foreign language classroom can be left behind.' It is thus possibly a more natural way to learn languages; one which may reduce the 'uphill struggle' of language learning.

Such claims make CLIL potentially appealing to our Government; fast-track language learning making efficient use of the timetable which also reputedly improves cognitive skills in other subjects. A tantalising prospect given how these might support the Strategy's given instrumentalist aims (DfES, 2002), and help England catch-up linguistically with other areas in the European Union and beyond. Many of these claims however are also those made for the teaching of PL in general. This leads to consideration of the extent to which such gains are specific to CLIL, and which remain the same for Early LL. Furthermore, although there has been much international research eg Canadian immersion (Cummins,1998) it is problematic to generalise to the English context as diverse variables exist within each study (Jarvinen, 1999; Suomela and Salo, 1999; Dalton-Puffer, 2007; Lasagabaster, 2008). This compounds the problem that there remains even more scarcity of research into languages integrated into the English primary curriculum. Not only is there evidence of CLIL in only a very small number of primary schools (Eurydice, 2006) but even less work currently exists that critically analyses the impact of CLIL in primary school settings in England. Only in June 2009 were draft national CLIL guidelines published (Coyle et al, 2009) using favourable anecdotal case-study evidence.

Thus whilst a large body of international research indicates significant learning gains (Snow,1989; Fernandez, 1992; Cummins,1998;Lyster, 2007) the same cannot be assumed for English primary schools. Many of these studies focussed on immersion CLIL programmes where not only a great proportion of the timetable is taught through the second language, but where there is also more natural and inherent second language use in the cultural context. Much research from Europe focuses on the English language which is much more culturally obtainable than other European languages are in our culture, and research from Canada focuses on programmes of total early immersion in the French language, where again, French is otherwise much more culturally obtainable (Cummins, 1998). CLIL in England is thus not to be seen as a replication of models that have proven to be very successful elsewhere (Coyle, 2007b) – it is necessary for it to find its own feet in its own cultural context. As Coyle (2007b) cautions, CLIL is not back-door language teaching. The language needs to be planned to be taught, learned and assessed just as much as the other subject content does; the challenge of CLIL.

2.22   What are the implications of teaching this way?

A number of implications when integrating languages into the curriculum exist. As discussed, it is not a new idea to reinforce, embed and integrate languages into the primary curriculum: "…..languages should be integrated into the curriculum rather than being seen as a bolt-on extra"(Piece by Piece – implementing the National Languages strategy, DFES/CILT 2004). Teaching new learning through another language in the primary school (Coyle et al 2009) is though arguably new, and more challenging.

Not only is the language of instruction changed but staff and pupils are required to 'step outside the comfort zone into partly unchartered territory' (Mehisto et al, 2008, p.21). This requires preconditions of mutual trust, respect and co-operation, resonant of discussions concerning attitude. Also required are the training and confidence of, together with the commitment from staff to translate such theory into practice.

Hood (2008, p.8) argues that children can learn a language through truly using language for other purposes 'as long as this approach is used from the beginning'. This reiterates need for careful planning, not only short term, but for the long-term too. CLIL is not to be viewed as a means of achieving language goals alone; CLIL programmes have a dual focus on both language and content to ensure the objectives of one component do not override the other (Mehisto et al 2008) and that progression in both is achieved.

Two models to heed when planning have been suggested. The first by Mehisto (2008), the 'CLIL triad,' highlights the need to pay equal attention to language, content and learning skills, and the second by Coyle (2009), the '4 Cs approach', advocates a balance between Culture, Communication, Contexts, and Cognition. However, even this '4 Cs' approach is a developing framework, with Coyle et al (2009) later changing 'contexts' to 'content', emphasising the fluid and evolving nature of CLIL. Implementation of CLIL in English primary schools thus requires revision not only of the subject and language, but also of teaching methods across the curriculum (Mehisto, 2008; Hood & Tobutt, 2009), befitting the current reappraisal of the primary curriculum (Rose, 2008, Coyle et al, 2009).

A further implication of introducing CLIL is the increasingly recognised fact that whilst pupils may be able to communicate with more fluency, their production skills are not native-like in terms of grammatical accuracy, lexical variety and sociolinguistic appropriateness (Curtain and Bjornstad Pesola, 1994; Lyster, 2007; Mehisto et al 2008). Thus CLIL programmes appear questionable if the required outcome from the language learning is accuracy, but may instead be desirable if the required outcome is greater fluency with reduced inhibition to use the second language. Review of national aims for primary languages is thus implied.

2.3 Summary

PL in England appears to be an evolving area where Government policy and practice in schools are mutual learners. Diversity is apparent in many key aspects of PL implementation. However, challenges are arising in that practice has so far not appeared effective enough in helping achieve both National and European aims for language competency, perhaps caught between the dual tensions of achieving social cohesion and workforce benefit.

Encouraging and maintaining positive attitudes and motivation towards both the teaching and learning of PL is recognised as fundamental to their successful development. Differences between younger and older language learners' motivation and attitude are apparent. Variables that can affect this, such as language choice, methodology, teacher, resources, target language use and mind-set have been identified and discussed. Developing integratively motivating learning which matches the maturational age of the learner appears critical in terms of sustaining motivation. How this is to be achieved is more problematic, though literature highlights the importance of the primary class teacher's role and purposeful contexts for learning.

Whilst a national definition of 'CLIL' now exists (Coyle et al, 2009), different interpretations remain. 'ILL' appears to be one such interpretation. Its many and varied reported merits therefore need to be reviewed cautiously as both the interpretation and cultural context of CLIL appear to affect these. Furthermore, many reported benefits echo those advocating early LL anyway –regardless of approach. It is however apparent that CLIL could provide a way of sustaining motivation in the younger learner by better replicating L1 conditions, and also for the older learner by providing more intrinsically meaningful and worthwhile learning contexts.

The extent to which this applies to participants of the ILL intervention is now explored.

Chapter 3

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

The ensuing section clarifies the research sample and establishes grounding in case-study research as an appropriate approach to investigate the impact of ILL upon participant motivation (key questions 3 and 4). This informs data collection tools. Next, as it is a study involving teachers, trainees and pupils in which I am directly involved, the particular importance of ethical considerations is highlighted. Finally, overall validity and limitations of this research are reviewed.

3.2 Research sample

Sample selection, determined by the creation of the intervention (Appendix 1) was relatively straightforward, as Punch (2009) highlights is possible. Two junior and two primary school classes within one LA were involved, where French was the target language. These schools each hosted one postgraduate (PG) PL trainee teacher from the HEI on final teaching placement during the Summer term. Four classes were involved ranging from KS1 to upper KS2. Four PL subject leaders and four generalist class teachers were also involved together with their classes (Fig. 3.2a).

Fig. 3.2a Research sample

	CLASS 1	CLASS 2	CLASS 3	CLASS 4
School type	Primary	Junior	Primary	Junior
Year Group	2	3	5	3
TT	Trainee teacher 1	Trainee teacher 2	Trainee teacher 3	Trainee teacher 4
CT	Class teacher 1	Class teacher 2	Class teacher 3	Class teacher 4
SL	Subject Leader 1	Subject Leader 2	Subject Leader 3	Subject Leader 4

Class teachers were recruited not only as an important element of the languages intervention but also as important participants and observers of what happens in the classroom. Their perceptions determine to a large extent the learning and social processes of the students (Raviv, 1990, Dorman, 2004). Each school partnership ultimately determined the ILL theme for their class (Fig.3.23b).

Fig. 3.23b   ILL themes in each participating class

Class 1	Y2	Gymnastics – travelling.
Class 2	Y3	Games - Golf
Class 3	Y5	Geography – St Lucia, a contrasting location.
Class 4	Y3	Science –habitats, and integrating French into their Edison Creative Curriculum

3.3   Case study

A case-study is a study of a bound system; the case. This case comprises one local ILL group, which in turn comprises four smaller cases: four primary classes, four class teachers, four subject leaders and four PGCE trainee teachers. Use of the case study method is used as an appropriate means to gather information for the holistic nature of this investigation. For 'in addressing holism, complexity theory suggests the need for case-study methodology…looking at situations through the eyes of as many participants…A multi-perspectival approach to educational research' (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2007, p.253). In addition, as the case-study is to be set over an extended period of weeks, a more intimate and informal relationship with those I observed was possible, in a generally more natural environment (Cohen et al, 2007, p.260).

It can however be difficult to define the boundaries of such qualitative research due to its openness (Edwards, 2001). A qualitative approach requires researcher disregarding any prejudices they may hold and allowing the study to develop through the participants without the researcher having an influence upon findings (Straus & Corbin, 1990). This is likely to be harder given the dual role I have; intervention co-ordinator and researcher. Critics of this 'open' method also point towards the problematic nature of cross-checking information and generalising from it (Punch, 2009; Wilson, 2009). It is therefore prudent to note from Bassey (1999) that 'if case studies are carried out systematically and critically, if they are aimed at the improvements in education, if they are relatable…then they are valid forms of research.' This is further confirmed by Yin (2005) who recognises case-study as a viable method for research in the educational field. Moreover, this method

can provide richness of data (Punch, 2009). However, there is a recognised requirement for such studies to not rely on a single data collection method, as they will likely 'need multiple sources of evidence' (Yin, 2003, p.4).

In an attempt to provide 'relatable findings aimed at improvements in education', this methodology endeavours to be both systematic and critical, seeking multiple sources of evidence, which stem from both research sample and data collection methods. This allows for triangulation to improve reliability. For as O'Donoghue and Punch (2003, p.78) write, 'triangulation is a method of cross-checking data from multiple sources to search for regularities in the research data.'

3.4   Research Instruments

Instruments for data collection familiar to case-study research were used in order to elicit information. Key question 3 (*How significant is the way in which the local I.L.L partnership supports and encourages participants in developing positive attitudes and motivation for language learning?*) is informed by questionnaire, interview, research diary and documentary analysis. Key question 4 (*To what extent do the I.L.L teaching methods used and content delivery effect participants' attitudes and motivation for languages?*), by questionnaire, interview, research diary and observation.

3.41 Questionnaires

The Literature Review highlighted need to establish a 'base-line' of perspectives towards language learning against which to compare those at the end. An initial questionnaire was thus conducted with each subject leader to first establish languages provision prior to the intervention. This allowed for contexts to be acknowledged and also helped track the degree to which the languages intervention challenged existing practice, which could affect participants' attitude and motivation (Williams & Burden, 1997; Johnson, 2001;Valeski & Stipek, 2001; Mehisto et al, 2008). This questionnaire was short and simple, and participants were asked to complete it themselves within one of the initial project meetings (Appendices 2a and b). Four questions were used to illicit who taught languages, how much time was devoted to PL each week, what was taught and the resources used: variables identified by literature. The impact of ILL against this provision could then be analysed.

Questionnaires were used to establish participant attitude and motivation, at the beginning and end to help measure the impact of ILL. Literature highlighted the importance of eliciting reasons for

participation in the intervention, tracking participants' efforts and ascertaining how their practice as a result of participating may change (Dörnyei, 2001). Questionnaires were therefore designed to elicit how encouraged and supported participants felt, seeking answers to both research questions outlined above. One questionnaire was designed for use with class teachers, subject leaders and trainees. A further class questionnaire was designed for use with pupils.

As I sought to find out how the ILL intervention affected participant attitude and motivation, questions for both 'older' and 'younger' learners (Wray, 2008) focussed on similar areas. Questions to elicit information regarding confidence and competence with French were placed at the beginning. This was used to generate a draft questionnaire (Appendix 3a). Open-ended questions were incorporated, as they 'can catch the authenticity, richness, depth of response, honesty…hallmarks of qualitative data' (Cohen et all, 2007, p.330). However, the use of contingency and filter questions in the questionnaire, whilst useful to the researcher, can be confusing for the respondent as it is not always clear how to proceed through the sequence of question (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2008, p.332). This raises need for trialling to make the procedure as clear as possible, for as Redline et al (2002) confirm, respondents tend to ignore, misread and incorrectly follow branching instructions.

A psychometric scale was selected to help measure confidence levels of participants, recognised as an important feature of motivation (Dörnyei, 2001). In the study into the effects of English language immersion teaching upon levels of anxiety discussed in the Literature Review, Matsuda and Gobel (2003) used a Likert scale questionnaire which they found to be particularly helpful. This rating scale appears widely used in educational research (Punch, 2009). I thus adapted it for use in my own questionnaires (Appendix 3a). However, as Punch (2009, p.240) acknowledges, there is an implicit limitation as the Likert scale does not recognise the scale value of the statement or item being measured, as the scale by Thurstone and Guttman does. This is recognised as more difficult to administer. Work by Rasch (in Andrich, 1988) brought both methods of attitude scaling together, but this study retains the Likert scale for ease of construction and administration.

The draft questionnaire for the 'older learners' was initially trialled by colleagues, resulting in several modifications to improve layout, wording and question sequence. Alterations were also made to the class questionnaire to make them more 'child friendly' and also to fit a group response (Appendix 3b). For as Punch (2009, p.48) stresses:

'Methods for research with children need to be developmentally appropriate, sensitive to the issues of ability, power and vulnerability, able to accommodate a faithful representation of their views, experience and meanings, in line with the view of children as social actors and co-constructors of their own reality.'

Whilst originally intending to conduct class questionnaires myself, the appropriateness of the class teacher became clear, as assuming they were likely to have a more open relationship with their class than me (Raviv, 1990, Dorman, 2004), they were better placed to facilitate continuity and richer responses. Questionnaires could also be conducted at similar times and retain social and political contexts of the research (Punch, 2009). The class questionnaire was trialled with attending teachers and an agreed way to conduct the questionnaires negotiated to try and ensure parity in data collection technique to improve validity of responses. Teachers read out the questions to the class whilst displaying the questionnaire on the class whiteboard. Teachers then completed the number and nature of pupil responses.

This inevitably led to further limitations as it is impossible to know exactly how these questions were put to the class, or the exact context thereof. Asking the teacher to conduct this questionnaire was an attempt to retain one variable, as they all had the same introductory input from me. However, if repeating this, if the co-researcher states and signs when and where the questionnaire took place, the effect context has on participants' response could be better acknowledged. Giving each pupil a questionnaire to improve richness and reliability of responses is also a consideration. It is a limitation that not all pupils may have had their responses accurately recorded, or indeed not have reported what they really thought given the open nature of the questionnaire (Punch, 2009).

Teachers and trainee teachers were asked to complete the two questionnaires during project meetings, the first within the HEI and the last in their own time at the end of the research period. Whilst this means that responses could be affected by the different contexts in which they were completed (Punch, 2009), I felt it necessary to gain as honest as possible answers. It also meant that if anything was unclear the first time, participants could ask for clarification. However, teachers and trainees may have felt influenced by my presence or that of their colleagues.

3.42   Lesson observations and informal interviews

Observations 'can reveal characteristics of groups or individuals which would have been impossible to discover by other means' (Bell, 2005, p.184). Observation also allows a researcher to gather 'live' data from naturally occurring social situations, and can not only be a source of facts, but also of events

(Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2007, p.396); particularly useful in addressing the set research questions. Furthermore, Punch (2009, p.156) warns against an overemphasis on perceptions, perspectives and meanings without also studying what participants do. Therefore, two observed ILL lessons at each school were planned; one towards the beginning of the research period and one towards the end to facilitate analysis of ILLs impact. Times were negotiated in advance with the schools, trainees and mentors.

My impact as observer on the observed needed consideration (Jones and Somekh, 2005, p.140). This is especially relevant to observations in a language lesson. Specific difficulties were seen in the work of Labov (in Crystal, 2003, p.323) who found that the language of the observed is naturally and subconsciously affected by being observed. Case et al (2003) also note potential negative impact of observations on teachers in relation to inspections, relevant as trainees were on final placement with required observations from link tutors and mentors. Furthermore, observation 'invades the privacy of the subjects and private space, and places the researcher in a position of misinterpreting his/her role' (Mitchell, 2003). To help compensate for any discomfort the observation schedule and purpose of note-making was shared with participants.

A notable limitation of structured observation is the need for the researcher to be practised in completing them (Cohen et al, 2007, p.399). The relative inexperience in such research I bring to this investigation compounds this, especially when considering my relative experience with professional lesson observations instead. Dyer (1995) states that inexperience can be compensated for by conducting pilot studies to trial and improve data collection methods. It was therefore important to trial observation schedules, practising looking at lessons with a researcher's eye rather than with a professional one.

The observation schedule needed to allow consideration of what was to be observed before study commenced (Cohen et al, 2007). However, if observations are too structured, they break behaviour into small parts and the larger picture can be lost. Conversely if they are too unstructured, recording and analysing the data is more demanding (Punch, 2009). Mehisto et al (2008) provide a framework for CLIL lesson observations and this was adapted for use (Appendix 4a). This schedule also helped note how ILL was interpreted by participants. It could not be piloted before the research period, as no schools in the region were known to be teaching CLIL/ILL – a limitation of researching such a new approach. The schedule was subsequently piloted during the first observations, and modifications made

to make it more manageable (Appendix 4b). There was also not enough allowance for notes on attitude and motivation. Therefore an additional schedule was designed to record trainee, teacher and pupil reactions seen, heard or prompted by set questions in informal interviews. Question prompts for these were devised to elicit perspectives towards ILL from randomly selected pupils in each class. For example, 'Did you find this lesson any different to other lessons you've had? Why? What did you enjoy about this lesson? What did you find difficult/ challenging about this lesson? Are you looking forward to having another lesson like this? Why?' These were asked during appropriate times in the lesson, subject to flexibility given the different contexts of lessons (Appendix 5).

3.43 Formal Interviews

Whilst the use of questionnaires can be regarded as a form of interview (Fontana and Frey, 1994; Punch, 2009), formal interviews with trainees, key instigators of ILL in classes, were also conducted. Interviews are 'one of the most powerful ways we have of understanding others' (Punch, 2009, p.144).

Interviews were conducted at the end of the research period when trainees could better reflect on the intervention and process. Interviews were planned at the HEI, and a series of open-ended questions were drawn up and piloted with two French trainees on a similar placement, before being used with each post-graduate student (Appendices 6a- b). A semi-structured interview was selected, allowing for both consideration of required information prior to the interview and also for interviewee momentum. There were no pre-established categories for responding (Punch, 2009).

Five steps for managing the interviews as suggested by Punch (2009) were followed: preparing an interview schedule, establishing rapport at the beginning of the interview, focussing on my communication and listening skills, asking questions in a sequenced way, and finally closing the interview. As question-asking is at the centre of interviewing it is no surprise that it has been analysed extensively (Punch, 2009). Patton's (1990) classification was used to help plan and sequence the semi-structured interviews, providing a useful checklist of questions often necessary at different stages of the interview.

Field notes were taken during interview to distinguish nuances of meaning and interpretation (Jones and Somekh, 2005). However, to check and enrich notes and to reduce inhibiting natural responses whilst the interviewee waited for a written record to be made, interviews were, with participant

approval, digitally recorded and transcribed. It also allowed confirmation that responses were accurately portrayed; an important ethical consideration. Audio-recording however is not fool-proof, for despite all pre-recording checks, it is still possible to lose sensitive data (Cohen et al, 2008), enhancing the need for supporting field notes.

As I am a HEI tutor interviewing trainees, there is a potential difficulty in terms of the hierarchical research relationship (Oakley, 1981; Fontana and Frey, 1994). The need to avoid the 'hierarchical pitfall' is stressed by Reinharz (1992) and the feminist preference for minimizing status differences appears particularly useful as it can yield better data as well as improving potential moral and ethical objections (Punch, 2009). Much research on the psychology of interviewing suggests that if the interview occurs where interviewer and interviewee do not know each other, the likelihood of obtaining true and unbiased answers is greater, but that the interviewee is less likely to reveal personal opinions and beliefs (Brown & Canter, 1985; Brenner, Schostak, 2006; Gillham, 2005). Conversely, if interviews occur where participants are familiar with each other, personal opinions are more open but subconsciously the interviewee might give answers that are believed to be what the interviewer needs; therefore biased. It was decided to conduct interviews at different key times towards the end of the data collection period to attempt to address such possible imbalance between formality and familiarity. However it is a limitation that my familiarity with participants will have likely increased at the same time as participants' experience with the language intervention itself. Clearly distinguishing between these two variables poses challenge.

Interviewing at the HEI was decided preferable to within the school setting: 'if we were studying teachers' or pupils' perspectives …we would need to consider them in different settings, since behaviour can differ markedly in different situations' (Woods, 1996). Responses of interviewees however may be still be environmentally biased. If repeating, interviews could perhaps be better conducted in a non-educational setting, or at least one that is professionally unfamiliar.

A further area requiring attention is how to analyse the responses received (Fielding, 1996). Punch (2009, p.152) highlights that the accuracy of respondents' memories, their response tendencies, dishonesty, self-deception and social desirability together with interviewer bias and effects are all issues to be acknowledged. Whilst most of these can be countered by careful planning (Fielding, 1996), Punch (2009, p.153) highlights the more difficult problem concerning 'the correspondence between verbal responses and behaviour, the relationship between what people say, what they do and

what they say they do, and the assumption that language is a good indicator of thought and action.' Wooffitt (1996) argues that language is itself a form a social interaction, and that language does not merely represent the world, but does specific tasks in it. This change in the view of language has arguably allowed new perspectives in qualitative research and of pertinence to this research is the relevance of both spoken and written language. The significance of triangulating interview data with observations also increases.

3.44 Research diary

To support critical analysis and gain a greater sense of objectivity given my dual role, a research diary was kept to record my own feelings, motivation and attitude towards the project and the support I was giving each school and participant, together with notes about what I felt were significant occurrences and /or remarks made during the period of data collection. As noted by Kelly (in Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2007, p.435): 'Personal constructs are the basic units of analysis in a complete and formally stated theory of personality.' It was therefore important to recognise the importance of the 'self' in not just the data collection but also in the analysis thereof. Incorporating a research log could develop my researcher's perspective and allow for another point of view to emerge.

3.45 Documentary Data

'Documents are a rich source of data, often neglected by researchers' (Punch, 2009, p.159). They are also particularly relevant for education research as 'such organisations routinely produce a vast amount' (Punch, 2009, p.159). Moreover, they support triangulation (Denzin, 1989).

To enrich research, TDA documents regarding the ILL project were collected together with documents from network meetings. Email contact was also established and maintained with adult participants throughout study period. This helped extract how ILL was interpreted and delivered and track participant responses. This source varies from the other types of documents as emails were written with the research in mind and the others just with the intervention itself –referred to as the 'witting-unwitting' distinction (Punch, 2009, p.159). Specific plans and evaluations produced during the course of the intervention were also, with participant permission, collected.

This variety of documents needed careful analysis if not to become 'bewildering' (Punch, 2009, p.159). Documents included primary and secondary sources, with direct and indirect uses (Finnegan, 1996). Various ways of classifying the range of documents are suggested (Finnegan, 1996; Hammersley & Atkinson, 1995; Jupp, 1996; MacDonald & Tipton, 1996; Scott, 2000). Of particular relevance to this study is Scott's typology based on authorship and access, where documentary data is evaluated according to its authenticity, credibility, representativeness and its meaning, for as MacDonald and Tipton (1996) stress, nothing can be taken for granted. This was considered during analysis in an attempt to increase objectivity.

3.5 Ethical Considerations

'All educational research should be conducted within an ethic of respect for: the person, knowledge, democratic values and the quality of educational research' (BERA, 2003, p.3). As this study was conducted within schools concerning an educational intervention upon people involved in teaching and learning, significant ethical considerations were apparent (Greig, Taylor and Mackay, 2007). These were further magnified as research involved children (Punch, 2009, p.38). Therefore before commencing research, official ethical approval was sought (Appendix 7a).

Underpinning research was the need to confirm informed consent from all participants, allowing free choice of participation (Gilbert, 2008). Gate-keeper consent (Roberts-Holmes, 2005) was sought from the Headteacher and Governors of each school involved, and from the HEI Dean of Education (Appendices 7b-c).   Headteachers were given choice whether additional consent from parents/guardians was necessary, for which a sample letter was provided (Appendix 7d). Individual written consent was also sought from class teachers, subject leaders and trainees, and verbal permission to use minutes and notes made at national ILL network meetings (Appendix 7e.). The issue of gaining consent is not a one-off event, but rather needs to be renegotiated throughout the study period (Hill, 2005; O'Leary, 2004; Punch, 2009; Roberts-Holmes, 2005).Each participant was thus explicitly given opportunity to accept or decline, and reminded of their right to withdraw at any stage of research.

A further important principle is that of confidentiality; 'the principle that allows people not only to talk in confidence, but also to refuse to allow publication of any material that they think might harm them in any way' (Piper and Simons, 2005, p.67). This demonstrates that the rights and feelings of the

participants are respected (Cardwell et al, 2003). The promise of confidentiality is also highlighted by Cohen et al (2008, p.65): 'Although researchers know who has provided the information...they will no way make the connection known publicly'. Participants were thus assured of autonomy – a basic human right (Coady, 2001) and confidentiality.

The importance of briefing participants before and after research is also recognised (Cohen et al, 2000, p.61). This includes sharing how anonymity was to be maintained. Coding was used for questionnaires and interviews. Schools were labelled as School 1, 2 ,3 ,4. Subsequently, each class teacher was recorded and referred to as Class Teacher (CT) 1, 2, 3, 4; trainee teachers as TT 1,2, 3, 4; and subject leaders as SL 1, 2, 3, 4. At no time could pupils be specifically identified as responses were recorded anonymously under 'Class 1, 2, 3, 4'. Being honest and open with participants is a required ethical feature (Punch, 2009), so furthermore, findings were accessible by interviewees whilst confidentiality of the data collected was respected at all times.

3.6 Validity and reliability

Validity refers to the 'truthfulness, correctness and accuracy' of research data (Burton & Bartlett, 2005, p.27). As I occupy dual role of researcher and professional practitioner, a number of factors already acknowledged threaten validity. Scott (2000, p.17) is clear that the characteristics and background of the researcher can affect the objectivity and reliability of the research. Therefore, even though maintaining an objective attitude was attempted, it is likely that my beliefs still affected gathering, analysis and interpretation of data.

Risk of subjectivity and bias therefore remain, despite measures such as inclusion of a research log and open acknowledgement, for retaining 'a dispassionate, objective, arm's length approach' to the research situation (Punch, 2009, p.44) is difficult. Further complicating matters is defining the dividing line between research data and professional data (Punch, 2009). However, there are some advantages associated with a dual-role. It is convenient, with practical, logistical advantages, and there is in-built professional relevance (Punch, 2009, p.44). Moreover, Punch stresses that insider-understanding of the research situation, 'including its social, cultural and micro-political contexts' can enrich and deepen the research 'including interpretation of its results and consideration of their transferability.' Such insider status however remains a 'two-edged sword.' Use of a totally impartial, more experienced

researcher could yield alternative findings. However, if this were repeated with an 'inside researcher', more time should be spent piloting all data collection tools to improve validity.

By combining, comparing and contrasting multiple opinions overt weakness from intrinsic bias is challenged (O'Donoghue and Punch, 2003). Cohen (2000 p.107) states that 'in qualitative data collection, the intensive personal involvement and in-depth responses of the individuals can secure a sufficient level of validity and reliability'. Silverman (2006, p.290) however highlights that in order to be more reliable, data collected must be representative of the whole sample. For this reason my sample is stratified into groups that consist of an equal number of participants to data collection methods.

By 'cross-checking data from multiple sources to search for regularities in the research data' (O'Donoghue and Punch, 2003, p.78) validity of findings is increased (Gilbert, 1994). Deliberate selection of different data collection methods seeks to allow such variety, further enhanced by three different perspectives: teacher, trainee and pupil. This allows for data triangulation, a navigational term meaning to 'fix ones position from two known bearings' used by researchers to increase validity of findings (Burton and Bartlett, 2005, p.26).

3.7 Generalisability

The mixed method approach used for this case study, allows qualitative data to be situated in context (Greene, Kreider &Mayer, 2005). As a case-study though, there are limits to the study's generalisablity. Cohen et al (2007, p.253) define a case-study as 'a specific instance that is frequently designed to illustrate a more general principle.' However, Torrance (in Somekh and Lewin, 2005, p.33) states that 'it is not possible to generalise statistically from one or a small number of cases.' It is therefore inappropriate to generalise statistical findings from this investigation.

As research is localised and small-scale, findings are context specific and cannot be widely generalised. To improve transferablity, the sample needs increasing (Mertens, 2004, p.308). This could be achieved by extending the number of schools involved, or as discussed earlier, involving all the pupils from each class as individual participants rather than as a collective group. Research could also reduce the number of variables in the sample, eg involving the same year groups, schools with the same previous PL methodology, focussing on the responses of a particular type of pupil.

3.8 Summary

The context of this research has been clarified together with a rationale for a mixed-method range of data collection; qualitative data from asking, watching and examining (Wolcott, 1992). Limitations have been discussed together with ways to improve validity. Significant ethical considerations apply, particularly in relation to research with pupils, and a need to remain as objective as possible to maximise advantages of 'insider-research' is required (Punch, 2009).

To ensure data was collected systematically, a data collection schedule was prepared (Appendix 8). This split data collection into three distinct sections:

1. Pre-intervention
2. During the intervention
3. Post intervention.

Data under two broad themes linked to key questions 3 and 4 were then analysed:

3) Impact of the ILL partnership on motivation (IP)
4) Impact of the ILL content and methods on motivation (ICM)

In so doing, sense was attempted to be made of emergent findings, using O'Leary's (2005) five-step process, striving to focus only upon relevant sources. This process took longer than envisaged, but 'the more often you read a transcript, the more you will see in it' (Evans, 2009, p.125). Such analysis allowed not only for themes arising from literature to be deductively approached, but for others to be discovered inductively through both a constant comparison of data (Wilson and Fox, 2009, p.104) and open-coding technique (Evans, 2009, p.131).

This study now explores findings.

Chapter 4

DATA ANALYSIS

4.1 Introduction

Data collection is reviewed before considering questionnaire responses gauging overall impact of ILL upon participant motivation. Other data is then examined to extract influence exerted by the ILL partnership and approach (key questions 3 and 4). It appears ILL had greatest impact upon class teacher and pupil motivation with a significant increase in time for curriculum French together with targeted support and collaboration being particularly influential.

4.2 Data collection

Most data was collected as planned. However, despite piloting, challenges arose in the completion of some questionnaires. Two audit questionnaires could not be completed as planned. To ensure scheduled completion (Appendix 8), SL3 was visited in school whilst SL4 was telephoned. Discrepancies thus emerged in collection context, though as 'factual' information was sought, this may not unduly affect accuracy. It could however have influenced participant response towards the ILL partnership (key question 3) as they had more time to provide richer responses, and a quicker rapport was established. Furthermore, whilst branching questions in questionnaires were followed correctly, the Likert scale posed more difficulty. Two class teachers and two subject leaders reused scale and ranking numbers, challenging analysis, which thus retains raw figures. This eventuality wasn't highlighted during piloting, suggesting a need for more, with a wider range of people. Furthermore in completing class questionnaires, not all teachers ensured that all pupils' responses were captured for each question. Analysis of these thus retains raw figures, facilitating fairer analysis. In addition, the final class questionnaire remained frustratingly unobtainable from Class 2. The impact of ILL upon pupil attitude and motivation from this class cannot therefore be fully recognised.

Challenges with arranging convenient observation times also arose, with none ultimately possible in Class 2. Timetable pressures such as SATs, Sports Days, trips and class assemblies, together with illness and job interviews compounded the recognised ethical need to avoid overburdening trainees

with observations. Analysis of email and research diary data reveals significant concern with such negotiations. Class 2 responses to ILL therefore became particularly limited.

Technical challenges also presented. CTs3, 4, and TT3 experienced problems with sending/receiving emails during the research period, and the recording device ultimately failed to pick up voices adequately during final interviews. Data from this source is thus reliant upon my own notes combined with minutes from the meeting (Appendix 9).
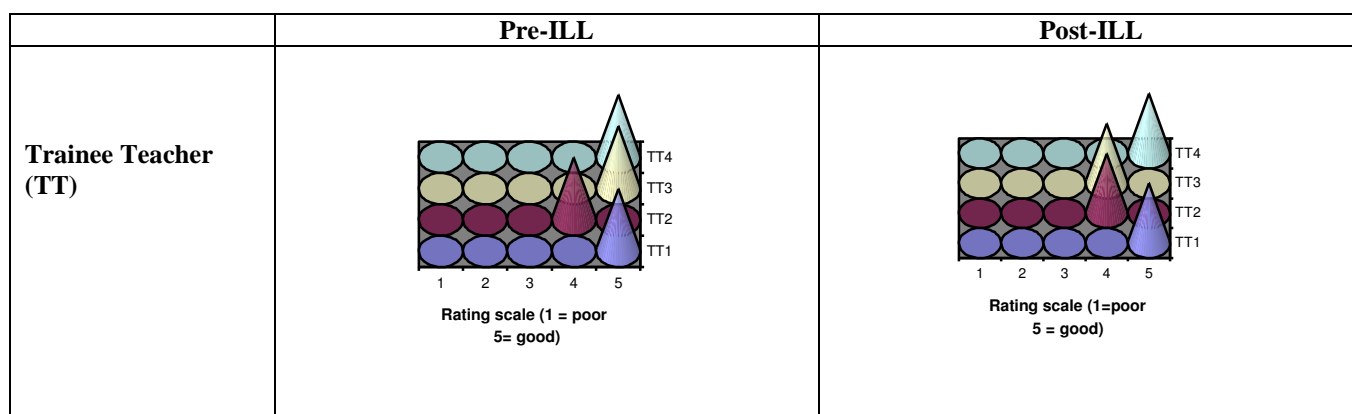
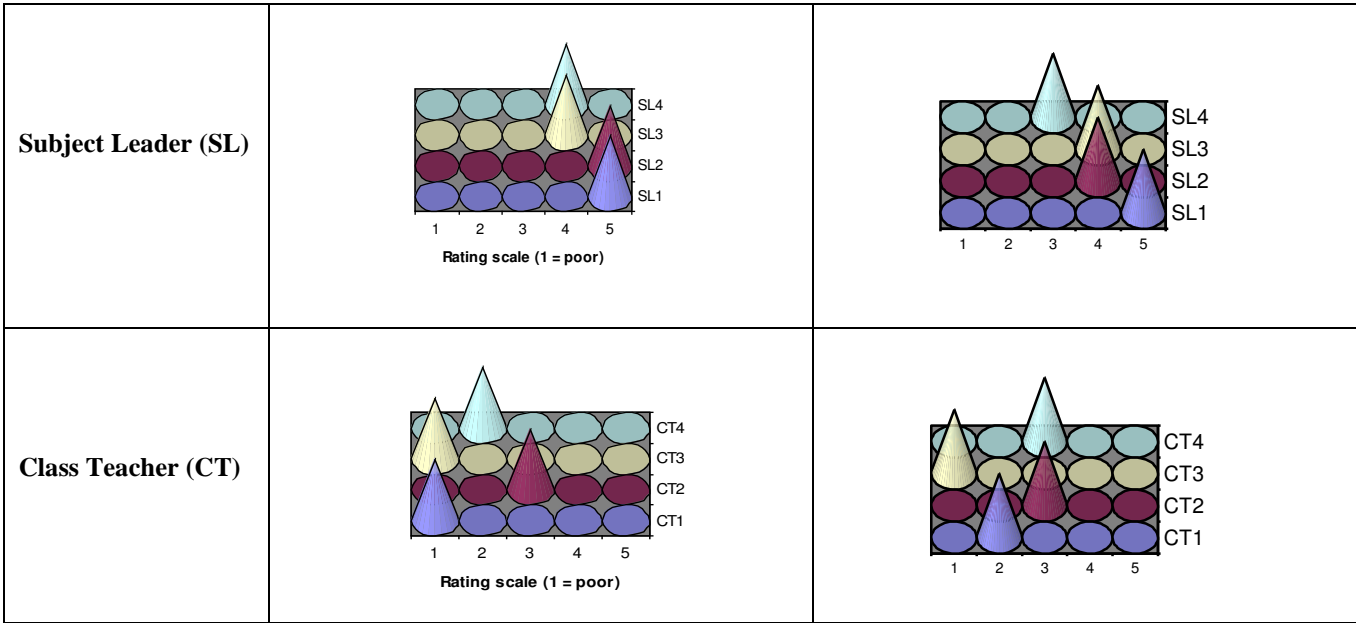## 4.3 Impact of ILL on attitude and motivation

Literature suggested hypotheses that ILL will affect adult motivation differently to that of the pupils (Mehisto, 2008; Wray, 2008) and that those participants deemed most motivated will also be most successful (Ushioda, 1994). Adult responses are therefore analysed before comparing against those of pupils. Responses from the first three questions of the initial and final questionnaires measuring confidence, competence and enjoyment levels of French (Dörnyei, 2001) were grouped together and pictorially graphed to facilitate analysis and comparison.

4.31 Impact upon adult participants

Fig. 4.31a   Adult responses towards confidence in using French in class:
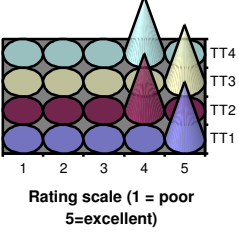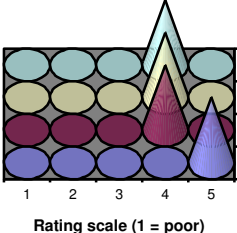'Rate how confident you are using French in class' (1 = poor, 5 = extremely)

	Pre-ILL	Post-ILL
Trainee Teacher (TT)		

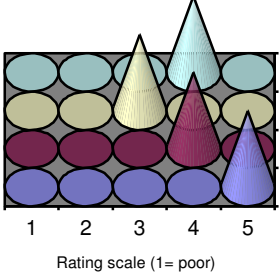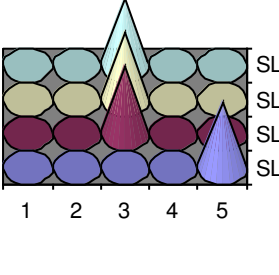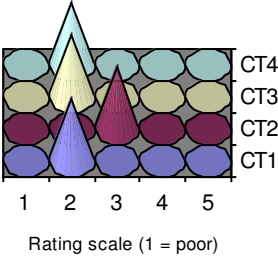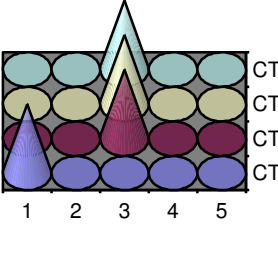|	Pre-ILL	Post-ILL
Subject Leader (SL)		
Class Teacher (CT)		

Trainees and subject leaders appeared most confident in their use of French pre-ILL, and the intervention did not alter this overall breakdown. However, subtle shifts in confidence levels can be detected (Fig.4.31a). Confidence levels of class teachers appeared to rise slightly with ILL, whereas that of both subject leaders and trainee teachers, slightly declined. ILL appears to have been a general leveller of confidence levels between classroom professionals, in that it is seen here to either slightly reduce or have no impact upon confidence levels of the 'specialists' but increase the confidence levels of the 'generalist teacher.' CT4 and SL4 both rated themselves at the same level of confidence post intervention (Fig. 4.31a). Findings suggest that ILL could be particularly motivating in terms of increasing confidence levels for some class teachers (eg CT1 and CT4) but neglects to be so for language specialists eg SL2, SL4 and TT3. Further analysis is required to both verify and elicit why this may be so.

The second variable measured was TL competence. Fig. 4.31b depicts the impact of ILL upon French language competency levels amongst adults, where competency was viewed in terms of knowledge of and ability with vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation.

Fig. 4.31b   Impact of ILL upon adult TL competency

'Rate how competent you are with French.' (1 = poor, 5 = excellent)

	Pre-ILL	Post-ILL

Trainee Teacher (TT)	TT4 TT3 TT2 TT1 1 2 3 4 5 **Rating scale (1 = poor 5=excellent)**	TT4 TT3 TT2 TT1 1 2 3 4 5 **Rating scale (1 = poor)**
Subject Leader (SL)	SL4 SL3 SL2 SL1 1 2 3 4 5 Rating scale (1= poor)	SL4 SL3 SL2 SL1 1 2 3 4 5
Class Teacher (CT)	CT4 CT3 CT2 CT1 1 2 3 4 5 Rating scale (1 = poor)	CT4 CT3 CT2 CT1 1 2 3 4 5

These findings indicate that ILL had no reported impact upon TL competency levels amongst half the adult participants. One third of adult participants reported an actual decline in competency. Most of these were the language 'specialists' (TT3, SL4, SL2, CT1). CT1 reported an increase in confidence but a decrease in competence, warranting further investigation. In contrast, two class teachers reported an increase in competency levels using French in the school day post-ILL (CT3 and CT4). These are the only adult participants to report a gain in competency. It therefore appears that ILL challenged rather than enhanced most participants' feelings of language competency. Where positive impact was noted, it was only amongst class teachers.

To ascertain the extent to which these variables actively motivated participants, findings concerning confidence and competence were correlated against frequency of TL use. Frequency appears to have either remained static or declined with ILL. This was unexpected as literature highlighted that TL use

increases with ILL (Doyle, 2009; Hood, 2008; Mehisto, 2008). Further questioning in informal interviews however revealed that post-ILL, all participants were more conscious of planning various ways of using French both themselves and for the pupils throughout the school day. For example, all SLs reported that they *'frequently used the TL (French) in the school day.'* It appears however from informal interviews that this was initially understood to relate purely to within discrete subject lessons eg SL1: *'I've ticked 'frequently' but I only mean on Tuesdays. It's my only day.'* Whilst questionnaire results post- ILL indicate less TL use, it was apparent that participants had become more critically aware of how else the TL could be used, leading to fewer participants ticking the 'frequently' box: *'I can't rea*lly tick frequently now. I only use French in the [language] lesson*s I teach'* (SL2).

Findings suggest that confidence, competence and enjoyment of French amongst adults in the case-study appear marginally but variably affected by ILL. As ILL differed in each school team, Tierney & Gallastegi's (2007) claim that attitude and motivation are directly affected by content and methodology appears corroborated. Of all adult groups, class teachers reported the greatest positive impact of ILL upon their confidence and competence levels. This is more significant given the initial total lack of confidence reported by this group. In contrast, ILL appears to have had either no impact, or challenged TL confidence and competence of subject leaders and trainees. Furthermore, feeling confident and competent with the TL (French) did not appear to automatically translate into direct motivation to use French more throughout the school day. However, data suggests that participants developed more critical awareness of how and when the TL could be used in the school day.

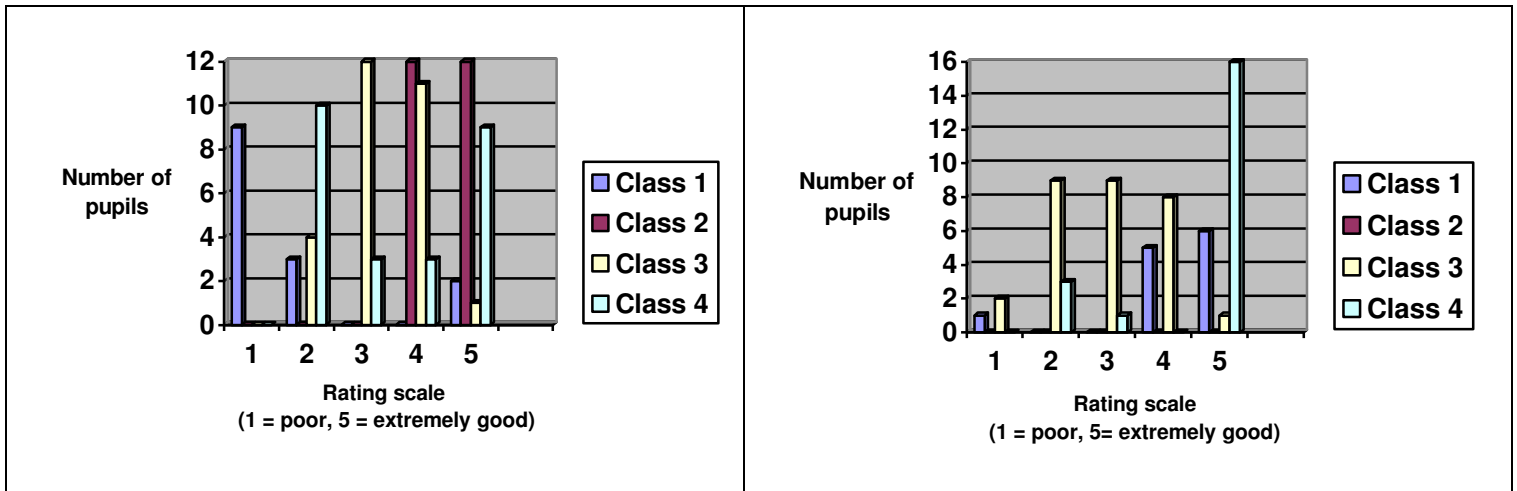The impact of ILL upon adults is now contrasted against that of pupils.

4.32   Impact upon pupil participants

Fig. 4.32a Impact of ILL upon pupil confidence with French:

'How <u>confident</u> are you at using the target language (French) in class?'

Class 1 = Y2   Class 2 = Y3   Class 3 = Y5   Class 4 = Y3

Pre- ILL	Post-ILL

ILL appears to have had diverse impact upon pupil's confidence levels. Fig.4.32a demonstrates that all classes involved reported initial variation in confidence levels prior to ILL and that with ILL, whilst variation remained, it altered. Class 1, the youngest and initially least confident, became much more confident in their use of French post-ILL. Class 4 too became more confident in their use of French. However, Class 3 reported significantly lower confidence levels in their use of French post- ILL. It appears that the oldest pupils in the case-study (Class 3 = Y5) felt their confidence, like those of the adult specialists, more challenged than the younger pupils. These findings suggest that ILL is not motivating for all pupils, and that age, as well as manner of implementation could be influential factors. However, findings from Classes 2 and 4 (both Y3) are notably different (Fig .4.32a). Class 2 reported high initial confidence levels whilst Class 4's responses were broadly mixed. This indicates that age range alone cannot be solely responsible for confidence levels, increasing the significance of approach in affecting pupil confidence and motivation.

The impact of ILL upon pupil TL competency, again viewed in terms of knowledge of and ability with vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation, is now reviewed (Fig. 4.32b).
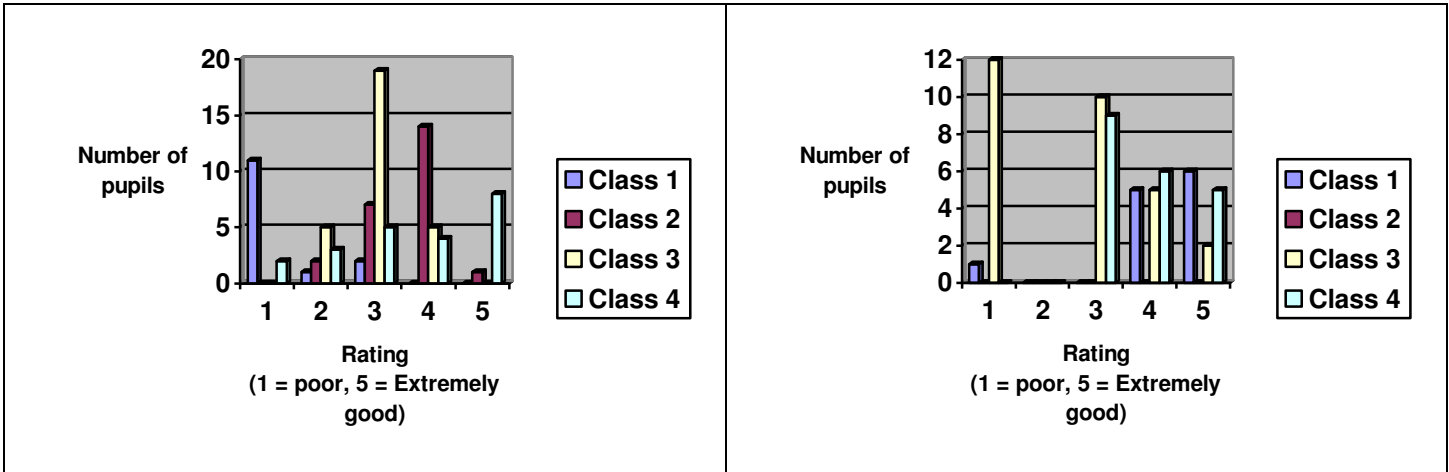
Fig.4.32b   Impact of ILL upon pupil competency levels:
'How good are you at using the target language (French) in class?'

Class 1 = Y2   Class 2 = Y3   Class 3 = Y5   Class 4 = Y3
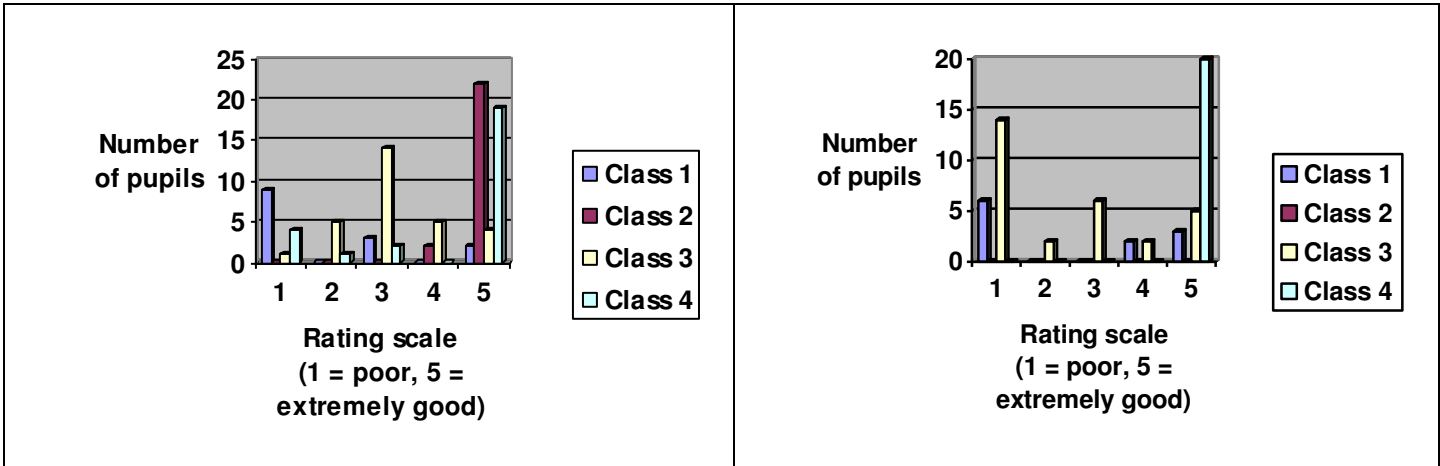
Pre- ILL	Post-ILL

Post-ILL, variation remained in pupils' views of their language competency (Fig. 4.32b). Whilst most pupils in Class 1, despite weekly French lessons, did not rate their competency pre-ILL highly at all, Class 2 demonstrated higher levels. However, results also indicate that the younger pupils (Class 1) rated themselves more harshly than the older pupils. The eldest pupils in the sample (Class 3) demonstrated a notable tendency to plump for the 'safe' middle ground. This difference could perhaps be attributed to Wray's (2008) transition theory where at some point during the primary phase, pupils mature from 'younger language learner' to 'older learner.' Unfortunately there are no other Y2 or Y5 classes to compare within the sample, indicating potential for further research regarding the relationship between perceived pupil TL capability levels and age. Pupils in Classes 1 and 4 reported a distinct gain in feeling that they were good at French post- ILL (Fig.4.32b). Class 3 conversely reported a bigger split post-ILL between pupils who felt they performed worse at French and those who thought they were better. Furthermore, the vast majority of pupils in Class 3 reported overall negative feelings concerning their confidence and competency levels post ILL, supportive of Wray's (2008) transition theory.

Pupil enjoyment of French also appears affected by ILL (Fig.4.32c).

Fig. 4.32c Impact of ILL upon pupil enjoyment of French: **'**How much do you <u>enjoy</u> using French in class?'

Pre-ILL	Post-ILL

Findings suggest variation in pupils' levels of enjoyment both pre- and post-ILL, but that ILL altered the breakdown (Fig. 4.32c). Pupils in Class 1 least enjoyed using French in class pre-ILL. In contrast, pupils in Classes 2 and 4 reported most enjoying using French in class. In comparison, post- ILL, subtle but significant changes in pupil perceptions of their enjoyment are apparent. A slight improvement is apparent in Class 1. This is not however as great as reported improvements in their feelings of confidence and competence. Whilst Class 4 reported thoroughly enjoying French post ILL, Class 3 in contrast report a general decline in enjoyment. It thus appears that the ILL had greater impact upon pupil confidence and their feelings of competence rather than their enjoyment. This corroborates findings from Literature that suggest enjoyment is not to be confused with confidence and competence in terms of measuring motivation (Dörnyei, 2001). It also indicates that whilst content and teaching approach could influence pupil enjoyment of language learning, a reduction doesn't necessarily equate with diminished learning. There is need for further analysis to illuminate which pupils ILL appears to demotivate and why.

The extent to which pupil confidence, competence and enjoyment of languages correlated with increased motivation to use the TL in class is reviewed (Fig. 4.32d).

Fig. 4.32d Impact of ILL upon frequency of pupil use of the TL

How often do you speak/use French yourself during the school day?

1 = frequently   2 = occasionally   3 = never

Pre-ILL	Post-ILL
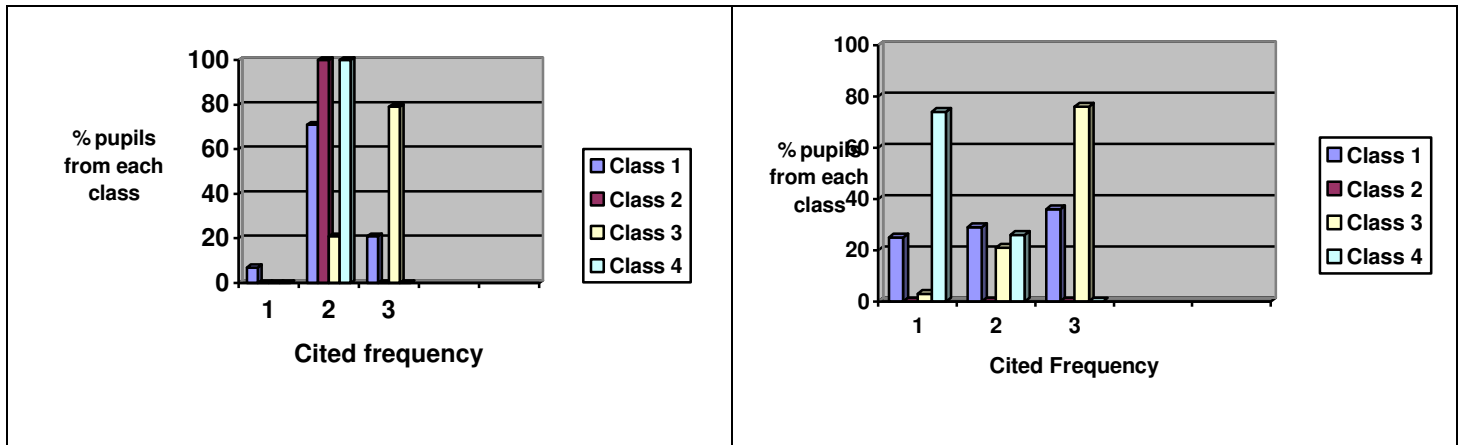
Findings suggest post-ILL, most pupils report an increase in using French during the school day. This suggests the intervention could have motivated pupils to do so by raising their feelings of confidence and competency. This is in contrast to findings from adult participants, where limited increases in using the TL were noted in the questionnaires. ILL appears to have motivated more pupils than teachers to use more TL.

Data are now considered to investigate what may have influenced apparent shifts in attitude and motivation; key questions 3 and 4.

4.4 Impact of the ILL partnership upon participant attitude and motivation

Three themes concerning the extent to which the support and encouragement of the ILL partnership affected participant attitude/motivation (key question 3) emerged from data scrutiny:

- o Communication
- o Collaboration
- o Content determination

Analysis revealed that how the ILL partnership was established had far-reaching consequences both in terms of its impact in facilitating participant support and upon participant motivation.

4.41 Communication

Communication within the partnership appeared to influence attitude and motivation in a variety of ways. Data suggests that the role of the HEI co-ordinator was fundamental in facilitating and maintaining partnership liaison. At the start of the intervention, the designated Specialist Language College (SLC) only had contact with one of the primary schools involved and the LA had established PL links with only two of the schools (Schools 2 and 3); School 1 was particularly remote and the Subject Leader was employed one day a week to teach and lead French for the whole school (Fig. 4.41a). School 4 had initially resisted LA support with PL. Furthermore, none of the schools had initial mutual links.

Fig. 4.41a   Partnership links

School	Distance from HEI (miles)	Link with the SLC	Link with the LA	Subject Leader
School 1	45	YES	-	1 day a week pure French to both KS1/2
School 2	26	-	YES	2 days a week pure French to KS2
School 3	33	-	YES	Full-time Y1 class teacher
School 4	30	-	-	Full-time Y6 class teacher

The co-ordinator facilitated establishment of clear roles and responsibilities, being the key driver in organising, preparing and chairing meetings together with providing minutes for all participants and ensuring that resulting actions happened (Appendix 10). This role also facilitated and encouraged communication, provided initial support and was a central point of contact. Without this, the intervention was unlikely to have been as successful or influential on participant motivation. For example, despite regular email communication, teacher evaluations highlight the benefit of face to face meetings. The importance of '*personal contact*' (SL4), highlighted in interviews as a key motivational factor, was further reinforced when technical glitsches with email arose. Trainees all appeared appreciative of the coordinator role, which as TT4 commented, encouraged them to get started and keep going: *'I very much valued your time and expertise, he*lping me get this together and move *forward.'* Also, whilst the SLC outreach teacher offered teachers and trainees the chance to observe a Secondary CLIL lesson, the actual communication and organisation of this was via the co-ordinator, rather than between themselves; indicative of the fact that participants were initially uneasy at direct communication. Time was also an issue, for teachers and trainees all cited a lack of it, challenging communication.

Communication between class teacher and trainee was of note. In partnerships observed to be communicating well, eg School 4, motivation and enthusiasm were maintained. In School 2, where communication appeared more problematic, motivation dipped, and challenges encountered such as resourcing and other curriculum pressures were perceived as being almost too difficult to overcome: *'There's no time for ILL this week. We've got Sport's Day practice* (TT2).' Conversely, where motivation levels were high, similarly encountered curriculum pressures were met with a more concerted will to overcome them. TT4 for example used the fact that they had a class assembly to use even more French in an integrated way: *'It just felt like a good idea...you know...why* not? And we [class teacher and trainee] worked on it together.'

Although communication appeared influential over attitude towards the intervention, data is much less clear about the extent to which this may have impacted upon attitude towards language learning itself. Furthermore, attitudes of pupil participants were much less directly affected by this aspect of the project. Indirectly pupils may have benefited from partnerships with clear communication channels, as Classes 1 and 4, those with easy communication, both reported a more positive impact in terms of confidence and competence than other classes post-ILL (Figs. 4.32a-c).

4.42 Collaboration: supportive, active teamwork

All adult participants were to attend meetings and training events, and where this occurred, closer and more supportive teams appeared to evolve. Subject leaders who attended all meetings were engaged in helping shape the nature of the intervention, reporting that this collaboration enhanced their understanding, ownership and subsequent motivation in supporting the intervention; it became *'more personal'* and *'theirs'* (SL1, 2).

The extent to which individuals understood and responded to their agreed roles and responsibilities influenced successful collaboration. Whilst SLs1 and 2 were supportive of the wider ILL partnership, as they were only in school one or two days a week, employed as language specialists, communication and ability to offer tangible support within the school team proved challenging and a negative influence in terms of their motivation: *'I'd prefer to do my own thing. There's really not much time to* work together (SL1).' Thus they accessed training and were motivated themselves, but found it harder to pass on to relevant staff unable to access all training themselves. Eg CT1: *'No, I didn't know about this,'* when, as HEI co-ordinator I visited the school to check teachers had all necessary information.

SLs3 and 4 also found providing tangible support challenging with other pressures related to being full-time class teachers: *'I would have liked to help them [class teacher a*nd trainee] more but SATs *just took over'* (SL4). Mind-set indeed appeared influential to the way participants responded to the various challenges that arose during the course of the intervention, as indicated by Mehisto (2008).

The mix of class teacher and PGCE PL trainee in the school partnership model was noted by class teachers, trainees, subject leaders and pupils, as being particularly favourable. It had an apparent direct impact upon the attitude and motivation of the class teacher towards French. Class teachers had not previously been targeted by LA PL INSET, and their involvement was as class advisor and support for the trainee. Thus, whilst this intervention did not directly target them, they benefited from 'INSET via the backdoor (CT4).' CTs1 and 4 offered teaching advice and planning support, they observed and CT4 even team taught with TT4, thus witnessing and helping to shape how French could be used to teach other areas of the curriculum: *'it was good to refresh and learn* useful key phrases and *vocabulary myself'* (CT4). Class teachers 2 and 3 were unable to offer as much collaboration, and findings from data suggest this led to reduced impact in these cases (Figs. 4.21a-c). Positive comments from class teachers about their involvement in the intervention in terms of how confident and motivated they felt were made by all class teachers completing final questionnaires. Cited reasons were the supportive nature of their role in advising and assisting the trainee, their ability to access training and advice otherwise targeted at Subject Leaders, and the indirect, non-pressurised way in which they could learn both from and with the trainee. These findings confirm that, whilst still cautious, all were positively influenced by the ILL partnership (Figs. 4.21a -b), particularly School 4.

In contrast, participants in School 2 appeared least influenced by ILL. Findings suggest a reduced level of collaboration contributed to this. Additional KS1 experience required by the trainee, illness and time away for interviews reduced the amount of time available for engaging with the intervention and this had direct impact upon the effectiveness of the school partnership; the final class questionnaire was completed by neither trainee nor class teacher.

4.43 Content determination

Selected 'ILL themes' were notable in their diversity (Fig.3.23b). Whilst active participation in determining these resulted in positive evaluative comments from subject leaders such as*: 'It was good* to have a say in how we could run this,' such diversity served to heighten challenge in supporting each

school. Teachers and trainees could not share teaching and learning aids, illuminated by TT2: *'it's a pity we're not all doing something similar. That would have really helped.'* Thus one aspect that motivated subject leaders did not motivate trainees. Different participants preferred different approaches; all trainees indicated preference for a more 'prescriptive' approach to facilitate wider collaboration, whereas class teachers and subject leaders reported appreciating choice and voice in shaping the intervention for their curriculum. Where the intervention appeared most successful in terms of participant motivation, a clear theme and timetabled time were identified together with further ways to integrate French into the school day, eg Class 4. In Class 2 where the intervention proved less successful, the theme of Games (Golf) was observed as becoming blurred with Sports Day and team games with other classes. In Class 3 whilst a clear theme had been identified, a lack of further embedding into the curriculum was acknowledged by TT3, CT3 and SL3 and noted by document analysis: *'I've only done the Geography with French. I haven't really put it in anywhere else'* (TT3).

Findings relating to the impact of ILL content and teaching approaches upon participant attitude and motivation are now reviewed.

4.5 Impact of ILL content and methodology upon participant attitude and motivation

Two main themes concerning the extent to which ILL methodology and content affected participant attitude/motivation emerged from data scrutiny (key question 4):

1) The degree of change: resources, staffing, literacy emphasis, TL use

2) Dual learning: getting the balance between subject and language

4.51 The degree of change

ILL altered how French was delivered in all classes (Appendices 11a-b). The extent to which changes affected participant attitude and motivation is now explored under these emergent themes: resources, staffing, literacy emphasis, TL use.

4.511 Resources

Whilst ICT remained an important tool in the teaching and learning of French with ILL, the nature of its use altered. With ILL it became more of a tool that the teachers and pupils used to enhance their language teaching/learning, rather than a package that determined both what and how they would learn. Prior to ILL, a significant reliance upon resources in determining both the content and methodology of PL teaching and learning was apparent: *'I love my Tout le Monde!' (SL1).* Appendix 11a highlights that responses from all subject leaders towards the 'what' and 'how' are very similar, with resources influencing both content and methodology. Responses indicate that resources, particularly ICT, drove PL in schools, eg 'Tout le monde' in School 1. This corroborates findings by Wade et al (2009) as to the growing influence of commercial packages. Subject leaders appeared to have interpreted the content and methodology of PL teaching as equating to the selection and then managing of ICT packages.

With ILL however, discrete lessons were supplemented by ILL lessons in all but Class 4 and these weren't resource-led, but rather content / skill-led. With no available *'ready to run'* (SL1) commercial packages, a key change to how teachers implemented French teaching was evident, where ICT was still used, but in a more supportive role, eg. Powerpoint enhancing lessons in Class 4 (Appendix 12b). The lack of commercial packages for ILL was noted as an initial barrier by many teachers, where ILL methodology required more direct intervention, challenging their confidence levels. Even SL1, a native-French speaker, conceded difficulty in identifying specific vocabulary to teach PE: *'I've never* taught it! *I've had to look in a dictionary too!'* Trainees also noted such challenge, though TT4 noted that their previous four-week teaching experience abroad was particularly helpful for ILL. This helps account for earlier findings (Figs. 4.31, 4.32) and corroborates findings in literature acknowledging the extra time needed to plan and resource CLIL teaching (Doyle, 2009; Mehisto 2008): *'The time needed to plan these lessons and the also get the resources prepared was a challenge' (TT4).*

Pupil responses conversely indicate that the reduction in use of commercial packages was motivational for them, suggesting support for Rixon's (1999) argument that such resources are useful for short-term

motivation only. Pupils in Class 3 voiced preference for physically active learning where the trainee used total physical response strategies to teach geographical vocabulary and concepts. The active engagement of pupils with their learning was noted during observation:

> Pupil1:   *'We really like the pictures and actions. Like [pupil demonstrates action for a river]. That's a fleuve.'*
> Pupil 2: *'No, a **le**uve...'*
> Pupil 1: *'No. It's definitely **f**leuve. I know. Look!' [demonstrates action and repeats the word]*.

> *'We helped make up the actions – le volcan is Paul's [substituted name] look [pupil demonstrates]* and le *montagne is mine. Here [pupil demonstrates].'*

> Pupil: '*We've learnt the compass points in French. It was easy. [Teacher] spoke really clearly* and I really like the games we *play.'*

Such comments resonate with literature concerning the motivation of games in the learning of a language (Rumley, 1999; Sharpe, 2001; Kirsch, 2008). Where Rixon (1999) however raised doubt about the long-term motivational gains in using games and songs, ILL, by giving the games and songs enhanced intrinsic purpose in terms of providing 'just-in-time' language (Mehisto et al, 2008), appears to provide some answers. Findings from this case-study support claims that providing meaningful, worthwhile contexts in which, and for which to learn language can be motivating. Motivation appears more sustainable when 'traditionally motivating' teaching strategies such as games and the use of songs are applied within purposeful, 'real' contexts provided by ILL.

4.512 Staffing

Prior to ILL, teachers other than class teachers were significant in delivery of French (Appendix 11a), but initial findings suggest that pupils were most motivated when their class teachers were somehow involved (Figs. 4.46-4.48). This corroborates literature suggesting that class teachers are a significant asset within the teaching and learning of PL (Driscoll et al, 1999; Hunt et al, 2005; Sharpe, 2001). However, whilst Driscoll,(1999) suggests it is because they 'know' their pupils and can better match learning activities to their interests, findings indicate it can also be because pupils relate to their class teachers better and are as a result more motivated to 'have a go;' that it is as much about the pupil – teacher relationship as the teacher-pupil one.

Document analysis indicates that staffing models during ILL became more consistent between classes (Appendices 11a-b). The trainee, as surrogate CT, was integral to the staffing model. The 3 schools employing 'outside' teachers to teach French discretely retained this during the ILL. This meant that most trainees were unable to directly teach the supporting discrete language lesson to support their ILL, which affected their attitude and motivation: *'I would have liked to link both [discrete lesson and PE] and have the experience of teaching the discrete lesson too. I think the pupils would have found this easier too'* (TT1). These sentiments were reiterated by all TTs, indicative of existent tensions in enabling trainees to teach languages in schools where a specialist is especially employed to do so. ILL thus resulted in each class being taught French by two teachers. This significantly increased the role of the 'class teacher'. Class 4 was unique in that the trainee and class teacher worked collaboratively to implement the ILL with no additional discrete lesson. Pupil enjoyment of French in class 4 during ILL was higher than any other participating class (Fig.4.22b). This appears at least partly attributable towards the role of the class teacher and trainee as 'surrogate class teacher' in their ILL approach. Pupils commented on how motivating it was to see their class teacher learning French with them, and the encouraging role of the 'surrogate class teacher': *'[...] is really good at pronouncing the words. I want to have a go too.'* And: *'[....] says I'm* really good –especially at pronouncing it*' (pupil in Class* 4).

4.513   Literacy emphasis

A 'fun,' active, oral emphasis in French teaching was reported in all schools pre- ILL, with writing being 'left' until Years 5/6 (Fig. 4.71). This signifies a further impact of ILL, where reading and writing were introduced much earlier. In Class 4, Y3 pupils new to learning French were reading and using French powerpoints and writing frames (Appendix 12). However, two other classes deliberately selected PE as a vehicle for ILL precisely because of the oral/aural nature of the subject which they felt would be better suited to the age of their pupils, and not require such a change in methodology: *'We follow the LA plans. We don't do any reading or writing until Yrs 5 and 6 here'* (SLs, 2 and 3). ILL thus posed challenge towards the attitude and motivation of participants due to implicit changes in implementation, such as the extent to which participant teachers were prepared to alter implementation (content, methodology and staffing) and how pupils adapted to earlier reading/writing. Pupils in Year 2 and 3 were divided about this aspect of ILL. For example: *'It's no problem at all [matching French* words to a classification key]. *We've been learning and using French so we* know. Look!-This one goes here![demonstrates];*' and 'I find matching learning with the French bit difficult;' 'Having to copy*

down French made it harder.' Findings therefore only partially corroborate Tierney & Gallastegi's (2005) beliefs that confidence and motivation can be further boosted by twinning copy writing with continued phonic awareness.

4.514   TL use

Findings suggest that ILL significantly increased pupil exposure to French. Whilst using 'incidental' French during the school day was not always new, pre-ILL no classes were using French to teach other curriculum areas. ILL however supplemented and extended previous French teaching in three classes and arguably instigated it in Class 4. For when triangulating data it emerged that although 10 minutes per week was reported by SL4 pre-ILL, in practice French consisted of *'doing the register in French when I remember'* (CT4).

However, Figs. 4.414a and 4.414b illuminate that pupil exposure to French increased and became more uniform between participating schools during ILL, with Class 4 experiencing the greatest percentage increase (900%). Their timetabled time rose from 10 minutes each week to 90 minutes. This is despite there being no discrete French lesson. This class also reported the biggest positive impact of ILL upon confidence and competence levels, suggesting a causal link. Findings from informal interviews and evaluation questionnaires however confirm that all schools reported an increase in TL time as a result of the ILL: *'For the first time we've been able to fulfil the minimum 1 hour weekly recommendation for French. Easily' (SLs 1,2,3,4).* This also proved extrinsically motivating for subject leaders, for as SL1 commented: *'I'm thrilled* – ILL is helping me tick the boxes to get *Gold accreditation for the school.'*

Fig. 4.514a Impact of ILL upon target language (French) teaching time
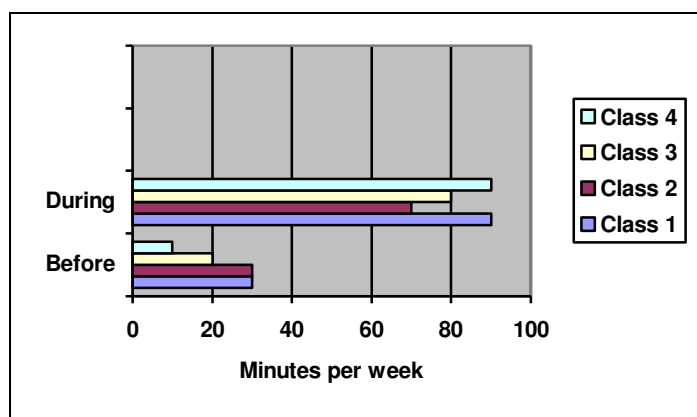
Fig.4.514b   Percentage increase in weekly TL time during ILL
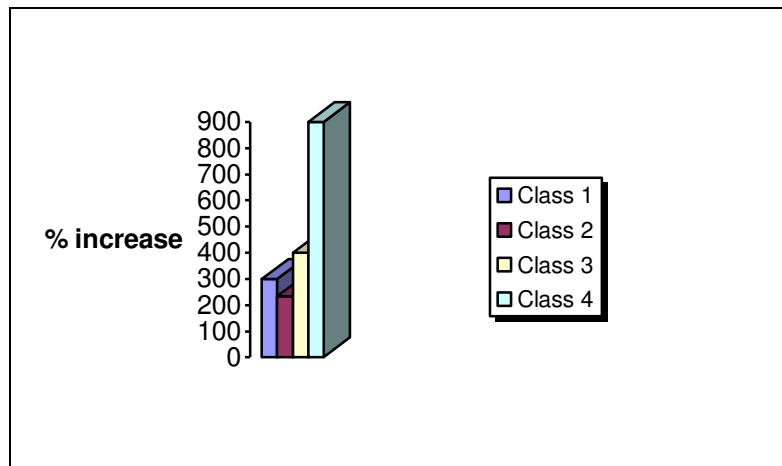
4.52   Dual learning: getting the balance

Pupil response towards this feature of ILL was mixed, with age appearing influential. Earlier analysis of questionnaires revealed subtle differences between pupils in Years 2 and 3, and those in Y5. Analysis of observation and informal interview data reveals that more positive comments than negative ones were made by both age groups. However, whilst children may have felt obliged to give me a positive answer given the situation, a subtle difference between comments of different aged pupils is apparent. Findings suggest that ILL offers pupils more intrinsic than extrinsic motivation, with this being more favourably received by the younger pupils.

Younger pupils making positive comments about the dual-learning focus of ILL voiced appreciation of the challenge involved, indicating that they were intrinsically motivated by such learning. For example:

> *'It's more interesting this way'*
> *'It's a nice challenge'*
> *'It's fun learning science and using some French too'*
> *'I get bored of just speaking English'*
> *'It's great!'*
> *'I think we learn science better this way. It's more fun – exciting. Different.'* (Pupils in Years 2 and 3).

Positive comments concerning the dual-learning focus of ILL made by older pupils in the case-study suggest that these pupils were also intrinsically motivated by the new challenge and relief from repetition. For example:

'I didn't like Geography before but now it's my favourite subject. It makes it much more fun'
'Even though it's quite hard in French I enjoy it'
'I think we learn more French this way than in our French lessons on Friday'
'The teacher makes Friday French fun with lots of games and songs, but we do recap lots. In these lessons we do lots more. And it is hard. But *interesting'* (Year 5 pupils).

However, comments suggest that some Y5 pupils were also extrinsically motivated by ILL:

'I like it because we're the first class in the whole school learning a subject like this in French. We're special'
'We do better things like learning about volcanoes and stuff like that'
*It's good 'cos we're learning two things at the same tim*e.*'* (Year 5 pupils).

Furthermore, negative opinions of ILL appeared to suggest a lack of desired extrinsic motivation by these older pupils:

'Well. I don't really need French. I only go once a year'
'I'm a bit bored. I just want to do straight Geography' (Year 5 pupils).

In contrast, negative opinions voiced by younger pupils suggest that only their intrinsic motivation had been affected:

'I don't understand the science but I do understand the French'
'When (teacher) explained in French I just couldn't understand it' (Year 2/3 pupils).

Such findings indicate that extrinsic motivation appears of increasing importance as pupils mature. TT3 also found that additional experience in Y1 compared favourably to that in Y5, where *'children* were much more open to it. They were so quick and seemed much better at using numbers. Y5 were using them by rote, but Y1 were manipulating them.*'*

The challenge of getting the balance between language and subject content to be taught and learnt with CLIL is widely recognised (Doyle, 2008, 2009, 2009b; Hood, 2009; Mehisto et al, 2008). Findings from this case-study suggest that not only were trainees and teachers affected by the time needed to effectively plans and resource lessons, but that the attitude and motivation of pupils were also affected in different ways by this balancing act, further corroborating literature linking methodology and motivation (Tierney and Gallastegi, 2005). This is further supported by the range of pupil comments concerning ILL. Y5 pupils (Class 3) distinguished between the methodologies of 'Friday French' and 'Geography French,' with most appearing to prefer the latter, finding it both more intrinsically and extrinsically motivating. The 'real', more meaningful and purposeful context in which to learn French together with the novelty of it and being the first pupils in the school to experience it *('we're special')* appeared to combine to present a positive attitude towards ILL whereas younger pupils appeared more

intrinsically motivated. This corroborates Djigunovic (1995) who argued that motivation for language learning is initially associative, then intrinsic before becoming instrumental by age 11/12.

Pupil ability also emerged as a factor influencing the attitude and motivation of pupils, trainees and teachers, resonant of reviewed literature (Clement, Dörnyei & Noels, 2006; Franklin, 1990; Matsuda & Gobel, 2003; Meiring & Norman, 2005). Some pupils in Classes 3 and 4, where an 'academic' subject was combined with French (Fig.3.23b), were observed as being frustrated by the ILL, appearing to find it difficult to access the learning of either subject *('I just don't get it'; 'I don't know what to* do so I just *follow the others'*) whilst others perceived their learning was being slowed, and resented it *('I don't like it. I want to do straight Geography and get more done').* In Class 3, a bright, native French-speaking child from the Seychelles, whilst pleased to be using more French in class, appeared politely bored. Both TT and CT4 reported feeling inhibited using French with such a fluent speaker in class, resonant of their confidence levels (Fig. 4.21a). Indeed, analysis of responses from teachers and trainees further supports the finding that ILL had variable impact upon the able and less-able learners, and that witnessing this affected their own attitude/motivation. For example:

> *'All of the children were dubious at the start. One of my brightest pupils found this especially difficult b*ecause the *extra language slowed her down. She really disengaged.' (CT4)*

> *'Confident children fly, less able are anxious and sca*red about being put on the spot.*' (CT3)*

> *'It depends on their mood and the time of day. We used to do more French on a Wednesda*y afternoon but they *were just too tired to concentrate.' (TT1)*

> *'The children weren't initially enthusiastic about French at all. It made me very cautious. And the class teacher is really shy to join in. It makes it harder but I don't want to put her on* the spot at all. After only a few lessons some *children are really thriving on it, but others are struggling more. There's a real need for differentiation. The* French is not a total leveller. Some pupils are much better at looking at language patterns, KAL *etc than others.'* (TT3)

> *'The more confident children used the language quickly in Games.' (TT2)*

In contrast, TT4 was very positive about the dual nature of ILL: *'it allows me more freedom'* and displayed an open-mind towards the balancing act: '*I don't* see mixing French and science as a *hindrance'*. This positivism is mirrored in the responses towards overall motivation towards the ILL intervention and could perhaps also stem from the level of support this trainee enjoyed from the partnership. Conversely, TTs 2 and 3 reported feeling more daunted by the challenge of combining both areas into one lesson, mirrored by their less positive overall responses towards ILL.

4.6 Summary

ILL affected the attitude and motivation of pupils, trainees and teachers in a range of ways. Findings suggest both the ILL partnership and the content/approach of ILL were contributory factors, including time to plan and resource together with the degree of change to prior practice. ILL was interpreted differently by each school partnership within the case-study and findings support the claim that teaching approach affects attitude and motivation to language learning (Tierney & Gallastegi, 2005). The extent of active collaboration between partners proved influential. Neither adult nor pupil participants were unanimous in finding ILL motivating and attitude enhancing. However, where the ILL partnership and collaboration functioned well, and pupils were positive, findings do suggest that motivation amongst class teachers increased. Similarly, where class teachers displayed active, engaged support the response of trainees and pupils was much more positive. In addition, pupil responses appeared to influence both attitude and motivation of trainee and teacher, with motivation being challenged where the learning of pupils was perceived as either being frustrated or inhibited, and increased where pupils displayed interest and enthusiasm. Indeed, an element of 'mirroring' in participant motivation was apparent. Pupils appeared most motivated when taught by their class teacher/trainee, and where the selected ILL theme was further enhanced throughout the curriculum.

Chapter 5

CONCLUSION

This study sought to investigate the impact of an integrated language teaching intervention on participant attitude and motivation, with my personal goal being to elicit the effectiveness of such small scale interventions. Fundamental to this was the overarching question concerning the extent to which integration of languages into the primary curriculum enhanced attitude and motivation for the teaching and learning of languages. Four key questions shaped this research:

1) How significant are motivation and positive attitudes in terms of effective primary language teaching and learning?
2) To what extent is there a common understanding of Integrated Language Learning (ILL) and its benefits?
3) How significant is the way in which the local ILL partnership supports and encourages participants in developing positive attitudes and motivation for PL?
4) To what extent do the ILL teaching methods used, and its content, effect participants' attitudes and motivation for PL?

Literature was reviewed to illuminate questions one and two, whilst questions three and four were informed by the empirical investigation case-study. This involved pupils in four primary classes, four teachers and subject leaders, and four PGCE trainees who participated in a 6-week ILL intervention in the Spring/Summer term in 2009, where the learning of French was combined with learning in other curriculum areas. Questionnaires sought to measure participant levels of motivation and, together with informal and formal interviews, reasons affecting attitude. Data gleaned from lesson observations and documentary evidence was used to help triangulate findings, whilst use of a research diary was an attempt to retain objectivity, for, as intervention co-ordinator, I was an 'inside-researcher.'

Reviewed literature not only highlighted the critical importance of developing and sustaining positive attitudes and motivation in early language learners (eg.De Bot, 2007; Dörnyei, 2001, 2007; Heining-Boynton & Haitama, 2007), but revealed the determining role of teaching approach (eg Tierney & Gallastegi, 2005; Wray, 2008). 'Getting it 'right' in the primary school appears of utmost importance, especially considering Ushioda's (1996) hypothesis that increased motivation means increased success; something urgently needed given agreed national and European language aims and the Government's decision to end core-status of languages post-14 (DfES, 2003). However, getting it 'right' is not as straightforward as just singing an energising song or playing a fun game. Literature reveals not only a possible transition in approach to language learning from young to older learner during the primary years (Wray, 2008), but that a transition in learner motivation during the language learning process also occurs; from associative and intrinsic through to instrumentalist as learning and age increase (Djigunovic, 1995). A balancing act between the two therefore appears necessary in the teaching of languages at primary level.

'ILL', rather conversely as its acronym would suggest, could be the tonic needed in helping teachers and learners achieve such a balance. However, despite a recent national definition (Coyle et al, 2009) a

common understanding of this term is not yet apparent. Nationally and internationally, a range of terms can be attributed to 'the many faces of CLIL' (Mehisto et al, 2008) of which ILL is but one. Even within this one 'face', diversity in interpretation emerged from this study's findings; it, like primary languages, is still evolving. Furthermore, findings corroborate claims that teaching approach affects attitude and motivation, and that pupil approach and motivation do appear subject to transition through the primary phase. Understanding this together with aspects of the ILL intervention that impacted upon these is therefore of particular interest.

Findings suggest that ILL motivated neither all pupils nor all teachers/trainees. Instead, subtle contrasts between participants were evident, supportive of the hypotheses acknowledged from literature (Wray, 2008; Mehisto, 2008; Ushioda, 1996). In terms of affecting the enjoyment of learning and using French, the ILL intervention does not seem to have been significant for any participant. However, in terms of participant feelings of confidence and competency, ILL appears more influential, perhaps attributable to the considerable increase in curriculum time for French afforded by ILL (eg 900% in class 4). Improvement in these two variables did appear to correlate with increased pupil inclination to use the TL during the school day where its use became more 'normal and natural.' Pupils often instigated or requested its use. Eg One teacher (CT1) reported pupils talking to her in French although she didn't understand, a subject leader (SL1) reported overhearing pupils in the class chattering in French whilst waiting in line, and one trainee teacher (TT4) was asked by pupils why they weren't doing more subjects in French. This finding was not a surprise as literature supports the idea that a holistic approach to language learning encourages learners to do just that. Findings from this research thus suggest it is more beneficial, in terms of sustaining motivation and effective learning, for language teachers to target pupils' feelings of confidence and competence, rather than those of enjoyment.

A slight polarising effect between the youngest and oldest pupils and between able and less-able learners emerged from data analysis, with the youngest and ablest appearing most favourably influenced. This was more unexpected as national CLIL trials have been mainly targeted at KS3, suggesting it is an approach better suited to older, more experienced learners, supported by a host of international research studies (eg.Cummins,1998; Baetens-Beardsmore, 2008; Dalton-Puffer, 2008; Donato & Tucker, 2007; Heining-Boynton & Haitema, 2007). Furthermore, Mehisto et al (2008, p.20) suggest it is a misconception that CLIL is suited only to the brightest, most academically inclined students, arguing that a wide-spectrum of learners benefit from it. Findings from this study however also revealed that some able learners, particularly the older ones, voiced frustration with ILL

suggesting they felt their recognised ability to learn quickly and easily thwarted rather than enhanced by ILL; a feeling that did not inspire them within the time-scale of the study and equally concerned their teachers. Macaro's (1995) suggestions that older pupils perceive language learning as 'work' rather than as a means of communication goes some way towards explaining this, although he was more concerned about the effect of this upon lower-achievers than higher-fliers. Findings however also indicate that this split in older pupils' attitude and motivation was most apparent where French had been combined with an 'academic subject,' eg science or geography, and was less apparent where French was combined with a practical area like PE. Some older pupils who were unimpressed with ILL also expressed a lack of extrinsic motivation in wanting to learn French, regardless of approach, eg *'I don't need French. We only go there once a year.'* This supports claims that in a setting where foreign language learning is not taken for granted, the motives to start learning a foreign language have to be particularly strong (De Bot, 2007, p.274). As argued, a rationale dictated by policymakers will be meaningless unless translated into personal motivation for learning.

A further polarising affect appeared to emerge between adult participants, with ILL interestingly having had greatest impact upon class teachers in terms of the three selected measurable variables of motivation. In contrast, most subject leaders and some trainees reported that ILL moved them out of their linguistic and pedagogical 'comfort zone,' noted even by a native-speaker (SL1) resulting in either a surprising reduction or no change in confidence and competence. Degrees of motivation appeared more dependent upon individual mindset, collaboration and support rather than upon linguistic competence. Class teachers for example were motivated by the personal contact and targeted PL –INSET received via the intervention. All groups of teachers reported that their own attitude and motivation for PL was affected by pupil response. Where pupils were most engaged and enthusiastic eg Classes 1 and 4, teachers felt most motivated. Conversely, teachers reported that their confidence and motivation for language teaching was challenged when pupils voiced or exhibited doubt about ILL, eg teachers in classes 2 and 3. In turn, pupil attitude and motivation appeared influenced by the extent of the role of their class teacher(s). This is not altogether surprising for as Mehisto et al (2008) acknowledge, one of the best ways to help pupils step out of their comfort zone is to do it yourself, supported by De Bot (2007, p.165):

> 'We have known for decades from educational psychology research that the teacher is one of the most important parts in the equation for students' success in and their attitudes toward school. Future research may help world language teachers find the tools and resources that they need to nurture positive student attitudes that, as Gardner (1985) maintained, will lead to higher achievement.'

Findings from this study thus support arguments for the inclusion of class teachers in the effective teaching and learning of primary languages, rather than their ostrisisation in preference for imported language specialists. Class teachers have a significant role to play in terms of developing and sustaining pupil motivation for language learning.

Claims in literature that 'ILL is motivating' are therefore only partially corroborated by these findings. Just as 'ILL' is not a simple approach to define, neither is its ultimate impact upon the motivation of teachers, trainees and pupils. Overall, findings suggest that an ILL intervention can positively influence participant attitude and motivation when:

- A key, link co-ordinator actively facilitates communication and collaboration between all participants at all stages of the intervention,
- Teachers (including trainees) have a positive mind-set, are willing to 'risk-take',
- Training and meetings are attended and information disseminated clearly to all participants,
- Each participant clearly understands and is able to fulfil their role and responsibility,
- Class teachers are actively involved eg encouraging and supporting trainees with team planning and team teaching,
- Trainees are confident in their use of the TL (French),
- A clear theme for ILL is selected, retained and enhanced, which matches pupils' maturational age and interest.

Ultimately, Ushioda's (1996) hypothesis which set the foundation for this study (Chapter 1), is verified; participants who appeared most motivated did appear 'most successful' in terms of the intervention's outcomes.

As a case-study however, limitations of the 'truth' of these findings are inherent. This is compounded by the 'dual-edged' nature of 'insider-research' (Punch, 2009). Difficulties encountered during data collection such as low return of pupil data from Class 2 together with inaccurate completion of some questionnaires served to accentuate this. Furthermore, the very nature of the intervention led to a broad research sample containing diverse variables such as pupil age and 'starting point' in terms of PL history. If repeating such research, concentration on just one variable or participant-type over a longer

time period would be recommended to help keep data collection methods and analysis simpler and to help yield deeper insights into the impact of ILL upon attitude and motivation.

Indeed, whilst limitations exist, findings from this investigation can provide a useful insight and indeed a springboard to the consideration of further issues. Whilst the long-term impact of this intervention upon participants is not known, the short-term positive impact upon pupils, teachers, trainees, trainers and the LA has been noticeable, suggesting the potential effectiveness of such small scale funded projects. Further research into the impact of teacher type upon pupil attitude and motivation is also suggested, as is investigating the extent to which ILL, in our cultural context, actually enhances quality of learning:

> 'If we can figure out how to help children not make that transition to adult learning so early on – not until they already have a clear belief that they KNOW the language, just not perfectly yet – then we may find that they come out with a very different attitude towards learning languages'
> (Wray, 2008, p.10).

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